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MECHANICAL
ENGINEER'S
POCKET-BOOK

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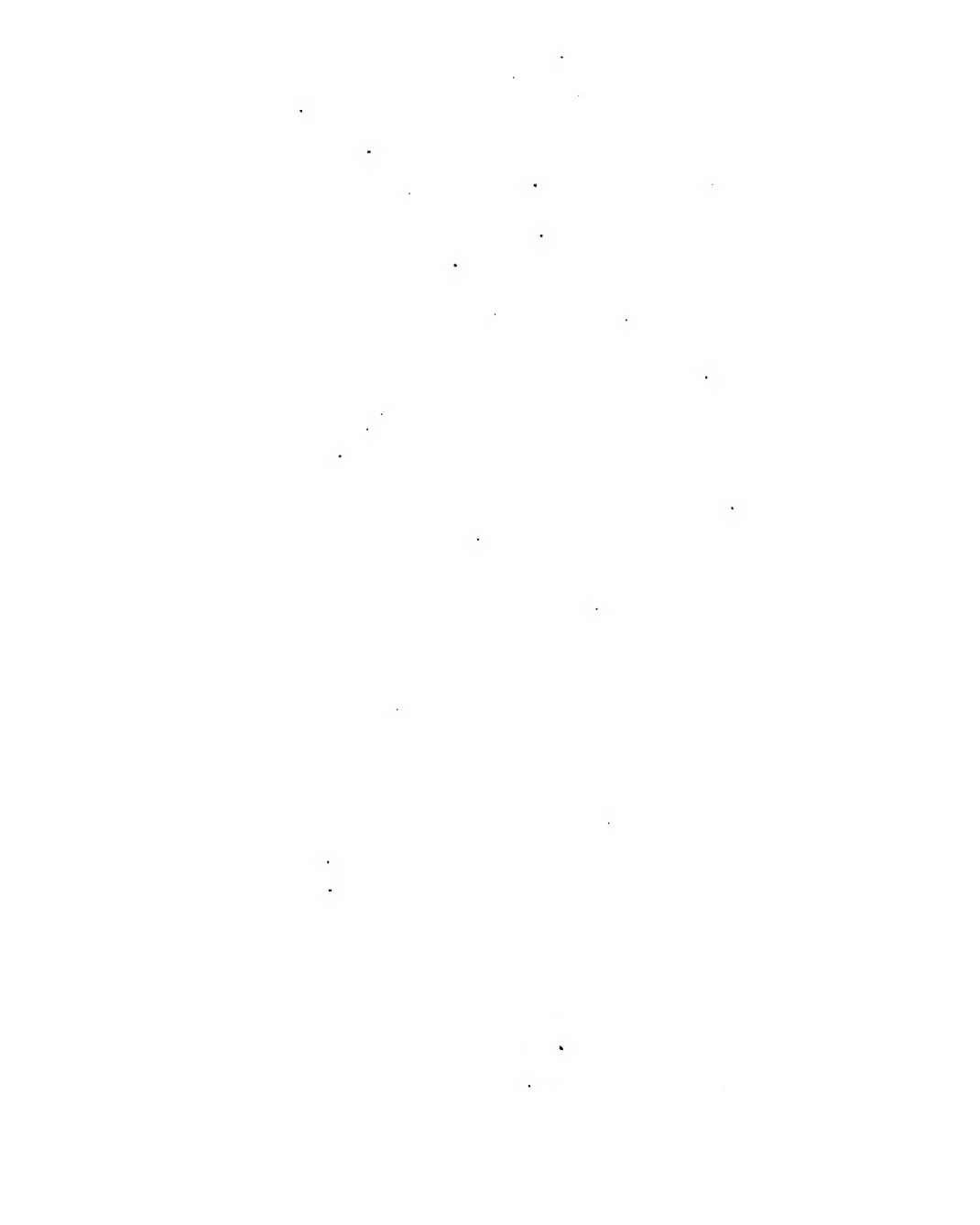


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David F. Castill



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**MECHANICAL ENGINEER'S
POCKET-BOOK.**

JOHN WILEY & SONS.

LONDON: CHAPMAN & HALL, LIMITED.

1898.
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The Publishers and the Author will be grateful to any of the readers of this volume who will kindly call their attention to any errors of omission or of commission - that they may find therein. It is intended to make our publications standard works of study and reference, and, to that end, the greatest accuracy is sought. It rarely happens that the early editions of works of any size are free from errors; but it is the endeavor of the Publishers to see them removed immediately upon being discovered, and it is therefore desired that the Author may be aided in his task of revision, from time to time, by the kindly criticism of his readers.

JOHN WILEY & SONS.

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THE
MECHANICAL ENGINEER'S
POCKET-BOOK.

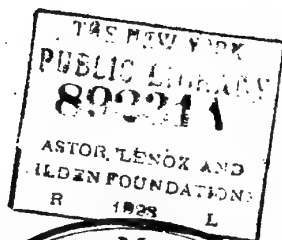
A REFERENCE-BOOK OF RULES, TABLES, DATA,
AND FORMULÆ, FOR THE USE OF
ENGINEERS, MECHANICS,
AND STUDENTS.

BY
WILLIAM KENT, A.M., M.E.,
Consulting Engineer,
Member Amer. Soc'y Mech. Engrs. and Amer. Inst. Mining Engrs.

THIRD EDITION, REVISED.

THIRD THOUSAND.

NEW YORK:
JOHN WILEY & SONS.
LONDON: CHAPMAN & HALL, LIMITED.
1898.



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BY
WILLIAM KENT.

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PREFACE.

MORE than twenty years ago the author began to follow the advice given by Nystrom: "Every engineer should make his own pocket-book, as he proceeds in study and practice, to suit his particular business." The manuscript pocket-book thus begun, however, soon gave place to more modern means for disposing of the accumulation of engineering facts and figures, viz., the index rerum, the scrap-book, the collection of indexed envelopes, portfolios and boxes, the card catalogue, etc. Four years ago, at the request of the publishers, the labor was begun of selecting from this accumulated mass such matter as pertained to mechanical engineering, and of condensing, digesting, and arranging it in form for publication. In addition to this, a careful examination was made of the transactions of engineering societies, and of the most important recent works on mechanical engineering, in order to fill gaps that might be left in the original collection, and insure that no important facts had been overlooked.

Some ideas have been kept in mind during the preparation of the Pocket-book that will, it is believed, cause it to differ from other works of its class. In the first place it was considered that the field of mechanical engineering was so great, and the literature of the subject so vast, that as little space as possible should be given to subjects which especially belong to civil engineering. While the mechanical engineer must continually deal with problems which belong properly to civil engineering, this latter branch is so well covered by Trautwine's "Civil Engineer's Pocket-book" that any attempt to treat it exhaustively would not only fill no "long-felt want," but would occupy space which should be given to mechanical engineering.

Another idea prominently kept in view by the author has been that he would not assume the position of an "authority" in giving rules and formulæ for designing, but only that of compiler, giving not only the name of the originator of the rule, where it was known, but also the volume and page from which it was taken, so that its

derivation may be traced when desired. When different formulæ for the same problem have been found they have been given in contrast, and in many cases examples have been calculated by each to show the difference between them. In some cases these differences are quite remarkable, as will be seen under Safety-valves and Crank pins. Occasionally the study of these differences has led to the author's devising a new formula, in which case the derivation of the formula is given.

Much attention has been paid to the abstracting of data of experiments from recent periodical literature, and numerous references to other data are given. In this respect the present work will be found to differ from other Pocket books.

The author desires to express his obligation to the many persons who have assisted him in the preparation of the work, to manufacturers who have furnished their catalogues and given permission for the use of their tables, and to many engineers who have contributed original data and tables. The names of these persons are mentioned in their proper places in the text, and in all cases it has been endeavored to give credit to whom credit is due. The thanks of the author are also due to the following gentlemen who have given assistance in revising manuscript and proofs of the sections named: Prof. De Volsqn Wood, mechanics and turbines; Mr. Frank Richards, compressed air; Mr. Alfred R. Wolff, windmills; Mr. Alex. C. Humphreys, illuminating gas; Mr. Albert E. Mitchell, locomotives; Prof. James E. Denton, refrigerating-machinery; Messrs. Joseph Wetzler and Thomas W. Varley, electrical engineering; and Mr. Walter S. Dix, for valuable contributions on several subjects, and suggestions as to their treatment.

WM. KENT.

Passaic, N. J., April, 1895.

THIRD EDITION, APRIL, 1897.

All the typographical and other errors discovered in the first and second editions have been corrected, a few alterations have been made in the text, and the index has been revised and enlarged.

W. K.

(For Alphabetical Index see Index 1983)

Arithmetic.

J and Algebraical Signs.....	Page 1
Common Divisor.....	2
Non Multiple.....	3
Arithmetical Equivalents of Fractions of One Inch of Denominate Numbers.....	4
Ascending and Ascending.....	5
Proportion.....	6
Powers of Numbers.....	7
First Nine Powers of the First Nine Numbers.....	8
Forty Powers of 2.....	9
Square Root.....	10
Cube Root.....	11
Progression.....	12
Interest.....	13
Interest Table, 3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent.....	14
Payments.....	15
Amount, Present Value, etc., of Annuities.....	16

Weights and Measures.

```

17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
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47
48
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1034
1035
1036
1037
1038
1039
1040
1041
1042
1043
1044
1045
1046
1047
1048
```

Board and Timber Measure.....	PAGE
Table. Contents in Feet of Joists, Scantlings, and Timber.....	
French or Metric Measures.....	
British and French Equivalents.....	
Metric Conversion Tables	
Compound Units.....	
of Pressure and Weight.....	
of Water, Weight, and Bulk.....	
of Work, Power, and Duty	
of Velocity	
of Pressure per unit area.....	
Wire and Sheet Metal Gauges.....	
Twist-drill and Steel-wire Gauges.....	
Music-wire Gauge.....	
Circular-mil Wire Gauge.....	
New U. S. Standard Wire and Sheet Gauge, 1893.....	

Algebra.

Addition, Multiplication, etc.....	
Powers of Numbers.....	
Parentheses, Division.....	
Simple Equations and Problems.....	
Equations containing two or more Unknown Quantities.....	
Elimination.....	
Quadratic Equations.....	
Theory of Exponents.....	
Binomial Theorem.....	
Geometrical Problems of Construction.....	
of Straight Lines.....	
of Angles.....	
of Circles.....	
of Triangles.....	
of Squares and Polygons.....	
of the Ellipse.....	
of the Parabola.....	
of the Hyperbola.....	
of the Cycloid.....	
of the Tractrix or Schiele Anti-friction Curve.....	
of the Spiral.....	
of the Catenary.....	
of the Involute.....	
Geometrical Propositions	

Mensuration, Plane Surfaces.

Quadrilateral, Parallelogram, etc.....	
Trapezium and Trapezoid.....	
Triangles.....	
Polygons. Table of Polygons.....	
Irregular Figures.....	
Properties of the Circle.....	
Values of π and its Multiples, etc.....	
Relations of arc, chord, etc.....	
Relations of circle to inscribed square, etc.....	
Sectors and Segments.....	
Circular Ring.....	
The Ellipse	
The Helix.....	
The Spiral.....	

Mensuration, Solid Bodies.

Prism.....	
Pyramid.....	
Wedge.....	
The Prismoidal Formula.....	
Rectangular Prismoid.....	
Cylinder.....	
Zone.....	

	PAGE
Triangle.....	61
Polygon.....	61
Zone.....	62
Segment.....	62
or Ellipsoid.....	63
Ring.....	62
Revolution.....	62
of a Spheroid.....	63
ic Conoid.....	64
of a Cask.....	64
r Solids.....	64
Plane Trigonometry.	
of Plane Triangles.....	65
ngent, Secant, etc.....	65
the Trigonometric Functions.....	66
metrical Formulæ.....	66
of Plane Right-angled Triangles.....	68
of Oblique-angled Triangles.....	68
Analytical Geometry.	
es and Abscissas.....	69
ns of a Straight Line, Intersections, etc.....	69
ns of the Circle.....	70
ns of the Ellipse.....	70
ns of the Parabola.....	70
ns of the Hyperbola.....	70
hmic Curves.....	71
Differential Calculus.	
ns.....	72
tials of Algebraic Functions.....	72
æ for Differentiating.....	73
Differentials.....	73
ls.....	73
æ for Integration.....	74
tion between Limits.....	74
ture of a Plane Surface.....	74
ture of Surfaces of Revolution.....	75
re of Volumes of Revolution.....	75
Third, etc., Differentials.....	75
in's and Taylor's Theorems.....	76
and Minima.....	76
tial of an Exponential Function.....	77
lms.....	77
tial Forms which have Known Integrals.....	78
tial Functions.....	78
r Functions.....	78
oid.....	79
l Calculus.....	79
Mathematical Tables.	
als of Numbers 1 to 2000.....	80
, Cubes, Square Roots, and Cube Roots from 0.1 to 1600.....	86
and Cubes of Decimals.....	101
oots and Fifth Powers.....	102
ferences and Areas of Circles, Diameters 1 to 1000.....	103
ferences and Areas of Circles, Advancing by Eighths from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{7}{8}$	108
s of a Foot Equivalent to Inches and Fractions of an Inch.....	112
ferences of Circles in Feet and Inches, from 1 inch to 32 feet 11 in diameter.....	113
Circular Arcs, Degrees Given.....	114
Circular Arcs, Height of Arc Given.....	114
Segments of a Circle.....	114

Spheres.....
Contents of Pipes and Cylinders, Cubic Feet and Gallons.....
Cylindrical Vessels, Tanks, Cisterns, etc.....
Gallons in a Number of Cubic Feet.....
Cubic Feet in a Number of Gallons.....
Square Feet in Plates 3 to 32 feet long and 1 inch wide.....
Capacities of Rectangular Tanks in Gallons.....
Number of Barrels in Cylindrical Cisterns and Tanks.....
Logarithms.....
Table of Logarithms.....
Hyperbolic Logarithms.....
Natural Trigonometrical Functions.....
Logarithmic Trigonometrical Functions.....

MATERIALS.

Chemical Elements.....
Specific Gravity and Weight of Materials.....
Metals, Properties of.....
The Hydrometer.....
Aluminium.....
Antimony.....
Bismuth.....
Cadmium.....
Copper.....
Gold.....
Iridium.....
Iron.....
Lead.....
Magnesium.....
Manganese.....
Mercury.....
Nickel.....
Platinum.....
Silver.....
Tin.....
Zinc.....

Miscellaneous Materials.

Order of Malleability, etc., of Metals.....
Formulae and Table for Calculating Weight of Rods, Plates, etc.....
Measures and Weights of Various Materials.....
Commercial Sizes of Iron Bars.....
Weights of Iron Bars.....
of Flat Rolled Iron.....
of Iron and Steel Sheets.....
of Plate Iron.....
of Steel Blooms.....
of Structural Shapes.....
Sizes and Weights of Carnegie Deck Beams.....
Steel Channels.....
Z Bars.....
Pencoyd Steel Angles.....
Tees.....
Channels.....
Roofing Materials.....
Terra-cotta.....
Tiles.....
Tin Plates.....
Slates.....
Pine Shingles.....
Sky-light Glass.....
Weights of Various Roof-coverings.....
Cast-iron Pipes or Columns.....
12 ft. lengths.....
Pipe fittings.....
Water and Gas-pipe.....
and thickness of Cast-iron Pipes.....
Safe Pressures on Cast Iron Pipe.....

	PAGE
Hydraulic Pipe.....	191
Lead Flanges.....	192
Cast and Cast-iron Pipe.....	193
Sizes of Wrought-iron Pipe.....	194
Welded Tubes.....	196
Iron Pipes.....	197
Iron for Riveted Pipe.....	197
Steel Pipe.....	198
Brass Tubing.....	198, 199
Copper.....	199
Copper and Zinc Tubing.....	200
Tin-lined Lead Pipe.....	201
Copper and Brass Wire and Plates.....	202
Round Bolt Copper.....	202
Sheet and Bar Brass.....	203
Iron of Rolled Brass.....	203
Shot.....	204
Standard, U. S. Standard.....	204
Threads for Screw-threads.....	205
Threads for Standard Bolts.....	206
Screw-threads for Bolts and Taps.....	207
Nuts and Tap Screws.....	208
Machine Screws.....	209
Weights of Nuts.....	209
Weights of Bolts with Heads.....	210
Weights of Nuts and Bolt-heads.....	210
Rivets.....	211
Furnibuckles.....	211
.....	212
Spikes.....	212
.....	212
Spikes.....	213
.....	213
.....	213
.....	214
Size, Strength, etc.....	216
Iron Telegraph Wire.....	217
Telegraph Wire.....	217
Wire Table, B. W. Gauge.....	218
“ “ Edison or Circular Mil Gauge.....	219
“ “ B. & S. Gauge.....	220
Wire.....	221
Telegraph Wire.....	221
Cables.....	222
Steel-wire Strand.....	223
Cables for Vessels.....	223
Wire for Galvanized Iron Wire.....	224
of Piano Wire.....	224
Steel Wire.....	224
different metals.....	225
Wire for Copper Wire.....	225
Wire Ropes.....	226
.....	226
Steel Ropes.....	227
Iron Wire Rope.....	228
.....	228
.....	229
.....	229
Steel Cables.....	230
of Chains and Ropes.....	230
Use of Wire Rope.....	231
Wire Rope.....	231
.....	232
of Logs, Lumber, etc.....	232
Fire Brick.....	233
Analysis.....	234
Bricks.....	235
.....	235

Strength of Materials.

Stress and Strain
Elastic Limit.....
Yield Point.....
Modulus of Elasticity.....
Resilience.....
Elastic Limit and Ultimate Stress.....
Repeated Stresses.....
Repeated Shocks.....
Stresses due to Sudden Shocks.....
Increasing Tensile Strength of Bars by Twisting.....
Tensile Strength.....
Measurement of Elongation.....
Shapes of Test Specimens.....
Compressive Strength.....
Columns, Pillars, or Struts.....
Hodgkinson's Formula.....
Gordon's Formula.....
Moment of Inertia.....
Radius of Gyration.....
Elements of Usual Sections.....
Solid Cast-iron Columns.....
Hollow Cast-iron Columns.....
Wrought-iron Columns.....
Safe load of Cast-iron Columns.....
Eccentric loading of Columns.....
Built Columns.....
Phoenix Columns.....
Working Formulæ for Struts.....
Merriman's Formula for Columns.....
Working Strains in Bridge Members.....
Working Stresses for Steel.....
Resistance of Hollow Cylinders to Collapse.....
Collapsing Pressure of Tubes or Flues.....
Formula for Corrugated Furnaces.....
Transverse Strength.....
Formulæ for Flexure of Beams.....
Safe Loads on Steel Beams.....
Elastic Resilience.....
Beams of Uniform Strength.....
Properties of Rolled Structural Shapes.....
Spacing of I Beams.....
Properties of Steel I Beams.....
" " Channels.....
" " Z Bars.....
Iron Beams and Channels.....
Trenton Angle Bars.....
" Tee Bars.....
Size of Beams for Floors.....
Flooring Material.....
Tie Rods for Brick Arches.....
Torsional Strength.....
Elastic Resistance to Torsion.....
Combined Stresses.....
Stress due to Temperature.....
Strength of Flat Plates.....
Strength of Unstayed Flat Surfaces.....
Unbraced Heads of Boilers.....
Thickness of Flat Cast-iron Plates.....
Strength of Stayed Surfaces.....
Spherical Shells and Domed Heads.....
Stresses in Steel Plating under Water Pressure.....
Thick Hollow Cylinders under Tension.....
Thin Cylinders under Tension.....
Hollow Copper Balls.....
Holding Power of Nails, Spikes, Bolts, and Screws.....
<i>versus</i> Wire Nails.....
<i>with</i> of Wrought-iron Bolts.....

	PAGE
ing Process of Annealing.....	387
ood and Iron Structures.....	388
f Paints.....	389

Steel.

etween Chem. and Phys. Properties.....	389
in Strength.....	391
th.....	392
.....	393
g Soft Steel.....	393
Cold Rolling.....	393
on of Full-sized and Small Pieces.....	394
it of Structural Steel.....	394
of Annealing upon Magnetic Capacity.....	395
tions for Steel.....	397
hip and Tank Plates.....	399
Springs, Axles, etc.....	400
bon be Burned out of Steel.....	402
ence of Steel.....	402
Nicking a Bar.....	402
Conductivity.....	402
Gravity.....	402
al Failures.....	402
tion in Ingots.....	404
Uses for Structures.....	405
sings.....	405
se Steel.....	407
eel.....	407
um Steel.....	409
Steel.....	409
n Steel.....	409
sed Steel.....	410
Steel.....	410
f Heat on Grain.....	412
Hammering, etc.....	412
and Forging.....	412
ng Steel.....	413

MECHANICS.

init of Force.....	415
.....	415
s Laws of Motion.....	415
on of Forces.....	415
gram of Forces.....	416
of a Force.....	416
Moment, Stability.....	417
of a Dam.....	417
Forces.....	417
.....	418
um of Forces.....	418
f Gravity.....	418
of Inertia.....	419
f Gyration.....	420
f Gyration.....	420
f Oscillation.....	421
f Percussion.....	422
ulum.....	423
Pendulum.....	423
gal Force.....	423
tion.....	424
Bodies.....	424
f g.....	424
Velocity.....	425
ue to Velocity.....	425
gram of Velocities.....	426
.....	427
Acceleration.....	427
Inclined Planes.....	428
u.....	428

Vis Viva.....	
Work, Foot-pound.....	
Power, Horse-power.....	
Energy.....	
Work of Acceleration.....	
Force of a Blow.....	
Impact of Bodies.....	
Energy of Recoil of Guns.....	
Conservation of Energy.....	
Perpetual Motion.....	
Efficiency of a Machine.....	
Animal-power, Man-power.....	
Work of a Horse.....	
Man-wheel.....	
Horse-gin.....	
Resistance of Vehicles.....	

Elements of Machines.

The Lever.....	
The Bent Lever.....	
The Moving Strut.....	
The Toggle-joint.....	
The Inclined Plane.....	
The Wedge.....	
The Screw.....	
The Cam.....	
The Pulley.....	
Differential Pulley.....	
Differential Windlass.....	
Differential Screw.....	
Wheel and Axle.....	
Toothed-wheel Gearing.....	
Endless Screw.....	

Stresses in Framed Structures.

Cranes and Derricks.....	
Shear Poles and Guys.....	
King Post Truss or Bridge.....	
Queen Post Truss.....	
Burr Truss.....	
Pratt or Whipple Truss.....	
Howe Truss.....	
Warren Girder.....	
Roof Truss.....	

HEAT.

Thermometers and Pyrometers.....	
Centigrade and Fahrenheit degrees compared.....	
Copper-ball Pyrometer.....	
Thermo-electric Pyrometer.....	
Temperatures in Furnaces.....	
Wiborgh Air Pyrometer.....	
Seeger's Fire-clay Pyrometer.....	
Meuré and Nouel's Pyrometer.....	
Uehling and Steinbart's Pyrometer.....	
Air-thermometer.....	
High Temperatures judged by Color.....	
Boiling-points of Substances.....	
Melting-points.....	
Unit of Heat.....	
Mechanical Equivalent of Heat.....	
Heat of Combustion.....	
Specific Heat.....	
Heat of Fusion.....	4

ion of Sugar Solutions.....	465
ig by Exhaust Steam.....	465
Vacuum.....	466
of Heat.....	467
and Convection of Heat.....	468
Coverings.....	470
ternal Conduction.....	471
ion through Plates.....	473
in Condenser Tubes.....	473
Cast-Iron Plates.....	474
from Air or Gases to Water.....	474
from Steam or Hot Water to Air.....	475
through Walls of Buildings.....	478
namics.....	478

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF GASES.

of Gases.....	479
Marriott's Law.....	479
Avogadro's Law.....	479
Point of Vapors.....	480
aceous Pressure.....	480
ases.....	480
by Liquids.....	480

AIR.

of Air.....	481
meter.....	481
t Different Altitudes.....	481
c Pressures.....	482
by the Barometer and by Boiling Water.....	482
ference in Altitude.....	483
n Atmosphere.....	483
Air and Mixtures of Air and Vapor.....	484
eat of Air.....	484

Flow of Air.

ir through Orifices.....	484
ir in Pipes.....	485

Loss due to Excess of Pressure	21
Horse-power Required for Compression	22
Table for Adiabatic Compression	23
Mean Effective Pressures	24
Mean and Terminal Pressures	25
Air-compressors	26
Practical Results	27
Efficiency of Compressed-air Engines	28
Requirements of Rock-drills	29
Popp Compressed-air System	30
Small Compressed-air Motors	31
Efficiency of Air-heating Stoves	32
Efficiency of Compressed-air Transmission	33
Shops Operated by Compressed Air	34
Pneumatic Postal Transmission	35
Mekarski Compressed air Tramways	36
Compressed Air Working Pumps in Mines	37

Fans and Blowers.

Centrifugal Fans	38
Best Proportions of Fans	39
Pressure due to Velocity	40
Experiments with Blowers	41
Quantity of Air Delivered	42
Efficiency of Fans and Positive Blowers	43
Capacity of Fans and Blowers	44
Table of Centrifugal Fans	45
Engines, Fans, and Steam-coils for the Blower System of Heating	46
Sturtevant Steel Pressure-blower	47
Diameter of Blast-pipes	48
Centrifugal Ventilators for Mines	49
Experiments on Mine Ventilators	50
Disk Fans	51
Air Removed by Exhaust Wheel	52
Efficiency of Disk Fans	53
Positive Rotary Blowers	54
Blowing Engines	55
Steam-jet Blowers	56
Steam-jet for Ventilation	57

HEATING AND VENTILATION.

Ventilation	58
Quantity of Air Discharged through a Ventilating Duct	59
Artificial Cooling of Air	60
Mine-ventilation	61
Friction of Air in Underground Passages	62
Equivalent Orifices	63
Relative Efficiency of Fans and Heated Chimneys	64
Heating and Ventilating of Large Buildings	65
Rules for Computing Radiating Surfaces	66
Overhead Steam-pipes	67
Indirect Heating-surface	68
Boiler Heating-surface Required	69
Proportion of Grate-surface to Radiator-surface	70
Steam consumption in Car-heating	71
Diameters of Steam Supply Mains	72
Registers and Cold-air Ducts	73
Physical Properties of Steam and Condensed Water	74
Size of Steam-pipes for Heating	75
Heating a Greenhouse by Steam	76
Heating a Greenhouse by Hot Water	77
Hot-water Heating	78
Law of Velocity of Flow	79
Proportions of Radiating Surfaces to Cubic Capacities	80
Proportion of Main and Branch Pipes	81
for Heating	82
and	83

	PAGE
System of Heating and Ventilating.....	545
Units with Radiators.....	545
Building to 70° F.....	545
Electricity.....	545

WATER.

of Water.....	547
Water at different temperatures.....	547
Water due to its Weight.....	549
Responding to Pressures.....	549
.....	550
nt.....	550
oint.....	550
ow.....	549, 550
at of Water.....	550
bility of Water.....	550
of Water.....	551
Incrustation.....	551
Preventing Incrustation.....	551
f Boiler-scale.....	552
of Water.....	552
Feed-water.....	554
Hard Water.....	554

Hydraulics. Flow of Water.

r Discharge through Orifices	555
Water from Orifices	556
Open and Closed Channels	557
Formulae for Flow	557
of Feet per mile, etc.	558
Formulae for Circular Pipes	559
Formula	559
Head's Formula	562
Formula	563
Formula	563
nula	564
f Water in Open Channels	564
Surface and Bottom Velocities	564
Mean and Mean Velocities	565
of Soil to Erosion	565
and Transporting Power of Water	565
owers	566
of Diameter of Pipe to Quantity discharged	566
Water in a 20-Inch Pipe	566
in Smooth Cast-iron Water-pipes	567
Flow of Water in Circular Pipes	568-573
Head	573
Heads at given rates of discharge	577
Tend and Curves	578
Grade-line	578
Water in House-service Pipes	578
Pipes	579
Tests	579
Discharged through Meters	579
Losses	579
Losses in Hose	580
Pressure Losses by Friction	580
Pressure in smooth 2½-Inch Hose	580
Capacity of Steam Fire-engines	581
required to throw water through Nozzles	581
Nozzle	581
Quantity of Flowing Water	582
Rate	582
R Gauge	583
of Meter	583
Method of Discharge by means of Nozzles	583

Flow through Rectangular Orifices.....	1
Measurement of an Open Stream.....	2
Miners' Inch Measurements.....	3
Flow of Water over Weirs.....	4
Francis's Formula for Weirs.....	5
Weir Table.....	6
Bazin's Experiments.....	7

Water-power.

Power of a Fall of Water.....	8
Horse-power of a Running Stream.....	9
Current Motors.....	10
Horse-power of Water Flowing in a Tube.....	11
Maximum Efficiency of a Long Conduit.....	12
Mill-power.....	13
Value of Water-power.....	14
The Power of Ocean Waves.....	15
Utilization of Tidal Power.....	16

Turbine Wheels.

Proportions of Turbines.....	17
Tests of Turbines.....	18
Dimensions of Turbines.....	19
The Pelton Water-wheel.....	20

Pumps.

Theoretical capacity of a pump.....	21
Depth of Suction.....	22
Amount of Water raised by a Single-acting Lift-pump.....	23
Proportioning the Steam-cylinder of a Direct-acting Pump.....	24
Speed of Water through Pipes and Pump-passages.....	25
Sizes of Direct-acting Pumps.....	26
The Deane Pump.....	27
Efficiency of Small Pumps.....	28
The Worthington Duplex Pump.....	29
Speed of Piston.....	30
Speed of Water through Valves.....	31
Boiler-feed Pumps.....	32
Pump Valves.....	33
Centrifugal Pumps.....	34
Lawrence Centrifugal Pumps.....	35
Efficiency of Centrifugal and Reciprocating Pumps.....	36
Vanes of Centrifugal Pumps.....	37
The Centrifugal Pump used as a Suction Dredge.....	38
Duty Trials of Pumping Engines.....	39
Leakage Tests of Pumps.....	40
Vacuum Pumps.....	41
The Pulsometer.....	42
The Jet Pump.....	43
The Injector.....	44
Air-lift Pump.....	45
The Hydraulic Ram.....	46
Quantity of Water Delivered by the Hydraulic Ram.....	47

Hydraulic Pressure Transmission.

Energy of Water under Pressure.....	48
Efficiency of Apparatus.....	49
Hydraulic Presses.....	50
Hydraulic Power in London.....	51
Hydraulic Riveting Machines.....	52
Hydraulic Forging.....	53
The Aiken Intensifier.....	54
Hydraulic Engine.....	55

FUEL.

Theory of Combustion.....	56
Cal Heat of Combustion.....	57

	PAGE
Use of Gases of Combustion.....	622
Structure of the Fire.....	622
Distillation of Solid Fuel.....	623
Distillation of Coals.....	624
Use of Coals.....	624
Lignites.....	631
Use of Foreign Coals.....	631
Navigation Coal.....	632
Coal for Analyses.....	632
Value of Fine Sizes.....	632
Use of Fuel.....	632
Value of Steam Coals.....	633
Rate Heating Value of Coals.....	634
Processes Adapted for Different Coals.....	635
Indraught Furnaces.....	635
Tests of American Coals.....	636
Power of Bituminous Coals.....	636
Use of Coal.....	637
Use in Coking.....	637
Use of By-products in Coke manufacture.....	638
Use of Coke.....	638
Use of Steam from the Waste Heat and Gases from Coke-ovens.....	638
Use of the Distillation of Coal.....	639
Use of Fuel.....	639
Use of Wood.....	639
Use of Wood.....	640
Use of Charcoal from a Cord of Wood.....	641
Use of Charcoal in Blast Furnaces.....	641
Use of Water and of Gases by Charcoal.....	641
Use of Charcoals.....	642
Use of Solid Fuels.....	642
Dust Explosions.....	642
Use of Fuel.....	643
Use as Fuel.....	643
Use as Fuel.....	643
Use as Fuel.....	643
Fuel in Sugar Manufacture.....	643

Petroleum.

Use of Distillation.....	645
Use of Petroleum.....	645
Use of Petroleum as Fuel.....	645
Use as Fuel.....	646

Fuel Gas.

Use of Gas.....	646
Use of Gas.....	647
Use of Gas.....	647
Use of Gas.....	648
Use of Gas from One Ton of Coal.....	649
Use in Ohio and Indiana.....	649
Use of Producer-gas.....	650
Use in Producers.....	650
Use in Small Furnaces.....	651

Illuminating Gas.

Use of Illuminating Gas.....	651
Use of Water-gas and Coal gas.....	652
Use of Water-gas and Coal gas.....	653
Use of Water-gas and Coal gas.....	654
Use of Water-gas and Coal gas.....	654
Use of Water-gas and Coal gas.....	655
Use of Water-gas and Coal gas.....	655

Flow of Gas in Pipes.....
Service for Lamps.....

STEAM.

Temperature and Pressure.....
Total Heat
Latent Heat of Steam.....
Latent Heat of Volume
Specific Heat of Saturated Steam.....
Density and Volume.....
Superheated Steam.....
Regnault's Experiments.....
Table of the Properties of Steam.....

Flow of Steam.

Napier's Approximate Rule
Flow of Steam in Pipes
Loss of Pressure Due to Radiation.....
Resistance to Flow by Bends
Sizes of Steam-pipes for Stationary Engines
Sizes of Steam-pipes for Marine Engines

Steam Pipes.

Bursting-tests of Copper Steam-pipes.....
Thickness of Copper Steam-pipes.....
Reinforcing Steam-pipes
Wire-wound Steam-pipes
Riveted Steel Steam-pipes
Valves in Steam-pipes.....
Flanges for Steam-pipe.....
The Steam Loop
Loss from an Uncovered Steam-pipe.....

THE STEAM BOILER.

The Horse-power of a Steam-boiler.....
Measures for Comparing the Duty of Boilers.....
Steam-boiler Proportions
Heating-surface
Horse-power, Builders' Rating.....
Grate-surface.....
Areas of Flues
Air-passages Through Grate-bars
Performance of Boilers
Conditions which Secure Economy
Efficiency of a Boiler
Tests of Steam-boilers
Boilers at the Centennial Exhibition.....
Tests of Tubulous Boilers.....
High Rates of Evaporation.....
Economy Effected by Heating the Air.....
Results of Tests with Different Coals.....
Maximum Boiler Efficiency with Cumberland Coal
Boilers Using Waste Gases
Boilers for Blast Furnaces
Rules for Conducting Boiler Tests.....
Table of Factors of Evaporation

Strength of Steam-boilers.

Rules for Construction
Shell-plate Formulae
Rules for Flat Plates
Furnace Formulae.....
Material for Stays.....
Loads allowed on Stays
Tables
Table of Boilers in Merchant Vessels in U. S.....

CONTENTS.

xxi

	PAGE
le for Allowable Pressures.....	706
orking Pressures	707
verning Inspection of Boilers in Philadelphia.....	708
id Tubes for Steam Boilers	709
yed Surfaces.....	709
ar of Stay-bolts.....	710
b of Stays.....	710
its in Curved Surfaces.....	710

Boiler Attachments, Furnaces, etc.

Plugs.....	710
Domes	711
of Furnace	711
ical Stokers.....	711
wley Down-draught Furnace.....	712
feed Stokers.....	712
Prevention.....	712
d Steam-boilers	714
Combustion.....	714
onomizers.....	715
ation and Scale	716
scale Compounds.....	717
al of Hard Scale.....	718
on in Marine Boilers.....	719
Zinc	720
of Deposit on Flues	720
ous Boilers.....	720

Safety Valves.

or Area of Safety-valves	721
loaded Safety-valves.....	724

The Injector.

m of the Injector.....	725
nance of Injectors.....	726
eeding Pumps	726

Feed-water Heaters.

Caused by Cold Feed-water.....	727
--------------------------------	-----

Steam Separators.

cy of Steam Separators.....	728
-----------------------------	-----

Determination of Moisture in Steam.

lorimeter.....	729
ing Calorimeters.....	729
ing Calorimeters.....	730
cation of Dry Steam.....	730
Amount of Moisture in Steam	731

Chimneys.

y Draught Theory	731
r Intensity of Draught.....	732
' Combustion Due to Height of Chimney.....	733
Chimneys not Necessary.....	734
s of Chimneys Required for Different Fuels.....	734
f Size of Chimneys.....	734
ion of Chimney from Lightning.....	736
all Brick Chimneys.....	737
y of Chimneys.....	738
Chimneys.....	739
Chimneys.....	740
ron Chimneys.....	741

THE STEAM ENGINE.

on of Steam	743
d Terminal Absolute Pressures.....	74

Calculation of Mean Effective Pressure.....
Work of Steam in a Single Cylinder.....
Measures for Comparing the Duty of Engines.....
Efficiency, Thermal Units per Minute.....
Real Ratio of Expansion.....
Effect of Compression.....
Clearance in Low and High Speed Engines.....
Cylinder-condensation.....
Water-consumption of Automatic Cut-off Engines.....
Experiments on Cylinder-condensation.....
Indicator Diagrams.....
Indicated Horse-power.....
Rules for Estimating Horse-power.....
Horse-power Constant.....
Errors of Indicators.....
Table of Engine Constants.....
To Draw Clearance on Indicator-diagram.....
To Draw Hyperbolic Curve on Indicator-diagram.....
Theoretical Water Consumption.....
Leakage of Steam.....

Compound Engines.

Advantages of Compounding.....
Woolf and Receiver Types of Engines.....
Combined Diagrams.....
Proportions of Cylinders in Compound Engines.....
Receiver Space.....
Formula for Calculating Work of Steam.....
Calculation of Diameters of Cylinders.....
Triple-expansion Engines.....
Proportions of Cylinders.....
Annular Ring Method.....
Rule for Proportioning Cylinders.....
Types of Three-stage Expansion Engines.....
Sequence of Cranks.....
Velocity of Steam Through Passages.....
Quadruple Expansion Engines.....
Diameters of Cylinders of Marine Engines.....
Progress in Steam-engines.....
a Double-tandem Triple-expansion Engine.....
Principal Engines, World's Columbian Exhibition, 1893.....

Steam Engine Economy.

conomic Performance of Steam Engines.....
eed-water Consumption of Different Types.....
zes and Calculated Performances of Vertical High-speed Engines.....
ost Economical Point of Cut-off.....
pe of Engine Used when Exhaust-steam is used for Heating.....
mparison of Compound and Single cylinder Engines.....
n-cylinder and Three-cylinder Engines.....
ect of Water in Steam on Efficiency.....
ative Commercial Economy of Compound and Triple-expansion Engines.....
le-expansion Pumping-engines.....
of a Triple-expansion Engine with and without Jackets.....
tive Economy of Engines under Variable Loads.....
ency of Non-condensing Compound Engines.....
omy of Engines under Varying Loads.....
n Consumption of Various Sizes.....
u Consumption in Small Engines.....
r Consumption at Various Speeds.....
ation of Engine Speed.....
nce of the Steam Jacket.....
erbalancing Engines.....
iting Vibrations of Engines.....
ations Embedded in Air.....
eam-power.....

ns of Cylinder	788
r Heads	794
r-head Bolts	795
ton	795
acking-rings	796
iston-rod	796
er of Piston-rods	797
rod Guides	798
necting-rod	799
ing-rod Ends	800
i Connecting-rods	801
ink-pin	801
ad-pin or Wrist-pin	804
ink-arm	805
ift, Twisting Resistance	806
ce to Bending	808
ent Twisting Moment	808
el Shafts	809
of Shaft-bearings	810
hafts with Centre-crank and Double-crank Arms	813
haft with two Cranks Coupled at 90°	814
tem or Valve-rod	815
Slot-link	815
entric	816
entric-rod	816
ng-gear	816
frames or Bed-plates	817

Fly-wheels.

of Fly-wheels	817
igal Force in Fly-wheels	820
l Fly-wheels and Pulleys	820
ers for Various Speeds	821
in the Rims	822
ss of Rims	823
len Rim Fly-wheel	824
ound Fly-wheels	824

The Slide-valve.

ons. Lan. Lead. etc.	824
---------------------------	-----

Fly-wheel or Shaft-governors.....	81
Calculation of Springs for Shaft-governors	82

Condensers, Air-pumps, Circulating-pumps, etc.

The Jet Condenser.....	83
Ejector Condensers.....	84
The Surface Condenser.....	85
Condenser Tubes.....	86
Tube-plates.....	87
Spacing of Tubes.....	88
Quantity of Cooling Water.....	89
Air-pump.....	90
Area through Valve-seats.....	91
Circulating-pump.....	92
Feed-pumps for Marine-engines.....	93
An Evaporative Surface Condenser.....	94
Continuous Use of Condensing Water.....	95
Increase of Power by Condensers.....	96
Evaporators and Distillers.....	97

GAS, PETROLEUM, AND HOT-AIR ENGINES.

Gas-engines.....	98
Efficiency of the Gas engine.....	99
Tests of the Simplex Gas Engine.....	100
A 30-H. P. Gas engine.....	101
Test of an Otto Gas-engine.....	102
Temperatures and Pressures Developed.....	103
Test of the Clerk Gas-engine.....	104
Combustion of the Gas in the Otto Engine.....	105
Use of Carburetted Air in Gas-engines.....	106
The Otto Gasoline-engine.....	107
The Priestman Petroleum-engine.....	108
Test of a 5-H. P. Priestman Petroleum-engine.....	109
Naphtha-engines.....	110
Hot-air or Caloric-engines.....	111
Test of a Hot-air Engine.....	112

LOCOMOTIVES.

Efficiency of Locomotives and Resistance of Trains.....	113
Inertia and Resistance at Increasing Speeds.....	114
Efficiency of the Mechanism of a Locomotive.....	115
Size of Locomotive Cylinders.....	116
Size of Locomotive Boilers.....	117
Qualities Essential for a Free-steaming Locomotive.....	118
Wooten's Locomotive.....	119
Grate-surface, Smoke-stacks, and Exhaust-nozzles for Locomotives.....	120
Exhaust Nozzles.....	121
Fire-brick Arches.....	122
Size, Weight, Tractive Power, etc.....	123
Loading American Types.....	124
Steam Distribution for High Speed.....	125
Speed of Railway Trains.....	126
Dimensions of Some American Locomotives.....	127
Indicated Water Consumption.....	128
Locomotive Testing Apparatus.....	129
Waste of Fuel in Locomotives.....	130
Advantages of Compounding.....	131
Counterbalancing Locomotives.....	132
Maximum Safe Load on Steel Rails.....	133
Narrow-gauge Railways.....	134
Petroleum-burning Locomotives.....	135
Fireless Locomotives.....	136

SHAFTING.

Diameters Resist Torsional Strain.....	137
Deflection of Shafting.....	138
Horse-power Transmitted by Shafting.....	139
Table for Laying Out Shafting.....	140

PULLEYS.

	PAGE
Use of Pulleys.....	873
Use of Pulleys.....	874
Use of Pulleys.....	874

BELTING.

Belts and Bands.....	876
Initial Tension.....	876
Practice, Formulas for Belting.....	877
Use of a Belt one inch wide.....	878
Use's Formula.....	878
Belt for Given Horse-power.....	879
Rules for Belting.....	880
Belting.....	882
Belts.....	883
Belt on Quarter-twist.....	883
Use Length of Belt.....	884
Use Angle of the Arc of Contact.....	884
Use Length of Belt when Closely Rolled.....	884
Use Approximate Weight of Belts.....	884
Use of the Size and Speeds of Driving and Driven Pulleys.....	884
Use of Belts.....	886
Use of Belts.....	886
Use of Belts and Pulleys.....	886
Use of Belts.....	886
Use of Belting.....	886
Use Independent of Diameter.....	886
Use of Belts.....	886
Use of Belts.....	886
Use of Belts.....	887
Use of Belts.....	887
Use of Belts.....	887

GEARING.

Use of Gears, etc.....	887
Use of Circular Pitch.....	888
Use of Pitch.....	889
Use of Pitch-line of Wheels from 10 to 100 Teeth.....	889
Use of Teeth.....	889
Use of Gear-wheels.....	891
Use of Teeth.....	891
Use of Calculating the Speed of Gears and Pulleys.....	891
Use of Gears for Interchangeable Gears.....	892

Forms of the Teeth.

Use of Addendum.....	892
Use of Addendum.....	894
Use of Addendum by Circular Arcs.....	896
Use of Addendum.....	897
Use of Addendum.....	897
Use of Addendum.....	897
Use of Addendum.....	897
Use of Addendum.....	898
Use of Addendum.....	898
Use of Addendum.....	898
Use of Addendum.....	899

Strength of Gear Teeth.

Use of Formulas for Strength.....	900
Use of Formulas.....	903
Use of Speed of Gearing.....	905
Use of Machine-cut Spur-gear.....	905
Use of Gearing.....	905
Use of Grooved Gearing.....	906

HOLSTING.

Use of Strength of Cordage.....	906
Use of Length of Blocks.....	906

	PAGE
Efficiency of Chain-blocks.....	97
Proportions of Hooks.....	97
Power of Hoisting Engines.....	97
Effect of Slack Rope on Strain in Hoisting.....	97
Limit of Depth for Hoisting.....	97
Large Hoisting Records.....	97
Pneumatic Hoisting.....	97
Counterbalancing of Winding-engines.....	97
Belt Conveyors.....	97
Bands for Carrying Grain.....	97
Cranes.	
Classification of Cranes.....	97
Position of the Inclined Brace in a Jib Crane.....	97
A Large Travelling-crane.....	97
A 150-ton Pillar Crane.....	97
Compressed-air Travelling Cranes.....	97
Wire-rope Haulage.	
Self-acting Inclined Plane.....	97
Simple Engine Plane.....	97
Tail-rope System.....	97
Endless Rope System.....	97
Wire-rope Tramways.....	97
Suspension Cableways and Cable Hoists.....	97
Stress in Hoisting-ropes on Inclined Planes.....	97
Tension Required to Prevent Wire Slipping on Drums.....	97
Taper Ropes of Uniform Tensile Strength.....	97
Effect of Various Sized Drums on the Life of Wire Ropes.....	97
WIRE-ROPE TRANSMISSION.	
The Driving Wheels.....	97
Horse power of Wire-rope Transmission.....	97
Durability of Wire Ropes.....	97
Inclined Transmissions.....	97
The Wire-rope Catenary.....	97
Diameter and Weight of Pulleys for Wire-rope.....	97
Table of Transmission of Power by Wire Ropes.....	97
Long-distance Transmissions.....	97
ROPE DRIVING.	
Formulae for Rope Driving.....	97
Horse-power of Transmission at Various Speeds.....	97
Sag of the Rope Between Pulleys.....	97
Tension on the Slack Part of the Rope.....	97
Miscellaneous Notes on Rope-driving.....	97
FRICTION AND LUBRICATION.	
Coefficient of Friction.....	97
Rolling Friction.....	97
Friction of Solids.....	97
Friction of Rest.....	97
Laws of Unlubricated Friction.....	97
Friction of Sliding Steel Tires.....	97
Coefficient of Rolling Friction.....	97
Laws of Fluid Friction.....	97
Angles of Repose.....	97
Friction of Motion.....	97
Coefficient of Friction of Journal.....	97
Experiments on Friction of a Journal.....	97
Coefficients of Friction of Journal with Oil Bath.....	97
Coefficients of Friction of Motion and of Rest.....	97
Value of Anti-friction Metals.....	97
Cast-iron for Bearings.....	97
Friction of Metal Under Steam-pressure.....	97
<i>Morin's Laws of Friction</i>	97

	PAGE
lection of well-lubricated Journals	984
Pressures on Bearing-surface	985
e in a Bearing	987
Car-journal Brasses	987
its on Overheating of Bearings	988
Friction and Work of Friction	988
ings	989
e Curve	989
' a Flat Pivot-bearing	989
ath Pivot	940
igs	940
ollers	940
or Very High Rotative Speed	941
Steam-engines	941
n of the Friction of Engines	941

Lubrication.

of Lubricants	942
ons of Lubricants	943
f Oil to run an Engine	943
ion of Oils	944
R. Specifications	944
icants	945
Soapstone, Metaline	945

THE FOUNDRY.

actice	946
a Cupola	948
Stove Foundries	949
Increased Driving	949
Blowers	950
n in Melting	950
teners	950
of Castings	951
Castings from Weight of Pattern	952
Sand	952
adies	952

THE MACHINE SHOP.

Cutting Tools	953
Cutting Speeds	954
urret Lathes	954
Cutting Tools	955
earing Lathes	955
ars for Lathes	956
ew-threads	956
e Taper in a Lathe	956
Drilling Holes	956
ist-drills	957
itters	957
Cutters	958
th Milling-machines	959
th or Against Feed	960
achine vs. Planer	960
quired for Machine Tools	960
ork on a Planer	960
ver to run Lathes	961
d by Machine Tools	963
quired to Drive Machinery	964
d in Machine-shops	965

Abrasive Processes.

Saw	966
using-disk	966
tone with Wire	966
-blast	966
heels	967-969
.....	968-971

Various Tools and Processes.

Taps for Machine-screws.....	
Tap Drills.....	
Taper Bolts, Pins, Reamers, etc.....	
Punches, Dies, Presses.....	
Clearance Between Punch and Die.....	
Size of Blanks for Drawing-press.....	
Pressure of Drop-press.....	
Flow of Metals.....	
Forcing and Shrinking Fits.....	
Efficiency of Screws.....	
Powell's Screw-thread.....	
Proportioning Parts of Machine.....	
Keys for Gearing, etc.....	
Holding-power of Set-screws.....	
Holding-power of Keys.....	

DYNAMOMETERS.

Traction Dynamometers.....	
The Prony Brake.....	
The Alden Dynamometer.....	
Capacity of Friction-brakes.....	
Transmission Dynamometers.....	

ICE MAKING OR REFRIGERATING MACHINES.

Operations of a Refrigerator-machine.....	
Pressures, etc., of Available Liquids.....	
Ice-melting Effect.....	
Ether-machines.....	
Air-machines.....	
Ammonia Compression-machines.....	
Ammonia Absorption-machines.....	
Sulphur-dioxide Machines.....	
Performance of Ammonia Compression-machines.....	
Economy of Ammonia Compression-machines.....	
Machines Using Vapor of Water.....	
Efficiency of a Refrigerating machine.....	
Test Trials of Refrigerating-machines.....	
Temperature Range.....	
Metering the Ammonia.....	
Properties of Sulphur Dioxide and Ammonia Gas.....	
Properties of Brine used to absorb Refrigerating Effect.....	
Chloride-of-calcium Solution.....	

Actual Performances of Refrigerating Machines.

Performance of a 75-ton Refrigerating-machine.....	991
Cylinder heating.....	
Tests of Ammonia Absorption-machine.....	
Ammonia Compression-machine, Results of Tests.....	
Means for Applying the Cold.....	

Artificial Ice-manufacture.

Test of the New York Hygeia Ice-making Plant.....	
---	--

MARINE ENGINEERING.

Rules for Measuring Dimensions and Obtaining Tonnage of Vessels.....	
The Dis-placement of a Vessel.....	
Coefficient of Fineness.....	
Coefficient of Water-lines.....	
Resistance of Ships.....	
Coefficient of Performance of Vessels.....	
Defects of the Common Formula for Resistance.....	
Rankine's Formula.....	
Dr. Kirk's Method.....	
To find the I. H. P. from the Wetted Surface.....	
E. R. Mumford's Method.....	
Relative Horse-power required for different Speeds of Vessels.....	

	PAGE
per Horse-power for different Speeds.....	1006
Trials of Steam-vessels of Various Sizes.....	1007
Canals,	1008
Progressive Speed-trials in Typical Vessels.....	1008
Displacement, Horse-power, etc., of Steam-vessels of Various	1009
.....	1009

The Screw-propeller.

Corw.....	1010
Coefficients	1011
y of the Propeller.....	1012
o and Slip for Screws of Standard Form.....	1012
f Recent Researches.....	1013

The Paddle-wheel.

Wheel with Radial Floats.....	1013
ing Paddle-wheels.....	1013
y of Paddle-wheels.....	1014

Jet-propulsion.

of a Jet	1015
----------------	------

Recent Practice in Marine Engines.

draught.....	1015
.....	1015
.....	1016
.....	1016
Supply of Fresh-water Evaporators.....	1016
ed-water Heater.....	1016
Steamers fitted with Twin-screws.....	1017
ive Results of Working of Marine-engine, 1872, 1881, and 1891.....	1017
of Three-stage Expansion engines.....	1017
ers of Three-stage Expansion-engines.....	1018

CONSTRUCTION OF BUILDINGS.

Warehouses, Stores, Factories, and Stables.....	1019
of Floors, Roofs, and Supports.....	1019
and Posts.....	1019, 1022
Buildings.....	1020
Steel Columns	1020
beams, and Supports.....	1020
in Girders and Rivets.....	1020
and Load on Floors.....	1021
h of Floors	1021
tributed Loads on Southern-pine Beams.....	1023

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING.

Standards of Measurement.

System of Physical Measurement	1024
Units used in Electrical Calculations.....	1024
of Various Units.....	1025
at Electrical and Mechanical Units.....	1026
between Flow of Water and Electricity.....	1027
between the Ampere and Miner's Inch	1027

Electrical Resistance.

Electrical Resistance	1028
nt Conductors.....	1028
l Conductivity of Different Metals and Alloys.....	1028
Conductivity of Different Metals.....	1029
es and Insulators.....	1029
ee Varies with Temperature	1029
of Resistance of Copper Wire	1030

Electric Currents.

.....	1030
Results	1031

Conductors in Series.....
Internal Resistance.....
Joint Resistance of Two Branches.....
Kirchhoff's Laws.....
Power of the Circuit.....
Heat Generated by a Current.....
Heating of Conductors.....
Heating of Wires of Cables.....
Copper-wire Table.....	100
Heating of Coils.....
Fusion of Wires.....

Electric Transmission.

Section of Wire required for a Given Current.....
Constant Pressure.....
Three-wire Feeder.....
Short-circuiting.....
Economy of Electric Transmission.....
Table of Electrical Horse-powers.....
Wiring Formula for Incandescent Lighting.....
Wire Table for 100 and 500 Volt Circuits.....
Cost of Copper for Long-distance Transmission.....
Graphical Method of Calculating Leads.....
Weight of Copper for Long-distance Transmission.....
Efficiency of Long-distance Transmission.....
Efficiency of a Combined Engine and Dynamo.....
Electrical Efficiency of a Generator and Motor.....
Efficiency of an Electrical Pumping Plant.....

Electric Railways.

Test of a Street Railway Plant.....
Proportioning Boiler, Engine, and Generator for Power Stations.....

Electric Lighting.

Quantity of Energy Required to Produce Light.....
Life of Incandescent Lamps.....
Life and Efficiency Tests of Lamps.....
Street Lighting.....
Lighting power of Arc-lamps.....
Candle-power of the Arc-light.....
Electric Welding.....
Electric Heaters.....

Electric Accumulators or Storage-batteries.

Use of Storage-batteries in Power and Light Stations.....
Working Current of a Storage-cell.....
Electro-chemical Equivalents.....
Electrolysis.....

Electro-magnets.

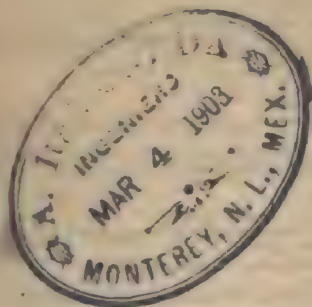
Units of Electro-magnetic Measurement.....
Lines of Force.....
Strength of an Electro-magnet.....
Force in the Gap between Two Poles of a Magnet.....
The Magnetic Circuit.....
Determining the Polarity of Electro-magnets.....

Dynamo-Electric Machines.

Kinds of Dynamo-electric Machines as regards Manner of Winding.....
Current Generated by a Dynamo-electric Machine.....
Torque of an Armature.....
Electro-motive Force of the Armature Circuit.....
Strength of the Magnetic Field.....
Application to Designing of Dynamos.....
Permeability.....
Permissible Amperage for Magnets with Cotton-covered Wire.....	100
Formulae of Efficiency of Dynamos.....
The Electric Motor.....

AND ABBREVIATIONS OF PERIODICALS TEXT-BOOKS FREQUENTLY REFERRED TO IN HIS WORK.

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MATHEMATICS.

al and Algebraical Signs and Abbreviations.

n).

traction).

us.

us.

by,

x b.

.

$$+ b. \quad 15-16 = \frac{15}{16}$$

$$= \frac{2}{1000}$$

z.

.

is, : to (proportion).

, as 2 is to 4 so is 3 to 6.

ded by.

of 2 to 4 = 2/4.

uu.

re or thermometer.

r feet.

r inches.

to distinguish letters, as

a'''.

a_c. read a sub 1, a sub b,

— vincula, denoting

e numbers enclosed are

aken together; as,

$$: = 4 + 3 \times 5 = 35.$$

ared, a cubed.

o the nth power.

$$= \sqrt[n]{a^3}.$$

$$2 = \frac{1}{a^2}$$

ie 9th power = 1,000,000.

sine of a.

ae are whose sine is a.

$$\frac{1}{a}$$

in. a.

thm.

log. = hyperbolic loga-

∠ angle.

⊥ right angle.

⊥ perpendicular to.

sin., sine.

cos., cosine.

tang., or tan., tangent.

sec., secant.

versin., versed sine.

cot., cotangent.

cosec., cosecant.

cover., co-versed sine.

In Algebra, the first letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, d, etc., are generally used to denote known quantities, and the last letters, w, x, y, z, etc., unknown quantities.

Abbreviations and Symbols commonly used.

d, differential (in calculus).

∫, integral (in calculus).

∫_a^b, integral between limits a and b.

Δ, delta, difference.

Σ, sigma, sign of summation.

π, pi, ratio of circumference of circle to diameter = 3.14159.

g, acceleration due to gravity = 32.16 ft. per sec.

Abbreviations frequently used in this Book.

L., l., length in feet and inches.

B., b., breadth in feet and inches.

D., d., depth or diameter.

H., h., height, feet and inches.

T., t., thickness or temperature.

V., v., velocity.

F., force, or factor of safety.

μ., coefficient of friction.

E., coefficient of elasticity.

R., r., radius.

W., w., weight.

P., p., pressure or load.

H.P., horse-power.

I.H.P., indicated horse-power.

B.H.P., brake horse-power.

h. p., high pressure.

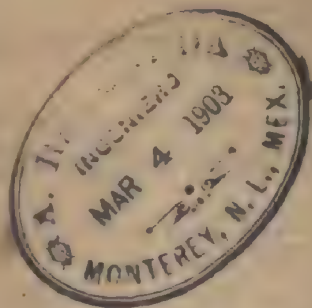
i. p., intermediate pressure.

l. p., low pressure.

A. W. G., American Wire Gauge (Brown & Sharpe).

B. W. G., Birmingham Wire Gauge.

r. p. m., or revs. per min., revolutions per minute.



denominators except its own for the new numerators, and all together for the common denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{7} = \frac{21}{42}, \frac{14}{42}, \frac{18}{42}.$$

fractions.—Reduce them to a common denominator, then add and place their sum over the common denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{3}{7} = \frac{21 + 14 + 18}{42} = \frac{53}{42} = 1\frac{11}{42}.$$

fact fractions.—Reduce them to a common denominator, subtract and place the difference over the common denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{7} = \frac{7-6}{14} = \frac{1}{14}.$$

DECIMALS.

decimals.—Set down the figures so that the decimal points be the other, then proceed as in simple addition: $18.75 + .012 =$

tract decimals.—Set down the figures so that the decimal point be above the other, then proceed as in simple subtraction: $18.75 - .012 =$

multiply decimals.—Multiply as in multiplication of whole numbers, point off as many decimal places as there are in multiplier and taken together: $1.5 \times .03 = .030 = .03$.

divide decimals.—Divide as in whole numbers, and point off in the dividend as many decimal places as those in the divisor exceed those in the divisor. Ciphers must be added to the dividend to make its decimal as equal those in the divisor, and as many more as it is desired the quotient: $1.5 \div .25 = 6$, $0.1 \div 0.3 = 0.10000 \div 0.3 = 0.3333 +$.

Decimal Equivalents of Fractions of One Inch.

015625	17-64	.265625	33-64	.515625	39-64	.765625
03125	9-32	.28125	17-32	.53125	25-32	.78125
046875	19-64	.296875	35-64	.546875	51-64	.796875
0625	5-16	.3125	9-16	.5625	13-16	.8125
078125	21-64	.328125	37-64	.578125	53-64	.828125
09375	11-32	.34375	19-32	.59375	27-32	.84375
109375	23-64	.359375	39-64	.609375	55-64	.859375
.125	8-8	.375	5-8	.625	7-8	.875
.140625	25-64	.390625	41-64	.640625	57-64	.890625
.15625	13-32	.40625	21-32	.65625	29-32	.90625
.171875	27-64	.421875	43-64	.671875	59-64	.921875
.1875	7-16	.4375	11-16	.6875	15-16	.9375
.203125	29-64	.453125	45-64	.703125	61-64	.953125
.21875	15-32	.46875	23-32	.71875	31-32	.96875
.234375	31-64	.484375	47-64	.734375	63-64	.984375
.25	1-2	.50	3-4	.75	1	1.

convert a common fraction into a decimal.—Divide the numerator by the denominator, adding to the numerator as many ciphers as a decimal point as are necessary to give the number of decimal places in the result: $\frac{1}{4} = 1.0000 \div 4 = 0.2500 +$.

convert a decimal into a common fraction.—Set down the decimal as a numerator, and place as the denominator 1 with as many ciphers as there are decimal places in the numerator; erase the

ARITHMETIC.

The user of this book is supposed to have had a training in arithmetic as well as in elementary algebra. Only those rules are given here which are apt to be easily forgotten.

GREATEST COMMON MEASURE, OR GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR OF TWO NUMBERS.

Rule.—Divide the greater number by the less; then divide the remainder by the remainder, and so on, dividing always the last divisor by the remainder, until there is no remainder, and the last divisor is the greatest common measure required.

LEAST COMMON MULTIPLE OF TWO OR MORE NUMBERS.

Rule.—Divide the given numbers by any number that will divide the greatest number of them without a remainder, and set the quotient of the undivided numbers in a line beneath.

Divide the second line as before, and so on, until there are no two numbers that can be divided; then the continued product of the divisors and the last quotients will give the multiple required.

FRACTIONS.

To reduce a common fraction to its lowest terms.—Divide both terms by their greatest common divisor: $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$.

To change an improper fraction to a mixed number.—Divide the numerator by the denominator; the quotient is the whole number and the remainder placed over the denominator is the fraction: $\frac{7}{4} = 1\frac{3}{4}$.

To change a mixed number to an improper fraction.—Multiply the whole number by the denominator of the fraction; to the product add the numerator; place the sum over the denominator: $1\frac{3}{4} = \frac{7}{4}$.

To express a whole number in the form of a fraction with a given denominator.—Multiply the whole number by the denominator, and place the product over that denominator: $3 = \frac{3}{1}$.

To reduce a compound to a simple fraction, and multiply fractions.—Multiply the numerators together for a new numerator and the denominators together for a new denominator:

$$\frac{2}{3} \text{ of } \frac{4}{3} = \frac{8}{9}, \text{ also } \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{4}{3} = \frac{8}{9}.$$

To reduce a complex to a simple fraction.—The numerator and denominator must each first be given the form of a simple fraction; then multiply the numerator of the upper fraction by the denominator of the lower for the new numerator, and the denominator of the upper fraction by the denominator of the lower for the new denominator:

$$\frac{\frac{3}{4}}{1\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{3}{4} \div \frac{3}{2} = \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

To divide fractions.—Reduce both to the form of simple fractions; invert the divisor, and proceed as in multiplication:

$$\frac{2}{3} \div 1\frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{3} \div \frac{3}{2} = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{4}{9}.$$

Cancellation of fractions.—In compound or multiplied fractions, divide any numerator and any denominator by any number which divides them both without remainder, striking out the numbers thus, and setting down the quotients in their stead.

To reduce a compound fraction to a common denominator.—Reduce each simple fraction; then multiply each

decimal point in the numerator, and reduce the fraction thus formed to its lowest terms:

$$.25 = \frac{25}{100} = \frac{1}{4}; \quad .3333 = \frac{3333}{10000} = \frac{1}{3}, \text{ nearly.}$$

To reduce a recurring decimal to a common fraction.—Subtract the decimal figures that do not recur from the whole decimal including one set of recurring figures; set down the remainder as the numerator of the fraction, and as many nines as there are recurring figures, followed by as many ciphers as there are non-recurring figures, in the denominator. Thus:

.79054034, the recurring figures being 054.

Subtract

$$\begin{array}{r} 79 \\ 7905 \\ \hline 9990 \end{array} = (\text{reduced to its lowest terms}) \frac{117}{148}.$$

COMPOUND OR DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

Reduction descending.—To reduce a compound number to a lower denomination. Multiply the number by as many units of the lower denomination as makes one of the higher.

3 yards to inches: $3 \times 36 = 108$ inches.

.04 square feet to square inches: $.04 \times 144 = 5.76$ sq. in.

If the given number is in more than one denomination proceed in steps from the highest denomination to the next lower, and so on to the lowest, adding in the units of each denomination as the operation proceeds.

3 yds, 1 ft. 7 in. to inches: $3 \times 3 = 9, + 1 = 10, 10 \times 12 = 120, + 7 = 127$ in.

Reduction ascending.—To express a number of a lower denomination in terms of a higher, divide the number by the number of units of the lower denomination contained in one of the next higher; the quotient is in the higher denomination, and the remainder, if any, in the lower.

127 inches to higher denomination.

$127 \div 12 = 10$ feet + 7 inches; $10 \text{ feet} \div 3 = 3$ yards + 1 foot.

Ans. 3 yds. 1 ft. 7 in.

To express the result in decimals of the higher denomination, divide the given number by the number of units of the given denomination contained in one of the required denomination, carrying the result to as many places of decimals as may be desired.

127 inches to yards: $127 \div 36 = 3\frac{1}{3} = 3.5277 +$ yards.

RATIO AND PROPORTION.

Ratio is the relation of one number to another, as obtained by dividing one by the other.

Ratio of 2 to 4, or $2 : 4 = 2/4 = 1/2$.

Ratio of 4 to 2, or $4 : 2 = 2$.

Proportion is the equality of two ratios. Ratio of 2 to 4 equals ratio of 3 to 6, $2/4 = 3/6$; expressed thus, $2 : 4 :: 3 : 6$; read, 2 is to 4 as 3 is to 6.

The first and fourth terms are called the extremes or outer terms, the second and third the means or inner terms.

The product of the means equals the product of the extremes:

$$2 : 4 :: 3 : 6; \quad 2 \times 6 = 12; \quad 3 \times 4 = 12.$$

Hence, given the first three terms to find the fourth, multiply the second and third terms together and divide by the first.

$$2 : 4 :: 3 : \text{what number?} \quad \text{Ans. } \frac{4 \times 3}{2} = 6.$$

Product of Fractions Expressed in Decimals.

$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	1
.0625	.0089														
.1250	.0078	.0150													
.1875	.0117	.0234													
.2500	.0156	.0352	.0025												
.3125	.0195	.0469	.0050	.0977											
.3750	.0234	.0586	.0075	.1172	.1406										
.4375	.0273	.0703	.0100	.1367	.1611	.1914									
.5000	.0313	.0820	.0125	.1562	.1875	.2188	.2500								
.5625	.0352	.0938	.0150	.1758	.2100	.2461	.2813	.3164							
.6250	.0391	.1055	.0175	.1953	.2344	.2734	.3125	.3516	.3906						
.6875	.0430	.1172	.0200	.2148	.2578	.3008	.3438	.3867	.4297	.4727					
.7500	.0469	.1289	.0225	.2344	.2813	.3281	.3750	.4219	.4688	.5156	.5625				

 $\frac{1}{16}$ $\frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{3}{16}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{5}{16}$ $\frac{3}{8}$ $\frac{7}{16}$ $\frac{1}{2}$

final point in the numerator, and reduce the fraction thus formed to its lowest terms:

$$.25 = \frac{25}{100} = \frac{1}{4}; \quad .3333 = \frac{3333}{10000} = \frac{1}{3}, \text{ nearly.}$$

To reduce a recurring decimal to a common fraction.—Place the decimal figures that do not recur from the whole decimal figure, forming one set of recurring figures; set down the remainder as the numerator of the fraction, and as many nines as there are recurring figures, followed by as many ciphers as there are non recurring figures, in the denominator. Thus:

.70054054, the recurring figures being 054.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Subtract} \quad 70 \\ \hline 70054 \\ 99990 \end{array} = (\text{reduced to its lowest terms}) \frac{117}{148}$$

COMPOUND OR DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

Reduction descending.—To reduce a compound number to a lower denomination. Multiply the number by as many units of the lower denomination as makes one of the higher.

3 yards to inches: $3 \times 36 = 108$ inches.

.04 square feet to square inches: $.04 \times 144 = 5.76$ sq. in.

If the given number is in more than one denomination proceed in steps from the highest denomination to the next lower, and so on to the lowest, doing in the units of each denomination as the operation proceeds.

3 yds. 1 ft. 7 in. to inches: $3 \times 3 = 9, + 1 = 10, 10 \times 12 = 120, + 7 = 127$ in.

Reduction ascending.—To express a number of a lower denomination in terms of a higher, divide the number by the number of units of the lower denomination contained in one of the next higher; the quotient is of the higher denomination, and the remainder, if any, in the lower.

127 inches to higher denomination.

$127 \div 12 = 10$ feet + 7 inches; $10 \text{ feet} \div 3 = 3$ yards + 1 foot.

Ans. 3 yds. 1 ft. 7 in.

To express the result in decimals of the higher denomination, divide the number by the number of units of the given denomination contained in one of the required denomination, carrying the result to as many places in decimals as may be desired.

127 inches to yards: $127 \div 36 = 3\frac{1}{3} = 3.377 +$ yards.

RATIO AND PROPORTION.

Ratio is the relation of one number to another, as obtained by dividing one by the other.

Ratio of 2 to 4, or $2 : 4 = 2/4 = 1/2$.

Ratio of 4 to 2, or $4 : 2 = 2$.

Proportion is the equality of two ratios. Ratio of 2 to 4 equals ratio of 3 to 6, expressed thus: $2 : 4 :: 3 : 6$; read, 2 is to 4 as 3 is to 6. The first and fourth terms are called the extremes or outer terms, the second and third the means or inner terms.

The product of the means equals the product of the extremes:

$$2 : 4 :: 3 : 6; \quad 2 \times 6 = 12; \quad 3 \times 4 = 12.$$

To find the fourth term, given the first three terms to find the fourth, multiply the second and third terms together and divide by the first.

$$2 : 4 :: 3 : \text{what number?} \quad \text{Ans. } \frac{4 \times 3}{2} = 6.$$

dividing the index of the power by the index of the root, indicating the division by a fraction. Thus, extract the square root of the 6th power of 2

$$\sqrt[6]{2^6} = 2^{\frac{6}{2}} = 2^3 = 2^3 = 8.$$

The 6th power of 2, as in the table above, is 64; $\sqrt[6]{64} = 8$.

Different problems in evolution are performed by logarithms, but the square root and the cube root may be extracted directly according to the rules given below. The 4th root is the square root of the square root. The 6th root is the cube root of the square root, or the square root of the cube root; the 9th root is the cube root of the cube root; etc.

To Extract the Square Root.—Point off the given number into periods of two places each, beginning with units. If there are decimals, point these off likewise, beginning at the decimal point, and supplying as many ciphers as may be needed. Find the greatest number whose square is less than the first left-hand period, and place it as the first figure in the quotient. Subtract its square from the left-hand period, and to the remainder annex the two figures of the second period for a dividend. Double the first figure of the quotient for a partial divisor, find how many times the latter is contained in the dividend exclusive of the right-hand figure, and set the figure representing that number of times as the second figure in the quotient, and annex it to the right of the partial divisor, forming the complete divisor. Multiply this divisor by the second figure in the quotient and subtract the product from the dividend. To the remainder bring down the next period and proceed as before, in each case doubling the figures in the root already found to obtain the trial divisor. Should the product of the second figure in the root by the completed divisor be greater than the dividend, erase the second figure both from the quotient and from the divisor, and substitute the next smaller figure, or one small enough to make the product of the second figure by the divisor less than or equal to the dividend.

$$\begin{array}{r} 8.141502636 | 1.77245 + \\ 1 \\ \hline 27 \overline{) 214} \\ 180 \\ \hline 34 \overline{) 2515} \\ 2420 \\ \hline 3542 \overline{) 892} \\ 7084 \\ \hline 35444 \overline{) 16865} \\ 141776 \\ \hline 354465 \overline{) 1908936} \\ 1572425 \end{array}$$

To extract the square root of a fraction, extract the root of numerator and denominator separately. $\sqrt{\frac{4}{9}} = \frac{2}{3}$ or first convert the fraction into a

decimal, $\sqrt{\frac{4}{9}} = \sqrt{.4444} = .6666 +.$

To Extract the Cube Root.—Point off the number into periods of 3 figures each, beginning at the right hand, or unit's place. Point off decimals in periods of 3 figures from the decimal point. Find the greatest cube that does not exceed the left-hand period; write its root as the first figure in the required root. Subtract the cube from the left-hand period, and to the remainder bring down the next period for a dividend.

Square the first figure of the root; multiply by 300, and divide the product into the dividend for a trial divisor; write the quotient after the first figure of the root as a trial second figure.

Complete the divisor by adding to 300 times the square of the first figure 30 times the product of the first by the second figure, and the square of the second figure. Multiply this divisor by the second figure; subtract the product from the remainder. (Should the product be greater than the remainder, the last figure of the root and the complete divisor are too

to for the last figure the next smaller number, and correct the trial accordingly.)

remainder bring down the next period, and proceed as before to third figure of the root—that is, square the two figures of the root found; multiply by 300 for a trial divisor, etc.

any time the trial divisor is less than the dividend, bring down another period of 3 figures, and place 0 in the root and proceed.

the root of a number will contain as many figures as there are of 3 in the number.

For Methods of Extracting the Cube Root.—1. From
 17th's Algebra:

[illegible]

the first two figures of the root are found the next trial divisor is by bringing down the sum of the 60 and 4 obtained in completing the divisor, then adding the three lines connected by the brace, and neglecting two ciphers. This method shortens the work in long examples, as in the case of the last two trial divisors, saving the labor of squaring 1334. A further shortening of the work is made by obtaining the 0 figures of the root by trial division, the divisor employed being three times the square of the part of the root already found; thus, after finding the first three figures:

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \times 123^2 = 45387 \overline{) 20498963} \underline{45 1} + \\ 181548 \\ 23416 \\ 22693 \\ 74818 \end{array}$$

or due to the remainder is not sufficient to change the fifth figure of t .

Prof. H. A. Wood (*Stevens Indicator*, July, 1890):
 "Divide the number into periods of three figures each, counting from the right, divide by the square of the nearest root of the first or first two periods; the nearest root is the trial root."

the quotient obtained add twice the trial root, and divide by 3. This is the root, or first approximation.

using the first approximate root as a new trial root, and proceeding, a nearer approximation is obtained, which process may be continued until the root has been extracted, or the approximation carried as far as is required.

EXAMPLE.—Required the cube root of 20. The nearest cube

$$\begin{array}{r}
 3^3 = 9)20.0 \\
 \underline{27} \\
 38.1 \\
 \underline{27} \text{ 1st T. R.} \\
 2.7^3 = 7.29)20.000 \\
 \underline{7.29} \\
 2.743 \\
 \underline{5.4} \\
 3)8.143 \\
 2.714, \text{ 1st ap. cube root.} \\
 2.714^3 = 7.385796)20.000000 \\
 \underline{2.7152534} \\
 5.428 \\
 3)8.1432534 \\
 2.7144178 \text{ 2d ap. cube root.}
 \end{array}$$

REMARK.—In the example it will be observed that the first two figures of the root, were obtained by using for trial root the first period. Using, in like manner, these two terms for obtained four terms of the root; and these four terms for the next seven figures of the root correct. In that example the last figure 7. Should we take these eight figures for trial root we should obtain fifteen figures of the root correct.

To Extract a Higher Root than the Cube.—The square root of the square root; the sixth root is the cube square root or the square root of the cube root. Other roots conveniently found by the use of logarithms.

ALLIGATION

shows the value of a mixture of different ingredients when and value of each is known.

Let the ingredients be a, b, c, d , etc., and their respective values x, y, z , etc.

A = the sum of the quantities = $a + b + c + d$, etc

P = mean value or price per unit of A .

$AP = ax + by + cz + dz$, etc.

$P = \frac{ax + by + cz + dz}{A}$.

PERMUTATION

shows in how many positions any number of things may be set in a row; thus, the letters a, b, c may be arranged in six positions, cab, cba, bac, bca .

Rule.—Multiply together all the numbers used in counting the permutations of 1, 2, and 3 = $1 \times 2 \times 3 = 6$. In how many positions things in a row be placed?

$$1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 \times 8 \times 9 = 362880.$$

COMBINATION

shows how many arrangements of a few things may be made of a greater number. **Rule:** Set down that figure which indicates the number, and after it a series of figures diminishing by 1, until set down as the number of the few things to be taken in each. Then beginning under the last one set down said number of times and backward set down a series diminishing by 1 until a 1 is reached. Multiply together all the upper numbers to form another number.

GEOMETRICAL PROGRESSION.

How many combinations of 9 things can be made, taking 3 in combination?

$$\frac{9 \times 8 \times 7}{1 \times 2 \times 3} = \frac{504}{6} = 84.$$

ARITHMETICAL PROGRESSION,

In a series of numbers, is a progressive increase or decrease in each successive number by the addition or subtraction of the same amount at each step, as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., or 15, 12, 9, 6, etc. The numbers are called terms, equal increase or decrease the difference. Examples in arithmetical progression may be solved by the following formulæ:

Let a = first term, l = last term, d = common difference, n = number of terms, s = sum of the terms:

$$\begin{aligned} l &= a + (n-1)d, & &= -\frac{1}{2}d \pm \sqrt{2ds + \left(a - \frac{1}{2}d\right)^2} \\ s &= \frac{2s}{n} - a, & &= \frac{s}{n} + \frac{(n-1)l}{2} \\ s &= \frac{1}{2}n[2a + (n-1)d], & &= \frac{l+a}{2} + \frac{l^2-a^2}{2d} \\ &= (l+a)\frac{n}{2}, & &= \frac{1}{2}n[2l - (n-1)d] \\ a &= l - (n-1)d, & &= \frac{s}{n} - \frac{(n-1)d}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}d \pm \sqrt{\left(l + \frac{1}{2}d\right)^2 - 2ds}, & &= \frac{2s}{n} - l \\ d &= \frac{l-a}{n-1}, & &= \frac{2(s-an)}{n(n-1)} \\ &= \frac{l^2-a^2}{2s-l-a}, & &= \frac{2(nl-s)}{n(n-1)} \\ n &= \frac{l-a}{d} + 1, & &= \frac{d-2a \pm \sqrt{(2a-d)^2 + 8s}}{2d} \\ &= \frac{2s}{l+a}, & &= \frac{2l+d \pm \sqrt{(2l+d)^2 - 8ds}}{2d} \end{aligned}$$

GEOMETRICAL PROGRESSION,

In a series of numbers, is a progressive increase or decrease in each successive number by the same multiplier or divisor at each step, as 1, 2, 4, 8, etc., or 243, 81, 27, 9, etc. The common multiplier is called the ratio.

Let a = first term, l = last term, r = ratio or constant multiplier, n = any term, as 1st, 2d, etc., s = sum of the terms

$$l = ar^{n-1}, \quad a = \frac{l}{r^{n-1}}, \quad s = \frac{(r^n - 1)a}{r - 1},$$

$$\log l = \log a + (n-1) \log r, \quad l(s-l)^{n-1} = a(s-a)^n$$

$$m = ar^{m-1}, \quad \log m = \log a + (m-1) \log r.$$

$$s = \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1}, \quad = \frac{rl - a}{r - 1}, \quad = \frac{n - \sqrt[n]{1} - n - \sqrt[n]{a^n}}{n - \sqrt[n]{1} - n - \sqrt[n]{a}}, \quad =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= \frac{l}{r^{n-1}}, & &= \frac{(r-1)s}{r^n - 1}, & \log a &= \log l - (n-1) \log r \\
 r &= \sqrt[n-1]{\frac{l}{a}}, & &= \frac{s-a}{s-l}, & \log r &= \frac{\log l - \log a}{n-1} \\
 r^n - \frac{s}{a} r + \frac{s-a}{a} &= 0, & & r^n - \frac{s}{s-l} r^{n-1} + \frac{l}{s-l} &= 0. \\
 n &= \frac{\log l - \log a}{\log r} + 1, & & &= \frac{\log [a + (r-1)s] - \log a}{\log r}, \\
 &= \frac{\log l - \log a}{\log (s-a) - \log (s-l)} + 1, & & &= \frac{\log l - \log [lr - (r-1)s]}{\log r} + 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Population of the United States.

(A problem in geometrical progression.)

Year.	Population.	Increase in 10 Years, per cent.	Annual Increase per cent.
1860	31,443,321		
1870	39,818,449*	26.68	2.39
1880	50,155,783	25.96	2.23
1890	62,622,250	24.86	2.25
1895	Est. 69,733,000		Est. 2.174
1900	“ 77,652,000	Est. 24.0	“ 2.174

Estimated Population in Each Year from 1860 to 1899.

(Based on the above rates of increase, in even thousands)

1860 31,443	1870 39,818	1880 50,156	1890 62,622
1861 32,195	1871 40,748	1881 51,261	1891 64,000
1862 32,964	1872 41,699	1882 52,433	1892 65,400
1863 33,752	1873 42,673	1883 53,610	1893 66,820
1864 34,558	1874 43,670	1884 54,813	1894 68,260
1865 35,384	1875 44,690	1885 56,043	1895 69,720
1866 36,229	1876 45,733	1886 57,301	1896 71,200
1867 37,095	1877 46,800	1887 58,588	1897 72,700
1868 37,981	1878 47,893	1888 59,903	1898 74,220
1869 38,889	1879 49,011	1889 61,247	1899 75,760

The above table has been calculated by logarithms, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log r &= \log l - \log a + (n-1), & \log m &= \log a + (m-1) \log r \\
 \text{Pop. 1870} &.. 39,818,449 \log = 7.6000841 & &= \log l \\
 \text{“ 1860} &... 31,443,321 \log = 7.4975288 & &= \log a \\
 & \text{diff.} = .1025553 & & \\
 n = 11, n-1 &= 10, \text{diff.} + 10 = .0102553 & &= \log r, \\
 & \text{add log for 1860} & &= \log a \\
 & \log \text{ for 1861} = 7.50778433 \text{ No.} = 32,195 \dots & & \\
 & \text{add again} & & .0102553 \\
 & \log \text{ for 1862} & & 7.51803966 \text{ No.} = 32,964 \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Compound interest is a form of geometrical progression; the 1 being 1 plus the percentage.

*90,078, estimated error of the census of 1900.

INTEREST AND DISCOUNT.

Interest is money paid for the use of money for a given time; the factors are—

p , the sum loaned, or the principal;

t , the time in years;

r , the rate of interest;

i , the amount of interest for the given rate and time;

$a = p + i$ = the amount of the principal with interest at the end of the time.

Formulae:

$$i = \text{interest} = \text{principal} \times \text{time} \times \text{rate per cent} = i = \frac{ptr}{100};$$

$$a = \text{amount} = \text{principal} + \text{interest} = p + \frac{ptr}{100};$$

$$r = \text{rate} = \frac{100i}{pt};$$

$$p = \text{principal} = \frac{100i}{tr} = a - \frac{ptr}{100};$$

$$t = \text{time} = \frac{100i}{pr}.$$

The rate is expressed decimally as a per cent,—thus, 6 per cent = .06,—the formulae become

$$i = prt, \quad a = p(1 + rt); \quad r = \frac{i}{pt}; \quad t = \frac{i}{pr}; \quad p = \frac{i}{r} = \frac{a}{1 + rt}.$$

Rule for finding Interest.—Multiply the principal by the rate (sum divided by 100, and by the time in years and fractions of a year.

If the time is given in days, interest = $\frac{\text{principal} \times \text{rate} \times \text{no. of days}}{365 \div 100}$.

Bank interest is sometimes calculated on the basis of 360 days to a year or 12 months of 30 days each.

Find the interest at 6 per cent, when 360 days are taken as 1 year:

Divide the principal by number of days and divide by 6000.

Divide the principal by number of months and divide by 300.

Interest of 1 dollar for one month is $\frac{1}{12}$ cent.

Interest of 100 Dollars for Different Times and Rates.

Time.	2%	3%	4%	5%	6%	8%	10%
\$2.00	\$3.00	\$4.00	\$5.00	\$6.00	\$8.00	\$10.00	
1 yr.	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.08	.10
1 mo.	.00167	.0025	.00333	.00417	.0050	.00667	.00833
1 day	.0000455	.0000741	.0001111	.0001389	.0001667	.0002222	.0002778
1 yr.	.00333	.00500	.00667	.00833	.01000	.01333	.01667
1 mo.	.000278	.000417	.000556	.000694	.000833	.001111	.001389
1 day	.0000074	.0000111	.0000148	.0000185	.0000222	.0000296	.0000370

Discount is interest deducted for payment of money before it is due.

The discount is the difference between the amount of a debt payable at a future date without interest and its present worth. The present worth is that sum which put at interest at the legal rate will amount to the sum when it is due.

To find the present worth of an amount due at future date, divide the amount by the amount of \$1 placed at interest for the given time. The discount equals the amount minus the present worth.

The discount should be allowed on \$100 paid six months before it is due, at 6 per cent per annum?

$$\frac{100}{1 + .06 \times \frac{1}{2}} = \$100 \text{ present worth, discount} = 3.00.$$

Bank discount is the amount deducted by a bank as interest on money loaned on promissory notes. It is interest calculated not on the net amount loaned, but on the gross amount of the note, from which the discount is deducted in advance. It is also calculated on the basis of 360 days a year, and for 3 (in some banks 6) days more than the time specified in the note. These are called days of grace, and the note is not payable until these days. In some States days of grace have been abolished.

ARITHMETIC.

What discount will be deducted by a bank in discounting a payable 6 months hence? Six months = 182 days, add 3 day days' $\frac{108 \times 185}{6000} = \3.176 .

Compound Interest.—In compound interest the interest the principal at the end of each year, (or shorter period if agreed)

Let p = the principal, r = the rate expressed decimally, n = and a the amount :

$$a = \text{amount} = p(1+r)^n; \quad r = \text{rate} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{p}} - 1.$$

$$p = \text{principal} = \frac{a}{(1+r)^n}, \quad \text{no. of years} = n = \frac{\log a - \log p}{\log(1+r)}$$

Compound Interest Table.

(Value of one dollar at compound interest, compounded yearly
3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent, from 1 to 50 years.)

Years.	3%	4%	5%	6%	Years.	3%	4%	5%
1	1.03	1.04	1.05	1.06	16	1.6047	1.8730	2.1829
2	1.0609	1.0816	1.1025	1.1236	17	1.6523	1.9479	2.2930
3	1.0927	1.1249	1.1576	1.1910	18	1.7021	2.0258	2.4066
4	1.1255	1.1689	1.2155	1.2625	19	1.7535	2.1068	2.5269
5	1.1593	1.2168	1.2708	1.3282	20	1.8061	2.1911	2.6533
6	1.1941	1.2653	1.3401	1.4185	21	1.8603	2.2787	2.7859
7	1.2299	1.3159	1.4071	1.5036	22	1.9161	2.3699	2.9252
8	1.2668	1.3686	1.4774	1.5938	23	1.9736	2.4647	3.0715
9	1.3048	1.4233	1.5513	1.6895	24	2.0328	2.5633	3.2251
10	1.3439	1.4802	1.6289	1.7908	25	2.0937	2.6658	3.3864
11	1.3842	1.5394	1.7103	1.8983	30	2.4272	3.2484	4.3219
12	1.4258	1.6010	1.7958	2.0122	35	2.8138	3.9460	5.5166
13	1.4685	1.6651	1.8856	2.1329	40	3.2620	4.8009	7.0100
14	1.5123	1.7317	1.9799	2.2609	45	3.7815	5.8410	8.9950
15	1.5580	1.8009	2.0789	2.3965	50	4.3838	7.1064	11.6792

At compound interest at 3 per cent money will double itself in 23½ y at 4 per cent in 17½ years, at 5 per cent in 14½ years, and at 6 per cent in 11.9 years.

EQUATION OF PAYMENTS.

By equation of payments we find the equivalent or average time in a payment should be made to cancel a number of obligations due at different dates; also the number of days upon which to calculate interest amount upon a gross sum which is composed of several smaller sums due at different dates.

Rule.—Multiply each item by the time of its maturity in days from date, taken as a standard, and divide the sum of the products by the sum of the items; the result is the average time in days from the standard date.

owes B \$100 due in 30 days, \$200 due in 60 days, and \$300 due in 90 days. How many days may the whole be paid in one sum of \$600?

$$100 \times 30 + 200 \times 60 + 300 \times 90 = 42,000; \quad 42,000 \div 600 = 70 \text{ days, and}$$

Ans. B \$100, \$200, and \$300, which amounts are overdue respectively 20, 40, and 60 days. How many days may the whole amount, \$600, be paid in one sum? Ans. 70 days.

PARTIAL PAYMENTS.

pute interest on notes and bonds when partial payments have been

United States Rule.—Find the amount of the principal to the time of payment, and, subtracting the payment from it, find the amount of the remainder as a new principal to the time of the next payment. If the payment is less than the interest, find the amount of the principal when the sum of the payments equals or exceeds the interest, subtract the sum of the payments from this amount, and in this manner till the time of settlement.

—The principles upon which the preceding rule is founded are: that payments must be applied first to discharge accrued interest, the remainder, if any, toward the discharge of the principal. At only unpaid principal can draw interest.

Antile Method.—When partial payments are made on short interest accounts, business men commonly employ the following

be amount of the whole debt to the time of settlement; also find out of each payment from the time it was made to the time of settlement.

Subtract the amount of payments from the amount of the debt; under will be the balance due.

ANNUITIES.

Annuity is a fixed sum of money paid yearly, or at other equal times upon. The values of annuities are calculated by the principles of interest.

If i denote interest on \$1 for a year, then at the end of a year the will be $1+i$. At the end of n years it will be $(1+i)^n$.

sum which in n years will amount to 1 is $\frac{1}{(1+i)^n}$ or $(1+i)^{-n}$, or the value of 1 due in n years.

amount of an annuity of 1 in any number of years n is $\frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i}$.

present value of an annuity of 1 for any number of years n is $\frac{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}{i}$.

annuity which 1 will purchase for any number of years n is $\frac{i}{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}$.

annuity which would amount to 1 in n years is $\frac{i}{(1+i)^n - 1}$.

Amounts, Present Values, etc., at 5% Interest.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
$(1+i)^n$	$(1+i)^{-n}$	$\frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i}$	$\frac{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}{i}$	$\frac{i}{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}$	$\frac{i}{(1+i)^n - 1}$
1.05	.952881	1.	.952881	1.05	1.
1.1025	.907029	2.05	1.859410	.537805	.487805
1.157625	.863888	3.1595	2.728348	.367209	.317209
1.215506	.822702	4.310125	3.545951	.282012	.232012
1.276282	.783526	5.525631	4.329477	.220975	.180975
1.340095	.746215	6.801913	5.075692	.197017	.147018
1.407100	.710661	8.143008	5.786373	.172820	.122820
1.477155	.676889	9.549109	6.463213	.154722	.104722
1.551329	.644809	11.023564	7.107822	.140690	.090690
1.629695	.614313	12.577893	7.721785	.129505	.079505

Table I.—Annuity Required to Redeem \$1000 in from 1 to 50 Years.

Years to run.	Rate of Interest, per cent.										
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6		
2	495.05	494.50	492.69	492.05	490.81	489.20	487.90	486.63	485.43		
3	346.72	345.94	343.35	342.75	341.13	339.36	337.21	335.03	334.10		
4	242.63	241.74	239.93	239.02	237.38	235.50	233.01	230.39	228.60		
5	192.16	191.18	189.30	188.35	186.49	184.63	182.74	180.86	179.18		
6	158.53	157.53	155.58	154.61	152.67	150.79	148.88	146.92	145.36		
7	134.52	133.51	131.50	129.54	127.59	125.61	123.67	121.66	119.13		
8	116.51	115.48	113.46	111.47	109.50	107.53	105.73	103.86	101.03		
9	102.53	101.48	99.45	97.44	95.46	93.49	91.69	89.83	87.02		
10	91.33	90.29	88.24	86.24	84.28	82.29	80.38	78.57	75.87		
11	82.18	81.14	79.09	77.08	75.12	73.15	71.25	69.37	66.79		
12	74.56	73.52	71.47	69.47	67.51	65.55	63.68	61.08	58.28		
13	68.12	67.08	65.04	63.05	61.10	59.14	57.27	54.69	52.96		
14	62.60	61.56	59.53	57.55	55.62	53.67	51.82	49.36	47.48		
15	57.89	56.79	54.77	52.79	50.88	48.94	47.11	44.62	42.96		
16	53.65	52.63	50.60	48.64	46.70	44.82	43.01	40.48	38.96		
17	49.97	48.94	46.95	44.99	43.12	41.30	39.70	37.04	35.44		
18	46.70	45.67	43.69	41.76	39.90	38.09	36.54	33.92	32.36		
19	43.78	42.76	40.78	38.87	37.04	35.14	33.40	31.15	29.62		
20	41.15	40.14	38.18	36.29	34.47	32.56	30.94	28.69	27.18		
25	31.32	30.34	28.35	26.55	24.84	23.01	21.44	19.55	18.23		
30	24.65	23.70	21.62	20.19	18.60	17.03	15.65	13.80	12.65		
35	20.09	19.19	17.05	15.77	14.29	12.85	11.07	9.97	8.97		
40	16.56	15.64	13.36	12.64	11.37	10.03	8.36	7.33	6.46		
45	13.91	13.07	10.79	10.12	8.86	7.69	6.39	5.48	4.70		
50	11.59	11.03	8.57	8.25	7.09	6.05	4.73	4.00	3.44		

TABLES FOR CALCULATING SINKING-FUNDS AND PRESENT VALUES.

Engineers and others connected with municipal work and industrial enterprises often find it necessary to calculate payments to sinking-funds which will provide a sum of money sufficient to pay off a bond issue or other debt at the end of a given period, or to determine the present value of certain annual charges. The accompanying tables were computed by Mr. John W. Hill, of Cincinnati, *Eng'g News*, Jan. 25, 1891.

Table I (opposite page) shows the annual sum at various rates of interest required to net \$1000 in from 2 to 50 years, and Table II shows the present value at various rates of interest of an annual charge of \$1000 for from 5 to 50 years, at five-year intervals and for 100 years.

Table II.—Capitalization of Annuity of \$1000 for from 5 to 100 Years.

Years.	Rate of Interest, per cent.							
	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6
5	4,645.88	4,579.80	4,514.92	4,451.88	4,389.91	4,329.45	4,268.09	4,212.40
10	8,722.17	8,580.13	8,438.45	8,297.74	8,157.67	8,017.73	7,877.54	7,736.19
15	12,381.41	11,937.80	11,517.23	11,118.06	10,739.42	10,379.53	10,037.48	9,712.30
20	15,589.215	14,877.27	14,212.12	13,590.21	13,007.88	12,462.13	11,950.26	11,469.96
25	18,424.67	17,418.01	16,481.28	15,621.93	14,828.12	14,093.86	13,413.82	12,788.39
30	20,930.59	19,600.21	18,391.85	17,291.86	16,288.77	15,372.36	14,533.63	13,764.85
35	23,145.31	21,487.04	20,000.43	18,664.37	17,460.89	16,374.36	15,390.48	14,488.65
40	25,103.53	23,114.36	21,354.83	19,792.65	18,401.49	17,159.01	16,044.92	15,046.31
45	26,833.15	24,513.49	22,495.23	20,719.89	19,156.24	17,773.99	16,547.65	15,455.85
50	28,362.48	25,729.58	23,455.21	21,482.08	19,761.93	18,255.86	16,931.97	15,761.87
100	36,614.21	31,593.81	27,655.36	24,504.96	21,949.21	19,847.90	18,065.83	16,612.64

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Long Measure.—Measures of Length.

12 inches	= 1 foot.
3 feet	= 1 yard.
5½ yards, or 16½ feet	= 1 rod, pole, or perch.
40 poles, or 220 yards	= 1 furlong.
8 furlongs, or 1760 yards, or 5280 feet	= 1 mile.
3 miles	= 1 league.

Additional measures of length in occasional use: 1000 mils = 1 inch; 4 inches = 1 hand; 9 inches = 1 span; 2½ feet = 1 military pace; 2 yards = 1 fathom.

Old Land Measure.—7.92 inches = 1 link; 100 links, or 66 feet, or 4 poles = 1 chain; 10 chains = 1 furlong; 8 furlongs = 1 mile; 10 square chains = 1 acre.

Nautical Measure.

6080.26 feet, or 1.15156 statute miles	= 1 nautical mile, or knot.*
3 nautical miles	= 1 league.
60 nautical miles, or 69.168 statute miles	= 1 degree (at the equator).
360 degrees	= circumference of the earth at the equator.

*The British Admiralty takes the round figure of 6080 ft. which is the length of the "measured mile" used in trials of vessels. The value varies from 6060 ft. to 6080 ft. according to different measures of the earth's diameter. There is a difference of opinion among writers as to the use of the word "knot" to mean length or a distance—some holding that it should.

Square Measure.—Measures of Surface.

144 square inches, or 183.35 circular inches	} = 1 square foot.
9 square feet	
30 $\frac{1}{2}$ square yards, or 272 $\frac{1}{2}$ square feet	} = 1 square rod, pole, or perch
40 square poles	
4 rods, or 10 sq. chains, or 160 sq. poles, or 4840 sq. yards, or 43560 sq. feet,	} = 1 acre.
640 acres	
	= 1 square mile.

An acre equals a square whose side is 208.71 feet.

A circular inch is the area of a circle 1 inch in diameter = 0.7854 sq. inch.

1 square inch = 1.2732 circular inches.

A circular mil is the area of a circle 1 mil, or .001 inch in diameter = 1,000² or 1,000,000 circular mils = 1 circular inch.

1 square inch = 1,273,239 circular mils.

The mil, and circular mil are used in electrical calculations involving the diameter and area of wires.

Solid or Cubic Measure.—Measures of Volume.

1728 cubic inches	= 1 cubic foot.
27 cubic feet	= 1 cubic yard.
1 cord of wood = a pile, 4 × 4 × 8 feet	= 128 cubic feet.
1 perch of masonry = 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ × 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ × 1 foot	= 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ cubic feet.

Liquid Measure.

4 gills	= 1 pint.
2 pints	= 1 quart.
4 quarts	= 1 gallon } U. S. 231 cubic inches.
	= 1 gallon } Eng. 277.274 cubic inches.
31 $\frac{1}{2}$ gallons	= 1 barrel.
42 gallons	= 1 tierce.
2 barrels, or 63 gallons	= 1 hogshead.
84 gallons, or 2 tierces	= 1 puncheon.
2 hogsheads, or 126 gallons	= 1 pipe or butt.
2 pipes, or 3 puncheons	= 1 tun.

The U. S. gallon contains 231 cubic inches; 7.4805 gallons = 1 cubic foot. A cylinder 7 in. diam. and 6 in. high contains 1 gallon, very nearly, or 1 cubic inches. The British Imperial gallon contains 277.274 cubic inches = 1.20032 U. S. gallon.

The Miner's Inch.—(Western U. S. for measuring flow of a stream of water).

The term Miner's Inch is more or less indefinite, for the reason that (for mine water companies do not all use the same head above the centre of the aperture, and the inch varies from 1.36 to 1.73 cubic feet per minute each; but the most common measurement is through an aperture 2 in. high and whatever length is required, and through a plank 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick. The lower edge of the aperture should be 2 inches above the bottom of the measuring-box, and the plank 5 inches high above the aperture, thus forming a 6-inch head above the centre of the stream. Each square inch of opening represents a miner's inch, which is equal to a flow of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ cubic feet per minute.

Apothecaries' Fluid Measure.

60 minims	= 1 fluid drachm.
8 drachms, or 437 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains, or 1,732 cubic inches	= 1 fluid ounce.

Dry Measure, U. S.

2 pints	= 1 quart.
8 quarts	= 1 peck.
4 pecks	= 1 bushel.

used only to denote a rate of speed. The length between knots on the line is $\frac{1}{10}$ of a fath. or 60 ft. when a half-minute glass is used that a speed of 4 to 10 nautical miles per hour.

The standard U. S. bushel is the Winchester bushel, which is in cylinder form, 18½ inches diameter and 8 inches deep, and contains 2150.42 cubic inches.

A struck bushel contains 2150.42 cubic inches = 1.2445 cu. ft. : 1 cubic foot = 0.80356 struck bushel. A heaped bushel is a cylinder 18½ inches diameter and 8 inches deep, with a heaped cone not less than 6 inches high. It is equal to 1¼ struck bushels.

The British Imperial bushel is based on the Imperial gallon, and contains 1 such gallons, or 2218.192 cubic inches = 1.2837 cubic feet. The English quarter = 8 Imperial bushels.

Capacity of a cylinder in U. S. gallons = square of diameter, in inches × weight in inches × .0084. (Accurate within 1 part in 100,000.)

Capacity of a cylinder in U. S. bushels = square of diameter in inches × weight in inches × .0008652.

Shipping Measure.

Register Ton—For register tonnage or for measurement of the entire internal capacity of a vessel:

100 cubic feet = 1 register ton.

This number is arbitrarily assumed to facilitate computation.

Shipping Ton.—For the measurement of cargo:

40 cubic feet =	{	1 U. S. shipping ton.
		31.16 Imp. bushels.
42 cubic feet =	{	32.143 U. S. "
		1 British shipping ton.
42 cubic feet =	{	32.719 Imp. bushels.
		33.75 U. S. "

Carpenter's Rule.—Weight a vessel will carry = length of keel × breadth of main beam × depth of hold in feet + 95 (the cubic feet allowed for a ton). The result will be the tonnage. For a double-decker instead of the depth of the hold take half the breadth of the beam.

Measures of Weight.—Avoirdupois, or Commercial Weight.

16 drachms, or 437.5 grains	= 1 ounce, oz.
16 ounces, or 7000 grains	= 1 pound, lb.
28 pounds	= 1 quarter, qr.
4 quarters	= 1 hundredweight, cwt = 112 lbs.
20 hundred weight	= 1 ton of 2240 pounds, or long ton.
2000 pounds	= 1 net, or short ton.
2204.6 pounds	= 1 metric ton.
1 stone = 14 pounds ; 1 quintal = 100 pounds.	

Troy Weight.

24 grains	= 1 pennyweight, dwt.
20 pennyweights	= 1 ounce, oz. = 480 grains.
12 ounces	= 1 pound, lb. = 5760 grains.

Troy weight is used for weighing gold and silver. The grain is the same. Avoirdupois, Troy, and Apothecaries' weights. A carat, used in weighing diamonds = 3.168 grains = .205 gramme.

Apothecaries' Weight.

20 grains	= 1 scruple, ℥
8 scruples = 1 drachm, ℥	= 60 grains.
8 drachms = 1 ounce, ℥	= 480 grains.
12 ounces	= 1 pound, lb. = 5760 grains.

To determine whether a balance has unequal arms.—For weighing an article and obtaining equilibrium, transpose the article to the right. If the balance is true, it will remain in equilibrium ; if not, the one suspended from the longer arm will descend.
weigh correctly on an incorrect balance.—First, let the article to be weighed in one pan of the balance and

counterpoise it by any convenient heavy articles placed on the other pan. Remove the article to be weighed and substitute for it standard weights until equilibrium is again established. The amount of these weights is the weight of the article.

Second, by transposition. Determine the apparent weight of the article as usual, then its apparent weight after transposing the article and the weights. If the difference is small, add half the difference to the smaller of the apparent weights to obtain the true weight. If the difference is 1 per cent the error of this method is 1 part in 10,000. For larger differences, or to obtain a perfectly accurate result, multiply the two apparent weights together and extract the square root of the product.

Circular Measure.

60 seconds,	"	= 1 minute,	'
60 minutes,	'	= 1 degree,	°
90 degrees		= 1 quadrant,	
360	"	= circumference,	

Time.

60 seconds	= 1 minute.
60 minutes	= 1 hour.
24 hours	= 1 day.
7 days	= 1 week.

365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 48 seconds = 1 year.

By the Gregorian Calendar every year whose number is divisible by 4 is a leap year, and contains 366 days, the other years containing 365 days, except that the centesimal years are leap years only when the number of the year is divisible by 400.

The comparative values of mean solar and sidereal time are shown by the following relations according to Bessel:

365 24 ²² mean solar days	= 366.2422 sidereal days, whence
1 mean solar day	= 1.0025671 sidereal days;
1 sidereal day	= 0.99726967 mean solar day;
24 hours mean solar time	= 24 ^h 3 ^m 56 ^s .555 sidereal time;
24 hours sidereal time	= 23 ^h 56 ^m 4 ^s .091 mean solar time,

whence 1 mean solar day is 3^m 56^s.91 longer than a sidereal day, reckoned in mean solar time.

BOARD AND TIMBER MEASURE.

Board Measure.

In board measure boards are assumed to be one inch in thickness. To obtain the number of feet board measure (B. M.) of a board or stick of square timber, multiply together the length in feet, the breadth in feet, and the thickness in inches.

To compute the measure or surface in square feet.—When all dimensions are in feet, multiply the length by the breadth, and the product will give the surface required.

When either of the dimensions are in inches, multiply as above and divide the product by 12.

When all dimensions are in inches, multiply as before and divide product by 144.

Timber Measure.

To compute the volume of round timber.—When all dimensions are in feet, multiply the length by one-quarter of the product of the mean girth and diameter, and the product will give the measurement in cubic feet. When length is given in feet and girth and diameter in inches, divide the product by 144; when all the dimensions are in inches, divide by 1728.

To compute the volume of square timber.—When all dimensions are in feet, multiply together the length, breadth, and depth; the product will be the volume in cubic feet. When one dimension is given in inches, divide by 12; when two dimensions are in inches, divide by 144; when all three dimensions are in inches, divide by 1728.

Contents in Feet of Joists, Scantling, and Timber.

Length in Feet.

Size.	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
Feet Board Measure.										
2 x 4	8	9	11	12	13	15	16	17	19	20
2 x 6	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
2 x 8	16	19	21	24	27	29	32	35	37	40
2 x 10	20	23	27	30	33	37	40	43	47	50
2 x 12	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60
2 x 14	28	33	37	42	47	51	56	61	65	70
2 x 16	32	38	43	48	53	58	63	68	73	78
2 x 18	36	43	49	54	60	66	72	78	84	90
2 x 20	40	48	56	63	70	77	84	91	98	105
4 x 4	16	19	21	24	27	29	32	35	37	40
4 x 6	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60
4 x 8	32	37	43	48	53	58	64	69	75	80
4 x 10	40	47	53	60	67	73	80	87	93	100
4 x 12	48	56	64	72	80	88	96	104	112	120
6 x 6	56	65	75	84	93	103	112	121	131	140
6 x 8	64	75	86	96	106	116	126	136	146	156
6 x 10	72	84	96	108	120	132	144	156	168	180
6 x 12	80	93	107	120	133	147	160	173	187	200
6 x 14	88	102	116	130	144	158	172	186	200	214
6 x 16	96	111	126	141	156	171	186	201	216	231
8 x 8	112	131	149	168	187	205	224	243	261	280
8 x 10	120	140	160	180	200	220	240	260	280	300
8 x 12	128	150	172	194	216	238	260	282	304	326
8 x 14	136	160	184	208	232	256	280	304	328	352
8 x 16	144	170	196	222	248	274	300	326	352	378
10 x 10	160	192	224	256	288	320	352	384	416	448
10 x 12	170	204	238	272	306	340	374	408	442	476
10 x 14	180	216	252	288	324	360	396	432	468	504
10 x 16	190	228	266	304	342	380	418	456	494	532
12 x 12	216	252	288	324	360	396	432	468	504	540
12 x 14	224	264	304	344	384	424	464	504	544	584
12 x 16	232	276	316	356	396	436	476	516	556	596
14 x 14	256	304	352	400	448	496	544	592	640	688

FRENCH OR METRIC MEASURES.

The metric unit of length is the metre = 39.37 inches.

The metric unit of weight is the gram = 15.432 grains.

The following prefixes are used for subdivisions and multiples; Milli = $\frac{1}{1000}$, Centi = $\frac{1}{100}$, Deci = $\frac{1}{10}$, Deca = 10, Hecto = 100, Kilo = 1000, Myria = 10,000.

FRENCH AND BRITISH (AND AMERICAN) EQUIVALENT MEASURES.

Measures of Length.

French.	British and U. S.
1 metre	= 39.37 inches, or 8,25063 feet, or 1.09361 yards.
3046 metre	= 1 foot.
1 centimetre	= .3937 inch.
254 centimetres	= 1 inch.
3 millimetres	= .03937 inch, or $\frac{1}{25}$ inch, nearly.
25.4 millimetres	= 1 inch.
1 kilometre	= 1093.61 yards, or 0.62137 mile.

ARITHMETIC.

Measures of Surface.

FRENCH.	BRITISH.
1 square metre	= 10.764 square feet,
.536 square metre	= 1 square yard.
.0929 square metre	= 1 square foot.
1 square centimetre	= .155 square inch.
6.452 square centimetres	= 1 square inch.
1 square millimetre	= .00155 square inch.
645.2 square millimetres	= 1 square inch.
1 centiare = 1 sq. metre	= 10.764 square feet.
1 are = 1 sq. decametre	= 1076.41 "
1 hectare = 100 ares	= 107641 " " = 2.4711 acres
1 sq. kilometre	= .386109 sq. miles = 247.11 "
1 sq. myriametre	= 38.6109 " "

Of Volume.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 cubic metre	= { 35.314 cubic feet,
.7645 cubic metre	= { 1.308 cubic yards.
.02332 cubic metre	= 1 cubic foot.
1 cubic decimetre	= { 61.023 cubic inches,
28.32 cubic decimetres	= { .0883 cubic foot.
1 cubic centimetre	= 1 cubic foot.
16.387 cubic centimetres	= .061 cubic inch.
cubic centimetre = 1 millilitre	= .061 cubic inch.
centilitre =	= .610 " "
decilitre =	= 6.102 " "
litre = 1 cubic decimetre	= 61.023 " " = 1.05671 quart
hectolitre or decistere	= 3.314 cubic feet = 2.875 bushels
stere, kilolitre, or cubic metre	= 1.308 cubic yards = 28.37 bushels

Of Capacity.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 litre (= 1 cubic decimetre)	= { 61.023 cubic inches,
	= { .03531 cubic foot,
	= { .2642 gallon (American),
	= { 2.202 pounds of water at 62°
28.317 litres	= 1 cubic foot.
4.543 litres	= 1 gallon (British).
3.785 litres	= 1 gallon (American).

Of Weight.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 gramme	= 15.432 grains.
.0648 gramme	= 1 grain.
28.35 gramme	= 1 ounce avoirdupois.
1 kilogramme	= 2.2046 pounds.
.4536 kilogramme	= 1 pound.
1 tonne or metric ton	= { .9842 ton of 2240 pounds,
1000 kilogrammes	= { 19.68 cwt.,
	= { 2204.6 pounds.
1.016 metric tons	= { 1 ton of 2240 pounds.
1016 kilogrammes	= {

Dr. O. H. Titmann, in Bulletin No. 9 of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, discusses the work of various authorities who have compared the metre, and by referring all the observations to a common standard, succeeded in reconciling the discrepancies within very narrow limits. Following are his results for the number of inches in a metre at the comparisons of the authorities named:

1817.	Hassler.....	39.36994 inches.
1818.	Kater.....	39.36990 "
1843.	Baily.....	39.36973 "
1843.	Clarke.....	39.36970 "
		39.36984 "
		39.36982 "

METRIC CONVERSION TABLES.

The following tables, with the subjoined memoranda, were published in 1830 by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, office of standard weights and measures, T. C. Mendenhall, Superintendent.

**Tables for Converting U. S. Weights and Measures—
Customary to Metric.**

LINEAR.

	Inches to Milli- metres.	Feet to Metres.	Yards to Metres.	Miles to Kilo- metres.
1 =	25.4001	0.304801	0.914402	1.60935
2 =	50.8001	0.609601	1.828804	3.21870
3 =	76.2002	0.914403	2.743205	4.82804
4 =	101.6002	1.219202	3.657607	6.43739
5 =	127.0003	1.524003	4.572009	8.04674
6 =	152.4003	1.828804	5.486411	9.65608
7 =	177.8004	2.133604	6.400813	11.26548
8 =	203.2004	2.438405	7.315215	12.87478
9 =	228.6005	2.743205	8.229616	14.48412

SQUARE.

	Square Inches to Square Centi- metres.	Square Feet to Square Deci- metres.	Square Yards to Square Metres.	Acres to Hectares.
1 =	6.452	9.290	0.836	0.4047
2 =	12.903	18.581	1.672	0.8094
3 =	19.355	27.871	2.508	1.2141
4 =	25.807	37.161	3.344	1.6187
5 =	32.258	46.452	4.181	2.0231
6 =	38.710	55.742	5.017	2.4281
7 =	45.161	65.032	5.853	2.8328
8 =	51.613	74.323	6.689	3.2375
9 =	58.065	83.613	7.525	3.6422

CUBIC.

	Cubic Inches to Cubic Centi- metres.	Cubic Feet to Cubic Metres.	Cubic Yards to Cubic Metres.	Bushels to Hectolitres.
1 =	16.387	0.02832	0.765	0.35242
2 =	32.774	0.05663	1.529	0.70485
3 =	49.161	0.08495	2.294	1.05727
4 =	65.549	0.11327	3.058	1.40969
5 =	81.936	0.14158	3.822	1.76211
6 =	98.323	0.16990	4.587	2.11454
7 =	114.710	0.19822	5.352	2.46696
8 =	131.097	0.22654	6.116	2.81938
9 =	147.484	0.25485	6.881	3.17181

WIRE AND SHEET-METAL GAUGES COMPARED

Number of Gauge.	Birmingham Wire Gauge.	American or Brown and Sharpe Gauge.	Roehling's and Washburn & Moen's Gauge.	Trenton Iron Co.'s Wire Gauge.	British Imperial Standard Wire Gauge. (Legal Standard in Great Britain since March 1, 1884.)	U. S. Standard Gauge for Sheet and Plate Iron and Steel. (Legal Standard since July 1, 1894.)
	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch. millim.	inch.
0000000			.49		.500	.5
000000			.46		.464	.469
000000			.43	.45	.432	.438
0000	.454	.40	.393	.40	.4	.406
000	.425	.40064	.364	.36	.372	.375
00	.39	.3648	.321	.33	.342	.344
0	.34	.32486	.307	.305	.324	.313
1	.3	.2893	.288	.285	.3	.291
2	.294	.25769	.263	.265	.276	.266
3	.230	.22432	.244	.245	.252	.25
4	.238	.20481	.225	.225	.239	.231
5	.24	.18194	.207	.205	.213	.219
6	.203	.16302	.192	.19	.192	.201
7	.18	.14438	.177	.175	.176	.188
8	.165	.12849	.162	.16	.16	.172
9	.148	.11443	.148	.145	.144	.156
10	.134	.10189	.135	.13	.138	.141
11	.12	.09074	.12	.1175	.116	.123
12	.109	.08261	.105	.105	.104	.109
13	.095	.07196	.092	.0925	.092	.094
14	.083	.06408	.08	.08	.08	.078
15	.072	.05707	.073	.07	.072	.07
16	.065	.05082	.063	.061	.064	.0625
17	.058	.04538	.054	.0525	.056	.0565
18	.049	.0403	.047	.045	.048	.05
19	.042	.03559	.041	.04	.04	.0438
20	.035	.03196	.035	.035	.036	.0375
21	.032	.02846	.032	.031	.032	.0344
22	.029	.02535	.028	.028	.028	.0313
23	.025	.02257	.025	.025	.024	.0281
24	.022	.0201	.023	.0225	.022	.026
25	.02	.0179	.02	.02	.02	.0219
26	.018	.01594	.018	.018	.018	.0188
27	.016	.01419	.017	.017	.0164	.0172
28	.014	.01264	.016	.016	.0148	.0156
29	.013	.01126	.015	.015	.0136	.0141
30	.012	.01002	.014	.014	.0121	.0125
31	.01	.00889	.0135	.013	.0116	.0109
32	.009	.00795	.013	.012	.0108	.0101
33	.008	.00708	.011	.011	.01	.0094
34	.007	.0063	.01	.01	.0092	.0086
35	.005	.00561	.0095	.0095	.0084	.0078
36	.004	.005	.009	.009	.0076	.007
37		.00445	.0085	.0085	.0068	.0066
38		.00396	.008	.008	.006	.0063
39		.00353	.0075	.0075	.0052	
40		.00314	.007	.007	.0048	
41					.0044	.01
42					.004	.01
43					.0036	.09
44					.0032	.08
45					.0025	.07
46					.0024	.06
47					.002	.05
48					.0018	.04
49					.0012	.03
50					.001	.025

EDISON, OR CIRCULAR MIL GAUGE, FOR ELECTRICAL WIRES.

Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.
3	3,000	54.78	70	70,000	264.58	190	190,000	435.89
5	5,000	70.72	75	75,000	273.87	200	200,000	447.22
6	8,000	89.45	80	80,000	282.85	220	220,000	469.05
12	12,000	109.55	85	85,000	291.55	240	240,000	489.90
16	13,000	122.48	90	90,000	300.00	260	260,000	509.91
20	20,000	141.43	95	95,000	308.23	280	280,000	529.16
25	25,000	158.12	100	100,000	316.23	300	300,000	547.73
30	30,000	173.21	110	110,000	331.67	320	320,000	565.69
35	35,000	187.09	120	120,000	346.43	340	340,000	583.10
40	40,000	200.00	130	130,000	360.56	360	360,000	600.30
45	45,000	212.14	140	140,000	374.17			
50	50,000	223.61	150	150,000	387.30			
55	55,000	234.58	160	160,000	400.00			
60	60,000	244.95	170	170,000	412.32			
65	65,000	254.96	180	180,000	424.27			

TWIST DRILL AND STEEL WIRE GAUGE.

(Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
	inch.		inch.		inch.		inch.
1	.2280	16	.1770	31	.1200	46	.0810
2	.2210	17	.1730	32	.1160	47	.0785
3	.2130	18	.1695	33	.1130	48	.0760
4	.2090	19	.1660	34	.1110	49	.0730
5	.2055	20	.1610	35	.1100	50	.0700
6	.2010	21	.1590	36	.1065	51	.0670
7	.2010	22	.1570	37	.1040	52	.0635
8	.1990	23	.1540	38	.1015	53	.0595
9	.1960	24	.1520	39	.0995	54	.0550
10	.1935	25	.1495	40	.0980	55	.0520
11	.1910	26	.1470	41	.0960	56	.0485
12	.1890	27	.1440	42	.0935	57	.0430
13	.1850	28	.1405	43	.0890	58	.0420
14	.1820	29	.1360	44	.0860	59	.0410
15	.1800	30	.1285	45	.0820	60	.0400

STEEL MUSIC-WIRE GAUGE.

(Washburn & Moen Mfg. Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
	inch.		inch.		inch.		inch.
12	.0225	17	.0378	21	.0461	25	.0585
13	.0311	18	.0395	22	.0481	26	.0625
14	.0325	19	.0414	23	.0506	27	.0665
15	.0345	20	.043	24	.0547	28	.0715
16	.0369						

THE EDISON OR CIRCULAR MILL WIRE GAUGE.

(For table of copper wires by this gauge, giving weights, electrical resistances, etc., see Copper Wire.)

Mr. C. J. Field (*Stevens Indicator*, July, 1887) thus describes the origin of the Edison gauge:

The Edison company experienced inconvenience and loss by not having a wide enough range nor sufficient number of sizes in the existing gauges. This was felt more particularly in the central-station work in making electrical determinations for the street system. They were compelled to make use of two of the existing gauges at least, thereby introducing a complication that was liable to lead to mistakes by the contractors and linemen.

In the incandescent system an even distribution throughout the entire system and a uniform pressure at the point of delivery are obtained by calculating for a given maximum percentage of loss from the potential at delivered from the dynamo. In carrying this out, on account of lack of regular sizes, it was often necessary to use larger sizes than the occasion demanded, and even to assume new sizes for large underground conductors. It was also found that nearly all manufacturers based their calculation for the conductivity of their wire on a variety of units, and that not one used the latest unit as adopted by the British Association and determined from Dr. Matthiessen's experiments; and as this was the unit employed in the manufacture of the Edison lamps, there was a further reason for constructing a new gauge. The engineering department of the Edison company, knowing the requirements, have designed a gauge that has the wide range obtainable and a large number of sizes which increase in a regular and uniform manner. The basis of the graduation is the sectional area, and the number of the wire corresponds. A wire of 100,000 circular mills area is No. 100; a wire of one-half the size will be No. 50; twice the size No. 200.

In the older gauges, as the number increased the size decreased. With this gauge, however, the number increases with the wire, and the number multiplied by 1000 will give the circular mills.

The weight per mil-foot, 0.00032162705 pounds, agrees with a specific gravity of 8.899, which is the latest figure given for copper. The ampere capacity which is given was deduced from experiments made in the company's laboratory, and is based on a rise of temperature of 50° F. in the wire. In 1893 Mr. Field writes, concerning gauges in use by electrical engineers:

The B. and S. gauge seems to be in general use for the smaller sizes up to 100,000 c. m., and in some cases a little larger. From between one and two hundred thousand circular mills upwards, the Edison gauge or its equivalent is practically in use, and there is a general tendency to designate all sizes above this in circular mills, specifying a wire as 200,000, 400,000, 500,000, or 1,000,000 c. m.

In the electrical business there is a large use of copper wire and rod and other materials of these large sizes, and in ordering them, speaking of them, specifying, and in every other use, the general method is to simply specify the circular milage. I think it is going to be the only system in the future for the designation of wires, and the attaining of it means practically the adoption of the Edison gauge or the method and basis of this gauge as the correct one for wire sizes.

THE U. S. STANDARD GAUGE FOR SHEET AND PLATE IRON AND STEEL, 1893.

The Committee on Coinage, Weights, and Measures of the House of Representatives in 1892, in introducing the bill establishing the new sheet and plate gauge, made a report from which we take the following:

The purpose of this bill is to establish an authoritative standard gauge for the measurement of sheet and plate iron.

There is in this country no uniform or standard gauge, and the same numbers in different gauges represent different thicknesses of sheets or plates. This has given rise to much misunderstanding and friction between employers and workmen and mistakes and fraud between dealers and consumers.

The practice of describing the different thicknesses of sheet and plate iron by gauge numbers has been so long established and become so usual both here and in Great Britain that it is not deemed advisable to change this mode of designation; but these descriptive gauge num-

GAUGE FOR SHEET AND PLATE IRON AND STEEL. 3.

. S. STANDARD GAUGE FOR SHEET AND PLATE IRON AND STEEL, 1893.

Gauge.	Approximate Thickness in Fractions of an Inch.	Approximate Thickness in Decimal Parts of an Inch.	Approximate Thickness in Millimeters.	Weight per Square Foot in Ounces.	Weight per Square Foot in Pounds.	Weight per Square Foot in Kilograms.	Weight per Square Meter in Kilograms.	Weight per Square Meter in Pounds.
10000	1-2	0.5	12.7	320	20.	9.072	97.65	215.28
10000	15-32	0.46875	11.00625	300	18.75	8.505	91.55	201.82
10000	7-16	0.4375	11.1125	280	17.50	7.938	85.44	188.87
10000	13-32	0.40625	10.31875	260	16.25	7.371	79.33	174.91
1000	3-8	0.375	9.525	240	15.	6.804	73.21	161.46
00	11-32	0.34375	8.78125	220	13.75	6.237	67.13	148.00
0	5-16	0.3125	7.9375	200	12.50	5.67	61.03	134.55
1	9-32	0.28125	7.14375	180	11.25	5.103	54.98	121.09
2	17-64	0.265625	6.740875	170	10.625	4.819	51.88	114.37
3	1-4	0.25	6.35	160	10.	4.536	48.82	107.64
4	15-64	0.234375	5.953125	150	9.375	4.252	45.77	100.91
5	7-32	0.21875	5.55625	140	8.75	3.969	42.72	94.18
6	13-64	0.203125	5.159375	130	8.125	3.685	39.67	87.45
7	9-16	0.1875	4.7625	120	7.5	3.402	36.62	80.72
8	11-64	0.171875	4.365625	110	6.875	3.118	33.57	74.00
9	5-32	0.15625	3.95875	100	6.25	2.835	30.52	67.27
10	9-64	0.140625	3.571875	90	5.625	2.552	27.46	60.55
11	1-8	0.125	3.175	80	5.	2.269	24.41	53.82
12	7-64	0.109375	2.778125	70	4.375	1.984	21.36	47.09
13	3-32	0.09375	2.38125	60	3.75	1.701	18.31	40.36
14	5-64	0.078125	1.984375	50	3.125	1.417	15.26	33.64
15	9-128	0.0703125	1.7859375	45	2.8125	1.276	13.73	30.27
16	1-16	0.0625	1.5875	40	2.5	1.134	12.21	26.91
17	9-160	0.05625	1.42875	36	2.25	1.021	10.99	24.22
18	1-20	0.05	1.27	32	2.	0.9072	9.765	21.53
19	7-160	0.04375	1.11125	28	1.75	0.7938	8.544	18.84
20	3-80	0.0375	0.9525	24	1.50	0.6804	7.324	16.15
21	11-320	0.034375	0.873125	22	1.375	0.6237	6.713	14.80
22	1-32	0.03125	0.793750	20	1.25	0.567	6.103	13.46
23	7-320	0.028125	0.714375	18	1.125	0.5103	5.493	12.11
24	1-40	0.025	0.635	16	1.	0.4536	4.882	10.76
25	7-320	0.021875	0.555625	14	0.875	0.3969	4.272	9.42
26	3-160	0.01875	0.47625	12	0.75	0.3402	3.662	8.07
27	11-640	0.0171875	0.4365625	11	0.6875	0.3119	3.357	7.40
28	1-64	0.015625	0.396875	10	0.625	0.2835	3.032	6.73
29	9-640	0.0140625	0.3571875	9	0.5625	0.2551	2.740	6.05
30	1-80	0.0125	0.3175	8	0.5	0.2268	2.441	5.38
31	7-641	0.0109375	0.2778125	7	0.4375	0.1984	2.136	4.71
32	13-1280	0.01015625	0.25796875	6 1/2	0.40625	0.1843	1.983	4.37
33	3-320	0.009375	0.238125	6	0.375	0.1701	1.831	4.04
34	11-1280	0.00859375	0.2188125	5 1/2	0.34375	0.1559	1.678	3.70
35	5-640	0.0078125	0.1984375	5	0.3125	0.1417	1.526	3.33
36	9-1280	0.00703125	0.17859375	4 1/2	0.28125	0.1276	1.373	3.0
37	17-2560	0.006640625	0.1684375	4 1/4	0.25625	0.1205	1.267	2.8
38	1-160	0.00625	0.15875	4	0.25	0.1134	1.221	2

WIRE AND SHEET-METAL GAUGES COMPARED.

Number of Gauge.	Birmingham Wire Gauge.	American or Brown and Sharpe Gauge.	Royley's and Washburn & Moen's Gauge.	Trenton Iron Co.'s Wire Gauge.	British Imperial Standard Wire Gauge. (Legal Standard in Great Britain since March 1, 1881.)		U. S. Standard for Sheet and Plate Iron and Steel (Legal Standard since July 1, 1885.)
	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	millim.	inch.
0000000			.49		.500	12.7	.5
000000			.46		.464	11.78	.460
00000			.43	.45	.438	10.97	.438
0000	.451	.46	.392	.40	.4	10.16	.406
000	.425	.40664	.362	.38	.372	9.45	.375
00	.38	.3648	.331	.33	.342	8.64	.344
0	.34	.33496	.307	.305	.324	8.23	.318
1	.3	.2893	.288	.285	.3	7.62	.281
2	.284	.2763	.263	.265	.276	7.01	.266
3	.250	.23942	.244	.245	.252	6.4	.25
4	.228	.20481	.225	.225	.223	5.69	.221
5	.22	.18194	.207	.205	.212	5.38	.210
6	.203	.16302	.192	.19	.192	4.88	.203
7	.18	.14438	.177	.175	.176	4.47	.186
8	.165	.12840	.162	.16	.16	4.06	.172
9	.148	.11443	.148	.145	.144	3.66	.156
10	.134	.10129	.135	.13	.133	3.38	.141
11	.12	.09074	.12	.1175	.116	2.95	.125
12	.109	.08081	.105	.105	.104	2.64	.109
13	.095	.07196	.092	.0925	.092	2.34	.094
14	.083	.06408	.08	.08	.08	2.08	.078
15	.072	.05707	.072	.07	.072	1.83	.07
16	.065	.05082	.063	.061	.064	1.63	.0625
17	.058	.04536	.054	.0525	.056	1.42	.0563
18	.049	.0403	.047	.045	.049	1.22	.05
19	.042	.03589	.041	.04	.044	1.01	.0438
20	.035	.03126	.035	.035	.036	.91	.0375
21	.033	.02846	.032	.031	.032	.81	.0344
22	.028	.02535	.028	.028	.026	.71	.0313
23	.025	.02257	.025	.025	.024	.61	.0281
24	.022	.0201	.023	.0225	.020	.56	.026
25	.02	.0179	.02	.02	.02	.51	.0219
26	.018	.01594	.018	.018	.018	.45	.0188
27	.016	.01419	.017	.017	.0164	.42	.0173
28	.014	.01254	.016	.016	.0148	.38	.0156
29	.013	.01125	.015	.015	.0138	.34	.0141
30	.012	.01002	.014	.014	.0124	.31	.0125
31	.01	.00893	.0135	.013	.0116	.28	.0109
32	.009	.00795	.013	.012	.0108	.27	.0101
33	.008	.00708	.011	.011	.01	.25	.0094
34	.007	.0063	.01	.01	.0092	.23	.0088
35	.005	.00551	.0095	.0085	.0084	.21	.0078
36	.004	.005	.009	.009	.0076	.19	.007
37		.00445	.0085	.0085	.0065	.17	.0066
38		.00390	.008	.008	.006	.15	.0063
39		.00353	.0075	.0075	.0052	.13	
40		.00314	.007	.007	.0048	.12	
41					.0044	.11	
42					.004	.10	
43					.0038	.09	
44					.0032	.08	
45					.0028	.07	
46					.0024	.06	
47					.002	.05	
48					.0016	.04	
49					.0012	.03	
50					.001	.025	

WIRE GAUGE TABLES.

EDISON, OR CIRCULAR MIL GAUGE, FOR ELECTRICAL WIRES.

Gauge Number	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.
1	3,000	54.78	70	70,000	261.58	190	190,000	435.9
2	5,000	70.72	75	75,000	273.87	200	200,000	447.2
3	8,000	89.45	80	80,000	282.85	220	220,000	469.1
12	12,000	109.55	85	85,000	291.56	240	240,000	489.1
15	13,000	122.48	90	90,000	300.00	260	260,000	509.1
20	20,000	141.45	95	95,000	308.23	280	280,000	529.1
25	25,000	158.12	100	100,000	316.23	300	300,000	547.2
30	30,000	173.21	110	110,000	331.47	320	320,000	565.3
35	35,000	187.09	120	120,000	346.42	340	340,000	583.3
40	40,000	200.00	130	130,000	360.56	360	360,000	600.0
45	45,000	212.14	140	140,000	374.17			
50	50,000	223.61	150	150,000	387.30			
55	55,000	234.58	160	160,000	400.00			
60	60,000	244.95	170	170,000	412.32			
65	65,000	254.96	180	180,000	424.27			

TWIST DRILL AND STEEL WIRE GAUGE.

(Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
	inch.		inch.		inch.		inch.
1	.2500	15	.1770	31	.1200	46	.0875
2	.2110	17	.1730	32	.1160	47	.0780
3	.2130	18	.1695	33	.1120	48	.0760
4	.2090	19	.1660	34	.1110	49	.0750
5	.2055	20	.1610	35	.1100	50	.0700
6	.2010	21	.1570	36	.1065	51	.0675
7	.2010	22	.1570	37	.1040	52	.0650
8	.1990	23	.1540	38	.1015	53	.0620
9	.1960	24	.1520	39	.0995	54	.0620
10	.1935	25	.1495	40	.0980	55	.0620
11	.1910	26	.1470	41	.0960	56	.0600
12	.1880	27	.1440	42	.0945	57	.0600
13	.1850	28	.1405	43	.0920	58	.0610
14	.1820	29	.1360	44	.0900	59	.0610
15	.1800	30	.1335	45	.0820	60	.0600

STEEL MUSIC-WIRE GAUGE.

(Washburn & Moen Mfg. Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
	inch.		inch.		inch.		inch.
12	.0995	17	.0978	21	.0961	25	.0950
14	.0911	18	.0995	22	.0981	26	.0980
16	.0875	19	.0914	23	.0960	27	.0960
18	.0829	20	.093	24	.0957	28	.0950

Parentheses.—When a parenthesis is preceded by a plus sign it is removed without changing the value of the expression: $a + b + (c + 2a + 2b)$. When a parenthesis is preceded by a minus sign it may be removed if we change the signs of all the terms within the parenthesis: $1 - (a - c) = 1 - a + b + c$. When a parenthesis is within a parenthesis remove the inner one first: $a - \{b - \{c - (d - e)\}\} = a - \{b - \{c - d + e\}\} = a - \{b - c + d - e\} = a - b + c - d + e$.

A multiplication sign, \times , has the effect of a parenthesis, in that the operation indicated by it must be performed before the operations of addition or subtraction. $a + b \times a + b = a + ab + b$; while $(a + b) \times (a + b) = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$, and $(a + b) \times a + b = a^2 + ab + b$.

Division.—The quotient is positive when the dividend and divisor have like signs, and negative when they have unlike signs: $abc \div b = ac$, $abc \div -b = -ac$.

To divide a monomial by a monomial, write the dividend over the divisor with a line between them. If the expressions have common factors, cancel the common factors:

$$a^2bx \div aby = \frac{a^2bx}{aby} = \frac{ax}{y}; \quad \frac{a^3}{a^3} = a; \quad \frac{a^3}{a^5} = \frac{1}{a^2} = a^{-2}.$$

To divide a polynomial by a monomial, divide each term of the polynomial by the monomial: $(6ab + 12ac) \div 4a = 3b + 3c$.

To divide a polynomial by a polynomial, arrange both dividend and divisor in the order of the ascending or descending powers of some common letter and keep this arrangement throughout the operation.

Divide the first term of the dividend by the first term of the divisor, write the result as the first term of the quotient.

Multiply all the terms of the divisor by the first term of the quotient, subtract the product from the dividend. If there be a remainder, consider it as a new dividend and proceed as before: $(a^2 - b^2) \div (a + b)$.

$$\begin{array}{r} a^2 - b^2 \mid a + b, \\ a^2 + ab \mid a - b, \\ \hline -ab - b^2, \\ \hline -ab - b^2, \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

The difference of two equal odd powers of any two numbers is divisible by their difference and also by their sum:

$$(a^2 - b^2) \div (a - b) = a + b; \quad (a^3 - b^3) \div (a - b) = a^2 + ab + b^2; \quad (a^5 - b^5) \div (a - b) = a^4 + a^3b + a^2b^2 + ab^3 + b^4.$$

The difference of two equal even powers of two numbers is divisible by their difference and also by their sum: $(a^2 - b^2) \div (a - b) = a + b$.

The sum of two equal even powers of two numbers is not divisible either by their difference or the sum of the numbers; but when the exponent of each of the two equal powers is composed of an odd and an even factor, the sum of the given power is divisible by the sum of the powers expressed by the even factor. Thus $x^6 + y^6$ is not divisible by $x + y$ or by $x - y$, but is divisible by $x^2 + y^2$.

Simple equations.—An equation is a statement of equality between two expressions, as, $a + b = c + d$.

A simple equation, or equation of the first degree, is one which contains the first power of the unknown quantity. If equal changes be made (by addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division) in both sides of an equation, the results will be equal.

Any term may be changed from one side of an equation to another, varied its sign be changed: $a + b = c + d$; $a = c + d - b$. To solve an equation having one unknown quantity, transpose all the terms into the unknown quantity to one side of the equation, and all the other to the other side; combine like terms, and divide both sides by the coefficient of the unknown quantity.

Solve $3x - 39 = 2b - 3x$, $8x + 3x = 39 + 2b$; $11x = 39$; $x = 3$, ans. Simple algebraic problems containing one unknown quantity are solved by making x the unknown quantity, and stating the conditions of the problem in the form of an algebraic equation, and then solving the equation.

What two numbers are those whose sum is 18 and difference 14? $x =$ the smaller number, $x + 14 =$ the greater, $x + x + 14 = 18$, $2x = 17$; $x = 14 \div 2 = 31$, ans.

Find a number whose triple exceeds 50 as much as its double falls short of 30. Let $x =$ the number, $3x - 50 = 40 - 2x$; $5x = 90$; $x = 18$, ans.

Equations containing two unknown quantities.—If one equation contains two unknown quantities, x and y , an indefinite number of pairs of values of x and y may be found that will satisfy the equation, but if a second equation be given only one pair of values can be found that will satisfy both equations. Simultaneous equations, or those that may be satisfied by the same values of the unknown quantities, are solved by combining the equations so as to obtain a single equation containing only one unknown quantity. This process is called elimination.

Elimination by addition or subtraction.—Multiply the equation by such numbers as will make the coefficients of one of the unknown quantities equal in the resulting equation. Add or subtract the resulting equations according as they have unlike or like signs.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} 2x + 3y = 7. & \text{Multiply by 2: } 4x + 6y = 14 \\ 4x - 5y = 3. & \text{Subtract: } \underline{4x - 5y = 3} \end{cases} \quad 11y = 11; y = 1.$$

Substituting value of y in first equation, $2x + 3 = 7$; $x = 2$.

Elimination by substitution.—From one of the equations obtain the value of one of the unknown quantities in terms of the other. Substitute for this unknown quantity its value in the other equation and reduce the resulting equations.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} 2x + 3y = 8. & (1). \text{ From (1) we find } x = \frac{8 - 3y}{2} \\ 3x + 7y = 7. & (2). \end{cases}$$

Substitute this value in (2): $3\left(\frac{8 - 3y}{2}\right) + 7y = 7$; $= 24 - 9y + 14y = 14$,

whence $y = -2$. Substitute this value in (1): $2x - 6 = 8$; $x = 7$.

Elimination by comparison.—From each equation obtain the value of one of the unknown quantities in terms of the other. Form an equation from these equal values, and reduce this equation.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} 2x - 9y = 11. & (1). \text{ From (1) we find } x = \frac{11 + 9y}{2} \\ 3x - 4y = 7. & (2). \text{ From (2) we find } x = \frac{7 + 4y}{3} \end{cases}$$

Equating these values of x , $\frac{11 + 9y}{2} = \frac{7 + 4y}{3}$; $19y = -19$; $y = -1$.

Substitute this value of y in (1): $2x + 9 = 11$; $x = 1$.

If three simultaneous equations are given containing three unknown quantities, one of the unknown quantities must be eliminated between two pairs of the equations; then a second between the two resulting equations.

Quadratic equations.—A quadratic equation contains the square of the unknown quantity, but no higher power. A pure quadratic contains the square only; an affected quadratic both the square and the first power.

To solve a pure quadratic, collect the unknown quantities on one side, and the known quantities on the other; divide by the coefficient of the unknown quantity and extract the square root of each side of the resulting equation.

$$\text{Solve } 3x^2 - 15 = 0. \quad 3x^2 = 15; x^2 = 5; x = \sqrt{5}$$

A root like $\sqrt{5}$, which is indicated, but which can be found only approximately, is called a *surd*.

$$\text{Solve } 3x^2 + 15 = 0. \quad 3x^2 = -15; x^2 = -5; x = \sqrt{-5}.$$

The square root of -5 cannot be found even approximately, for the square of any number positive or negative is positive; therefore a root which is indicated, but cannot be found even approximately, is called *imaginary*.

To solve an affected quadratic.—1. Convert the equation into the form $ax^2 \pm 2ax = c$, multiplying or dividing the equation if necessary, so as to make the coefficient of x^2 a square number.

2. Complete the square of the first member of the equation, so as to convert it to the form of $a^2x^2 \pm 2abx + b^2$, which is the square of the binomial $ax \pm b$, as follows: add to each side of the equation the square of the quotient obtained by dividing the second term by twice the square root of the first term.

3. Extract the square root of each side of the resulting equation.

Solve $3x^2 - 4x = 32$. To make the coefficient of x^2 a square number multiply by 3: $9x^2 - 12x = 96$; $12x + (3 \times 3x) = 9$; $2^2 = 4$. Complete the square: $9x^2 - 12x + 4 = 100$. Extract the root: $3x - 2 =$

10, whence $x = 4$ or $-2\frac{2}{3}$. The square root of 100 is either $+10$ or -10 , since the square of -10 as well as $+10^2 = 100$.

Problems involving quadratic equations have apparently two solutions, but a quadratic has two roots. Sometimes both will be true solutions, but generally one only will be a solution and the other be inconsistent with the conditions of the problem.

The sum of the squares of two consecutive positive numbers is 481. Find the numbers.

Let $x =$ one number, $x + 1$ the other. $x^2 + (x + 1)^2 = 481$. $2x^2 + 2x + 1 = 481$.

$x^2 + x = 240$. Completing the square, $x^2 + x + 0.25 = 240.25$. Extract the root we obtain $x + 0.5 = \pm 15.5$; $x = 15$ or -16 .

The positive root gives for the numbers 15 and 16. The negative root 16 is inconsistent with the conditions of the problem.

Quadratic equations containing two unknown quantities require different methods for their solution, according to the form of the equations. For these methods reference must be made to works on algebra.

Theory of exponents.— a^n when n is a positive integer is one of the equal factors of a . a^m means a is to be raised to the m th power and $a^{\frac{1}{n}}$ means the n th root extracted.

$(a^{\frac{1}{n}})^m$ means that the n th root of a is to be taken and the result raised to the m th power.

$a^{\frac{m}{n}} = (a^{\frac{1}{n}})^m = a^{\frac{m}{n}}$. When the exponent is a fraction, the numerator indicates a power, and the denominator a root. $a^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{a^1} = a^{\frac{1}{2}}$; $a^{\frac{3}{4}} = \sqrt[4]{a^3} = a^{\frac{3}{4}}$.

To extract the root of a quantity raised to an indicated power, divide the exponent by the index of the required root; as,

$$\sqrt[n]{a^m} = a^{\frac{m}{n}}; \quad \sqrt[3]{a^6} = a^{\frac{6}{3}} = a^2.$$

Subtracting 1 from the exponent of a is equivalent to dividing by a :

$$a^{n-1} = a^n : a; \quad a^{1-1} = a^0 = \frac{a^1}{a} = 1; \quad a^{0-1} = a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}; \quad a^{-1-1} = a^{-2} = \frac{1}{a^2}.$$

A number with a negative exponent denotes the reciprocal of the number with the corresponding positive exponent.

A factor under the radical sign whose root can be taken may, by having the root taken, be removed from under the radical sign:

$$\sqrt[n]{a^m b} = \sqrt[n]{a^m} \times \sqrt[n]{b} = a^{\frac{m}{n}} \sqrt[n]{b}.$$

A factor outside the radical sign may be raised to the corresponding power and placed under it:

$$\sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{b}} = \frac{\sqrt[n]{a}}{\sqrt[n]{b}} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{b}} \times \frac{1}{b^{\frac{n-1}{n}}} = \frac{1}{b} \sqrt[n]{ab}; \quad \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{b^3}} = \frac{1}{b} \sqrt[n]{ab}.$$

Binomial Theorem.—To obtain any power, as the n th, of an expression of the form $x + a$

$$(a + x)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}x + \frac{n(n-1)a^{n-2}}{1 \cdot 2}x^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)a^{n-3}}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}x^3 + \text{etc.}$$

The following laws hold for any term in the expansion of $(a + x)^n$.

The exponent of x is less by one than the number of terms.

The exponent of a is n minus the exponent of x .

The last factor of the numerator is greater by one than the exponent of x .

The last factor of the denominator is the same as the exponent of x .

In the r th term the exponent of x will be $r - 1$.

The exponent of a will be $n - (r - 1)$, or $n - r + 1$.

The last factor of the numerator will be $n - r + 2$.

The last factor of the denominator will be $r - 1$.

$$r\text{th term} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r+2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (r-1)} a^{n-r+1} x^{r-1}$$

GEOMETRICAL PROBLEMS.

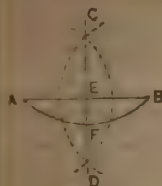


FIG. 1.

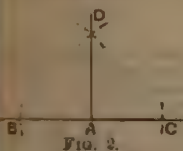


FIG. 2.

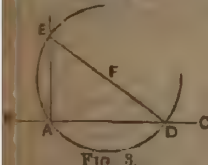


FIG. 3.



FIG. 4.

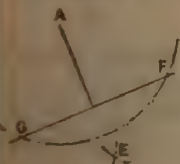


FIG. 5.

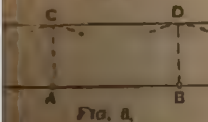


FIG. 6.

1. To bisect a straight line, or an arc of a circle (Fig. 1).—From the ends A, B as centres, describe arcs intersecting at C and D , and draw a line through C and D which will bisect the line at E , or the arc at F .

2. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line, or a radial line to a circular arc.—Same as in Problem 1. CD is perpendicular to the line AB , and also radial to the arc.

3. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line from a given point in that line (Fig. 2).—With any radius, from the given point A in the line BC , cut the line at B and C . With a longer radius describe arcs from B and C , cutting each other at D , and draw the perpendicular DA .

4. From the end of a given line AD to erect a perpendicular AE (Fig. 3).—From any centre F , above AD , describe a circle passing through the given point A , and cutting the given line at D . Draw DF and produce it to cut the circle at E , and draw the perpendicular AE .

Second Method (Fig. 4).—From the given point A set off a distance AE equal to three parts, by any scale; and on the centres A and E , with radii of four and five parts respectively, describe arcs intersecting at C . Draw the perpendicular AC .

NOTE.—This method is most useful on very large scales, where straight edges are inapplicable. Any multiples of the numbers 3, 4, 5 may be taken with the same effect as 6, 8, 10, or 9, 12, 15.

5. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line from any point without it (Fig. 5).—From the point A , with a sufficient radius cut the given line at F and G , and from these points describe arcs cutting at E . Draw the perpendicular AE .

6. To draw a straight line parallel to a given line, at a given distance apart (Fig. 6).—From the centres A, B on the given line, with the given distance as radius, describe arcs C, D , and draw the parallel lines CD touching the arcs.

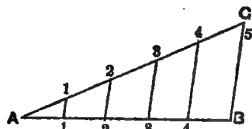


FIG. 7.

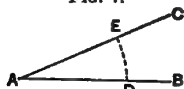


FIG. 8.

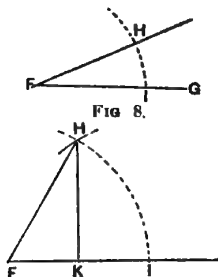


FIG. 9.

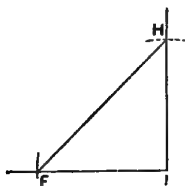


FIG. 10.

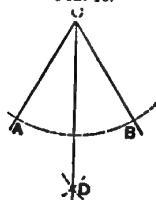


FIG. 11.



7. To divide a straight line into a number of equal parts. (Fig. 7).—To divide the line AB into five parts, draw the line AC at an angle from A ; set off five parts; draw $B5$ and draw parallels from the other points of AC . These parallels divide AB into five equal parts.

NOTE.—By a similar process any line may be divided into a number of equal parts; setting off divisions, and drawing cutting AB . The triangles ABC , etc., are similar triangles.

8. Upon a straight line to draw an angle equal to a given angle. (Fig. 8).—Let ABC be the given angle and FG the line. From F with any radius describe the arc DE . From F with the same radius describe IH . Set off IH equal to DE , and draw FI . Angle F is equal to A , as required.

9. To draw angles of 45° and 30°. (Fig. 9).—From any point F with any radius describe an arc HI , and from I , with the same radius, describe the arc at H and draw FH . The required angle IFH is 45°. Draw the perpendicular HK to the base FI . The angle IFK is 30°.

10. To draw an angle of 45°. (Fig. 10).—Set off the distance FI , and draw the perpendicular HI . Join HF to form the angle IFH . The angle at H is also 45°.

11. To bisect an angle. (Fig. 11).—Let ACB be the angle; as a centre draw an arc cutting the sides at A , B . From A and B as centres, describe arcs cutting each other at D . Draw CD , dividing the angle into two equal parts.

12. Through two points to describe an arc of a circle with a given radius. (Fig. 12).—From the points A and B as centres, with the given radius, describe arcs cutting at C . Draw AC and BC . With C as centre and CA as radius describe an arc cutting AB at E . The arc AEB is the required arc.

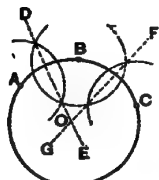


FIG. 13.

13. To find the centre of a circle or of an arc of a circle (Fig. 13).—Select three points, A, B, C , in the circumference, well apart; with the same radius describe arcs from these three points, cutting each other, and draw the two lines, DE, FG , through their intersections. The point O , where they cut, is the centre of the circle or arc.

To describe a circle passing through three given points.

—Let A, B, C be the given points, and proceed as in last problem to find the centre O , from which the circle may be described.

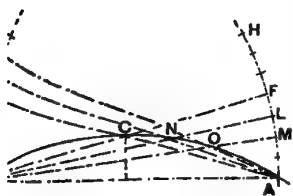


FIG. 14.

14. To describe an arc of a circle passing through three given points when the centre is not available (Fig. 14).—From the extreme points A, B , as centres, describe arcs AH, BG . Through the third point C draw AE, BF , cutting the arcs.

Divide AE and BF into any number of equal parts, and set off a series of equal parts of the same length on the upper portions of the arcs beyond the points E, F . Draw straight lines, BL, BM , etc., to the divisions in AE and BF , etc., to the divisions in AE , etc., to the divisions in BF . The successive intersections N, O , etc., of these lines are points in the circle required between the given points A and C , which may be drawn in; similarly the remaining part of the curve BC may be described. (See also Problem 54.)

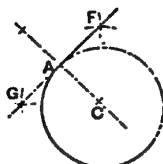


FIG. 15.

15. To draw a tangent to a circle from a given point in the circumference (Fig. 15).

—Through the given point A , draw the radial line AC , and a perpendicular to it, FG , which is the tangent required.

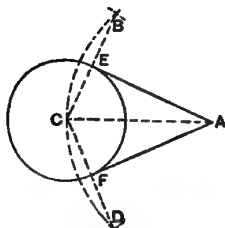


FIG. 16.

16. To draw tangents to a circle from a point without it (Fig. 16).—From A , with the radius AC , describe an arc BCD , and from C , with a radius equal to the diameter of the circle, cut the arc at B, D . Join BC, CD , cutting the circle at E, F , and draw AE, AF , the tangents.

NOTE.—When a tangent is already drawn, the exact point of contact may be found by drawing a perpendicular to it from the centre.

Between two inclined lines to draw a series of circles touching these lines and touching each other (Fig. 17).—The inclination of the given lines AB, CD , by the line NO . From O in this line draw the perpendicular PO to the line AB , as

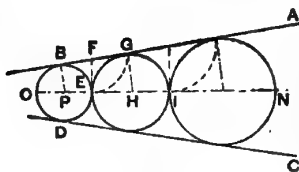


FIG. 17.

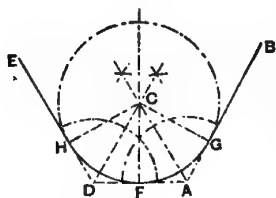


FIG. 18.

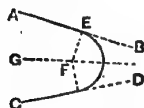


FIG. 19.

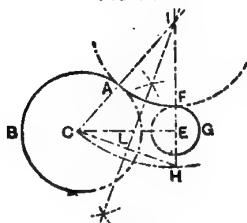


FIG. 20.

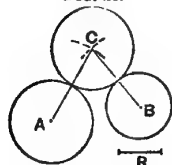


FIG. 21.

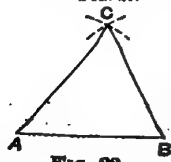


FIG. 22.

on P describe the circle BD , to the lines and cutting the cent at E . From E draw EF perpendicular to the centre line, cutting AB and from F describe an arc cutting AB at G . Draw GH parallel BP , giving H , the centre of the circle, to be described with the HE , and so on for the next circle. Inversely, the largest circle is described first, and the smallest in succession. This problem is of great use in scroll work.

18. Between two inc lines to draw a circular ment tangent to the line passing through a poi on the line FC which b the angle of the lines k —Through F draw DA at right to FC ; bisect the angles A and C in Problem 11, by lines cutting and from C with radius CF arc HFG required.

19. To draw a circle that will be tangent to given lines AB and C joined to one another, tangential point E —Draw the line GF . From E draw EF at angles AB ; then F is the of the circle required.

20. To describe a circle joining two circles touching one of them given point (Fig. 20).—To join circles A, B, F, G , by an arc to one of them at F , draw the radius and produce it both ways. Set r equal to the radius AC of the circle; join CH and bisect it with perpendicular LI , cutting EF . On the centre I , with radius I scribe the arc FA as required.

21. To draw a circle with given radius R that will be tangent to two given circles A and B (Fig. 21).—From the centre of circle A with radius equal to R and from centre of circle B with radius equal to $R + \text{radius of } B$ two arcs cutting each other in C will be the centre of the circle required.

22. To construct an isosceles triangle, the being given (Fig. 22).—On the line AB , with A, B as centres describe arcs cutting at C , AC, CB .

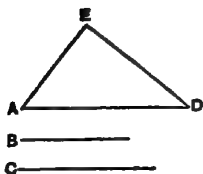


FIG. 23.

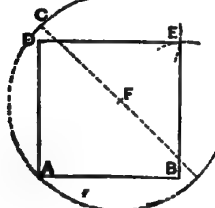


FIG. 24.



FIG. 25.

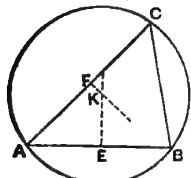


FIG. 26.

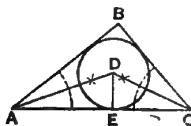


FIG. 27.

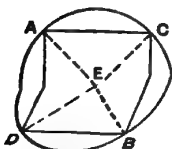


FIG. 28.

23. To construct a triangle of unequal sides (Fig. 23).—On either end of the base AD , with the side B as radius, describe an arc; and with the side C as radius, on the other end of the base as a centre, cut the arc at E . Join AE , DE .

24. To construct a square on a given straight line AB (Fig. 24).—At A erect a perpendicular AC , as in Problem 4. Lay off AD equal to AB ; from D and B as centres with radius equal AB , describe arcs cutting each other in E . Join DE and BE .

25. To construct a rectangle with given base EF and height EH (Fig. 25).—On the base EF draw the perpendiculars EH , FG equal to the height, and join GH .

26. To describe a circle about a triangle (Fig. 26).—Bisect two sides AB , AC of the triangle at E , F , and from these points draw perpendiculars cutting at K . On the centre K , with the radius KA , draw the circle ABC .

27. To inscribe a circle in a triangle (Fig. 27).—Bisect two of the angles A , C , of the triangle by lines cutting at D ; from D draw a perpendicular DE to any side, and with DE as radius describe a circle.

When the triangle is equilateral, draw a perpendicular from one of the angles to the opposite side, and from the side set off one third of the perpendicular.

28. To describe a circle about a square, and to inscribe a square in a circle (Fig. 28).—To describe the circle, draw the diagonals AB , CD of the square, cutting at E . On the centre E , with the radius AE , describe the circle.

To inscribe the square.—Draw the two diameters, AB , CD , at right angles, and join the points A , E , C , D , to form the square.

NOTE.—In the same way a circle may be described about a rectangle.

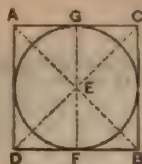


FIG. 29.

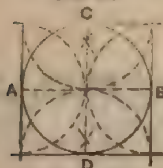


FIG. 30.

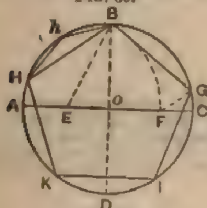


FIG. 31.



FIG. 32.

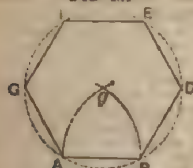


FIG. 33.

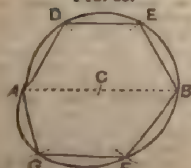


FIG. 34.

29. To inscribe a circle in a square (Fig. 29).—To inscribe the circle, draw the diagonals AB , CD of the square, cutting at E ; draw the perpendicular EF to one side, and with the radius EF describe the circle.

30. To describe a square about a circle (Fig. 30).—Draw two diameters AC , BD at right angles. With the radius of the circle and A , B , C and D as centres, draw the four half circles which cross one another in the corners of the square.

31. To inscribe a pentagon in a circle (Fig. 31).—Draw diameters AC , BD at right angles, cutting at O . Bisect AO at E , and from E , with radius EB , cut AC at F ; from B , with radius BF , cut the circumference at G , H , and with the same radius step round the circle to I and K ; join the points so found to form the pentagon.

32. To construct a pentagon on a given line AB (Fig. 32).—From B erect a perpendicular BC half the length of AB ; join AC and prolong it to D , making $CD = BC$. Then BD is the radius of the circle circumscribing the pentagon. From A and B as centres with BD as radius, draw arcs cutting each other in O , which is the centre of the circle.

33. To construct a hexagon upon a given straight line (Fig. 33).—From A and B , the ends of the given line, with radius AB , describe arcs cutting at C ; from C , with the radius CA , describe a circle; with the same radius set off the arcs AG , GF , and BD , DE . Join the points so found to form the hexagon. The side of a hexagon = radius of its circumscribed circle.

34. To inscribe a hexagon in a circle (Fig. 34).—Draw a diameter ACB . From A and B as centres, with the radius of the circle AC , cut the circumference at D , E , F , G , and draw AD , DE , etc., to form the hexagon. The radius of the circle is equal to the side of the hexagon; therefore the points D , E , etc., may also be found by stepping the radius six times round the circle. The angle between the diameter and the sides of a hexagon and also the exterior angle between a side and an adjacent side prolonged is 60 degrees; therefore the hexagon may conveniently be drawn by the use of a 60-degree triangle.

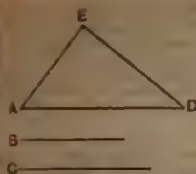


FIG. 23.

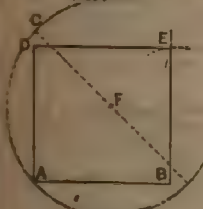


FIG. 24.

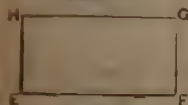


FIG. 25.

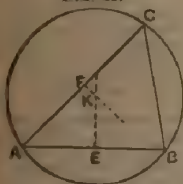


FIG. 26.

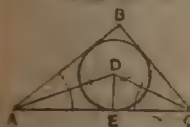


FIG. 27.

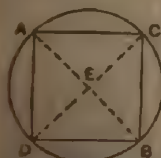


FIG. 28.

23. To construct a triangle of unequal sides (Fig. 23).—On either end of the base AD , with the side B as radius, describe an arc; and with the side C as radius, on the other end of the base as a centre, cut the arc at E . Join AE, DE .

24. To construct a square on a given straight line AB (Fig. 24).—At A erect a perpendicular AC , as in Problem 4. Lay off AC equal to AB ; from A and C as centres with radius equal AB , describe arcs cutting each other in E . Join DE and BE .

25. To construct a rectangle with given base EF and height EH (Fig. 25).—On the base EF draw the perpendiculars EH, FG equal to the height, and join GH .

26. To describe a circle about a triangle (Fig. 26).—Bisect two sides AB, AC of the triangle at E, F , and from these points draw perpendiculars cutting at K . On the centre K , with the radius KA , draw the circle ABC .

27. To inscribe a circle in a triangle (Fig. 27).—Bisect two of the angles A, C , of the triangle by lines cutting at D ; from D draw a perpendicular DE to any side, and with DE as radius describe a circle.

When the triangle is equilateral, draw a perpendicular from one of the angles to the opposite side, and from the side set off one third of the perpendicular.

28. To describe a circle about a square, and to inscribe a square in a circle (Fig. 28).—To describe the circle, draw the diagonals AB, CD of the square, cutting at E . On the centre E , with the radius EA , describe the circle.

To inscribe the square.—Draw the two diameters AC, BD , at right angles, and join the points A, B, C, D , to form the square.

NOTE.—In the same way a circle may be described about a rectangle.

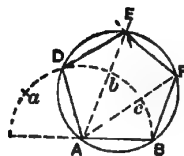


FIG. 40.

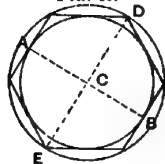


FIG. 41.

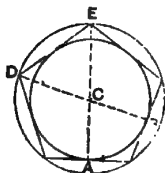


FIG. 42.

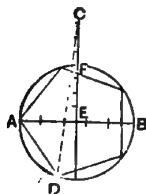


FIG. 43.

with the radius AB , describe a semi-circle; divide the semi-circumference into as many equal parts as there are to be sides in the polygon—say, in this example, five sides. Draw lines from A through the divisional points D, E , and C , omitting one point a ; and on the centres B, D , with the radius AB , cut Ab at E and Ac at F . Draw DE, EF, FB to complete the polygon.

41. To inscribe a circle within a polygon (Figs. 41, 42).—When the polygon has an even number of sides (Fig. 41), bisect two opposite sides at A and B ; draw AB , and bisect it at C by a diagonal DE , and with the radius CA describe the circle.

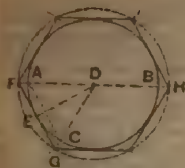
When the number of sides is odd (Fig. 42), bisect two of the sides at A and B , and draw lines AE, BD to the opposite angles, intersecting at C ; from C , with the radius CA , describe the circle.

42. To describe a circle without a polygon (Figs. 41, 42).—Find the centre C as before, and with the radius CD describe the circle.

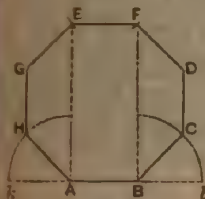
43. To inscribe a polygon of any number of sides within a circle (Fig. 43).—Draw the diameter AB and through the centre E draw the perpendicular EC , cutting the circle at F . Divide EF into four equal parts, and set off three parts equal to those from F to C . Divide the diameter AB into as many equal parts as the polygon is to have sides; and from C draw CD , through the second point of division, cutting the circle at D . Then AD is equal to one side of the polygon, and by stepping round the circumference with the length AD the polygon may be completed.

TABLE OF POLYGONAL ANGLES.

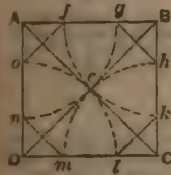
Number of Sides.	Angle at Centre.	Number of Sides.	Angle at Centre.	Number of Sides.	Angle at Centre.
No.	Degrees.	No.	Degrees.	No.	Degrees.
3	120	9	40	15	24
4	90	10	36	16	22½
5	72	11	32½	17	21½
6	60	12	30	18	20
7	51½	13	27½	19	19
8	45	14	25½	20	18



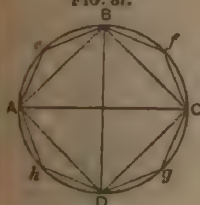
35. To describe a hexagon about a circle (Fig. 35).—Draw a diameter AD and with the radius AD , on the centre A , cut the circumference at C ; join AC , and bisect it with the radius DE ; through E draw $F'G$, parallel to AC , cutting the diameter at F , and with the radius DE describe the circumscribing circle $F'H$. Within this circle describe a hexagon by the preceding problem. A more convenient method is by use of a 60-degree triangle. Four of the sides make angles of 60 degrees with the diameter, and the other two are parallel to the diameter.



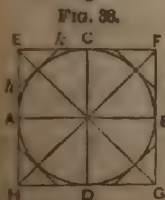
36. To describe an octagon on a given straight line (fig. 36).—Produce the given line $A B$ both ways, and draw perpendiculars $A E$, $B F$; bisect the external angles A and B by the lines $A H$, $B C$, which make equal to $A B$. Draw $C D$ and $H G$ parallel to $A E$, and equal to $A B$; from the centres G , D , with the radius $A B$, cut the perpendiculars at E , F , and draw $E F$ to complete the octagon.



37. To convert a square into an octagon (Fig. 37).—Draw the diagonals of the square cutting at *e*; from the corners *A, B, C, D*, with *Ae* as radius, describe arcs cutting the sides at *gn, fh, hm, ol*, and join the points so found to form the octagon. Adjacent sides of an octagon make an angle of 135 degrees.



38. To inscribe an octagon in a circle (Fig. 38).—Draw two diameters, $A C, B D$ at right angles; bisect the arcs $A B, B C$, etc., at e, f , etc., and join $A e, e B$, etc., to form the octagon.



39. To describe an octagon about a circle. Fig. 30b.—Describe a square about the given circle AB ; draw perpendiculars h, k , etc., to the diagonals, touching the circle to form the octagon.

To describe a polygon of any number of sides, say

Ints 1, 2, 3, etc. With the radius AI on F and F' as centres, describe arcs, and with the radius BI on the same centres cut these arcs as above.

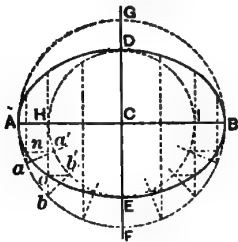


FIG. 48.

Repeat the operation for the other divisions of the transverse axis. The series of intersections thus made are points in the curve, through which the curve may be traced.

5th Method (Fig. 48).—On the two axes $A B$, $D E$ as diameters, on centre C , describe circles; from a number of points a, b , etc., in the circumference $A B$, draw radii cutting the inner circle at a', b' , etc. From a, b , etc., draw perpendiculars to $A B$; and from a', b' , etc., draw parallels to $A B$, cutting the respective perpendiculars at n, o , etc. The intersections are points in the curve, through which the curve may be traced.

6th Method (Fig. 49).—When the transverse and conjugate diameters are given, $A B, C D$, draw the tangent $E F$ parallel to $A H$. Produce $C D$, and on the centre G with the radius $H D K$; from the centre G draw any number of straight lines to the points E, r , etc. In the line $E F$, cutting the circumference at l, m, n , etc.; from the centre O of the ellipse draw straight lines to the points E, r , etc.; and from the points l, m, n , etc. draw straight lines to O , cutting the lines $O E, O r$, etc., at L, M, N , etc. These are points in the circumference of the ellipse, and the curve may be traced through them. Points in the other half of the ellipse are formed by extending the intersecting lines as indicated in the figure.

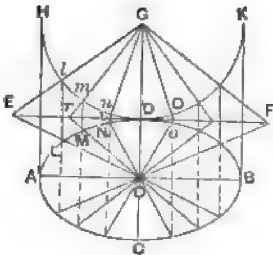


FIG 49.

45. To describe an ellipse approximately by means of circular arcs.—*First*.—With arcs of two radii (Fig. 50).—Find the difference of the semi-axes, and set it off from the centre O to a and on OA and OC ; draw $a c$, and set off half $a c$ to d ; draw $d i$ parallel to $a c$; set off $O e$ equal to $O d$; join $e i$, and draw the parallels $e m, d m$. From m , with radius $m C$, describe an arc through C ; and from i describe an arc through D ; from d and e describe arcs through A and B . The four arcs form the ellipse approximately.

NOTE.—This method does not apply satisfactorily when the conjugate axis is less than two thirds of the transverse axis.

2d Method (by Carl G. Barth, Fig. 51). - In Fig. 51 $a b$ is the major and $c d$ the minor axis of the ellipse to be approximated. Lay off $b e$ equal to the semi-minor axis $c O$, and use $a e$ as radius for the arc at each extremity of the minor axis. Bisect $c o$ at f and lay off $e g$ equal to $e f$, and use $g b$ as radius for the arc at each extremity of the major axis.

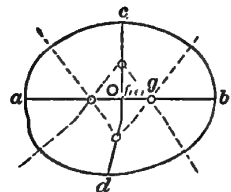


FIG. 51.

GEOMETRICAL PROPOSITIONS.

Right-angled triangle the square on the hypotenuse is equal to the squares on the other two sides.

Triangle is equilateral, it is equiangular, and *vice versa*.

Straight line from the vertex of an isosceles triangle bisects the base, at the vertex angle and is perpendicular to the base.

One side of a triangle is produced, the exterior angle is equal to the sum of the interior and opposite angles.

Two triangles are mutually equiangular, they are similar and their corresponding sides are proportional.

The sides of a polygon are produced in the same order, the sum of the exterior angles equals four right angles.

In a quadrilateral, the sum of the interior angles equals four right angles.

In a parallelogram, the opposite sides are equal; the opposite angles are equal; it is bisected by its diagonal; and its diagonals bisect each other.

Three points are not in the same straight line, a circle may be passed through them.

Two arcs are intercepted on the same circle, they are proportional to the corresponding angles at the centre.

Two arcs are similar, they are proportional to their radii.

The areas of two circles are proportional to the squares of their radii.

A radius is perpendicular to a chord, it bisects the chord and it bisects the subtended by the chord.

A straight line tangent to a circle meets it in only one point, and it is perpendicular to the radius drawn to that point.

From a point without a circle tangents are drawn to touch the circle, there are but two; they are equal, and they make equal angles with the radii to the tangent points.

Two lines are parallel chords or a tangent and parallel chord, they subtend equal arcs of a circle.

An angle at the circumference of a circle, between two chords, is subtended by the same arc as an angle at the centre, between two radii, the angle at the circumference is equal to half the angle at the centre.

A triangle is inscribed in a semicircle, it is right-angled.

An angle is formed by a tangent and chord, it is measured by one half the arc intercepted by the chord; that is, it is equal to half the angle at the centre subtended by the chord.

Two chords intersect each other in a circle, the rectangle of the segments of the one equals the rectangle of the segments of the other.

If one chord is a diameter and the other perpendicular to it, the rectangle of the segments of the diameter is equal to the square on half the chord, and the half chord is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter.

MENSURATION.

PLANE SURFACES.

Quadrilateral.—A four-sided figure.

Parallelogram.—A quadrilateral with opposite sides parallel.

Varieties.—Square: four sides equal, all angles right angles. Rectangle: opposite sides equal, all angles right angles. Rhombus: four sides equal, opposite angles equal, angles not right angles. Rhomboid: opposite sides equal, opposite angles equal, angles not right angles.

Trapezium.—A quadrilateral with unequal sides.

Trapezoid.—A quadrilateral with only one pair of opposite sides parallel.

Diagonal of a square = $\sqrt{2} \times \text{side}^2 = 1.4142 \times \text{side}$.

Diag. of a rectangle = $\sqrt{\text{sum of squares of two adjacent sides}}$.

Area of any parallelogram = base \times altitude.

Area of rhombus or rhomboid = product of two adjacent sides \times sine of angle included between them.

Area of a trapezium = half the product of the diagonal by the sine of the perpendiculars let fall on it from opposite angles.

Area of a trapezoid = product of half the sum of the two parallel sides by the perpendicular distance between them.

To find the area of any quadrilateral figure.—Divide the quadrilateral into two triangles; the sum of the areas of the triangles is the area.

Or, multiply half the product of the two diagonals by the sine of the angle at their intersection.

To find the area of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle.—From half the sum of the four sides subtract each side severally; multiply the four remainders together; the square root of the product is the area.

Triangle.—A three-sided plane figure.

Varieties.—Right-angled, having one right angle; obtuse-angled, having one obtuse angle; isosceles, having two equal angles and two equal sides; equilateral, having three equal sides and equal angles.

The sum of the three angles of every triangle = 180° .

The two acute angles of a right angled triangle are complements of each other.

Hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, the side opposite the right angle = $\sqrt{\text{sum of the squares of the other two sides}}$.

To find the area of a triangle:

Rule 1. Multiply the base by half the altitude.

Rule 2. Multiply half the product of two sides by the sine of the included angle.

Rule 3. From half the sum of the three sides subtract each side severally; multiply together the half sum and the three remainders, and extract the square root of the product.

The area of an equilateral triangle is equal to one fourth the square of one of its sides multiplied by the square root of 3, = $\frac{a^2 \sqrt{3}}{4}$, a being the side; = $a^2 \times .433013$.

Hypotenuse and one side of right-angled triangle given, to find other side.

Required side = $\sqrt{\text{hyp}^2 - \text{given side}^2}$.

If the two sides are equal, side = hyp \times 1.4142; or hyp \times .7071.

Area of a triangle given, to find base: Base = twice area \div perpendicular height.

Area of a triangle given, to find height: Height = twice area \div base.

Two sides and base given, to find perpendicular height in a triangle in which both of the angles at the base are acute.

Rule.—As the base is to the sum of the sides, so is the difference of the sides to the difference of the divisions of the base made by drawing the perpendicular. Half this difference being added to or subtracted from the base will give the two divisions thereof. As each side and its op-

1 of the base constitutes a right-angled triangle, the perpendicular is found by the rule perpendicular = $\sqrt{\text{hyp}^2 - \text{base}^2}$.

olygon. — A plane figure having three or more sides. Regular or ar, according as the sides or angles are equal or unequal. Polygons are named from the number of their sides and angles.

and the area of an irregular polygon.—Draw diagonals from the polygon into triangles, and find the sum of the areas of these triangles.

and the area of a regular polygon :

1.—Multiply the length of a side by the perpendicular distance to the centre; multiply the product by the number of sides, and divide it by 2. Or, multiply half the perimeter by the perpendicular let fall from the centre to the sides.

2.—The perpendicular from the centre is equal to half of one of the sides of the polygon multiplied by the cotangent of the angle subtended by the half

angle at the centre = 360° divided by the number of sides.

TABLE OF REGULAR POLYGONS.

Name of Polygon.	Area, Side = 1.	Radius of Circumscribed Circle,		Radius of Inscribed Circle, Side = 1.	Length of Side, Radius of Circumscribed Circle = 1.	Angle at Centre.	Angle between Adjacent Sides.
		Perpen. from Centre = 1.	Side = 1.				
Triangle	.4330127	2.	.8660254	.5	1.732	120°	60°
Square	1.	1.414	.7071	.5	1.4142	90	90
Pentagon	1.7204774	1.238	.8508	.6882	1.1756	72	108
Hexagon	2.5980762	1.155	1.	.866	1.	60	120
Heptagon	3.6389124	1.11	1.1524	1.0383	.8677	51 30'	128 47'
Octagon	4.8284271	1.083	1.8008	1.2071	.7658	45	135
Nonagon	6.1818242	1.061	1.4619	1.3737	.684	40	140
Decagon	7.6942088	1.051	1.618	1.5348	.618	36	144
Undecagon	9.3656399	1.042	1.7747	1.7078	.5634	32 43'	147 3-11
Dodecagon	11.1961534	1.037	1.9319	1.866	.5176	30	150

to find the area of a regular polygon, when the length of side only is given :

Ex.—Multiply the square of the side by the multiplier opposite to the number of the polygon in the table.

to find the area of an irregular figure (Fig. 69).—Draw

or lines across its breadth at equal spaces apart, the first and the last line each being one half space from the ends of the figure. Find the mean breadth by adding together the lengths of these lines included between the boundaries of the figure, divide by the number of the lines used; multiply this mean breadth by length. The greater the number of lines the nearer the approximation.

a figure of very irregular outline, as an indicator diagram from a high-speed engine, mean lines may be substituted for the actual lines of the figure so traced as to intersect the undulations, so that the total area spaces cut off may be compensated by that of the extra spaces in-

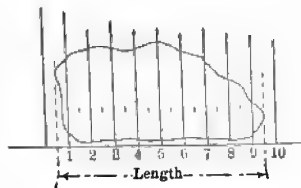


FIG. 69.

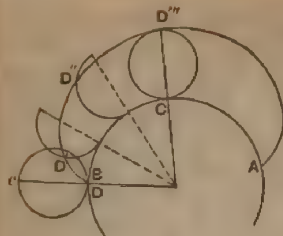


FIG. 61.

49. The Epicycloid

generated by a point D on a circle BC rolling upon the circumference of another circle A . BC is the generating circle, and A is the fundamental circle. The generating circle is shown in two positions, and the epicycloid is shown in four positions, which the generating point D occupies, respectively marked D, D', D'', D''' . A is the epicycloid.

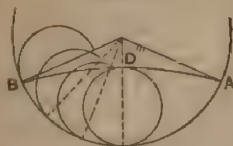


FIG. 62.

50. The Hypocycloid

is generated by a point D on a circle BC rolling upon the inner circumference of another circle A . BC is the generating circle, and A is the fundamental circle.

When the generating circle rolls on the inner circumference of the other circle, the path of the point D becomes a straight line.

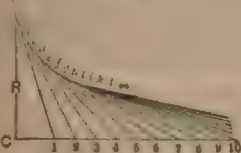


FIG. 63.

52. The Spiral.—The spiral is a curve described by a point moving along a straight line according to any given law, the line moving with a uniform angular motion. The line is called the axis, and the point is called the generating point. If the radius vector increases or decreases in equal parts described in each revolution, thus gradually increasing or decreasing the distance from each other, the curve is known as the spiral of Archimedes.

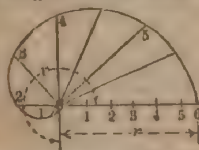
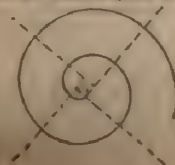


FIG. 64.

between them; set off the distances 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., corresponding to the number of revolutions, as shown in Fig. 64.

In the common spiral (Fig. 64) the pitch is uniform; that is, the distance between the turns is constant. Such a spiral is made by rolling up a belt of uniform width.

**51. The Tractrix**

(Fig. 65) — R is the radius, C is the center, A is the axis, B is the point on R a small distance from C , and a is the point on R and centre a cut the axis at a 1, and set off a like space a 2, from b with radius a 1, join b 2, and so on, until the curve is to be drawn.

This curve is common to all the curves of the tractrix. To describe the tractrix, draw a circle with center C and radius R , and draw a tangent line AB from point A on the axis to point B on the circle. The tractrix is the curve described by a point moving along the tangent line AB as the circle rolls along the axis.

To construct a spiral of four centres (Fig. 65), draw a circle with center C and radius R , and draw a tangent line AB from point A on the axis to point B on the circle. The spiral is the curve described by a point moving along the tangent line AB as the circle rolls along the axis.

To construct a spiral of four centres (Fig. 65), draw a circle with center C and radius R , and draw a tangent line AB from point A on the axis to point B on the circle. The spiral is the curve described by a point moving along the tangent line AB as the circle rolls along the axis.

find the diameter of a circle into which a certain number of rings will fit on its inside (Fig. 65).—For instance, diameter of a circle into which twelve $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch rings will fit, as

Assume that we have found the diameter of the required circle, and have drawn the rings inside of it. Join the centres of the rings by straight lines, as shown: we then obtain a regular polygon with 12 sides, each side being equal to the diameter of a given ring. We have now to find the diameter of a circle circumscribed about this polygon, and add the diameter of one ring to it; the sum will be the diameter of the circle into which the rings will fit. Through the centres A and D of two adjacent rings (draw the radii CA and CD ; since the polygon has twelve sides the angle $ACD = 30^\circ$ and $ACB = 15^\circ$. One half of the side AD is equal to AB . We now give the following proportion: The sine of the angle ACB is to AB as 1 is to the required radius. From this we get the following

AB by the sine of the angle ACB ; the quotient will be the radius of the circle circumscribed about the polygon; add to the corresponding diameter of the circle the diameter of one ring; the sum will be the required diameter FG .

Describe an arc of a circle which is too large to be drawn by a beam compass, by means of points in the arc being given.—Suppose the radius is 20 feet and it is required to find five points in an arc whose half chord is 4 feet. Draw a perpendicular at one end, thus making rectangular triangles.

Erect perpendiculars at points 1, 2, 3, and 4 feet from the perpendicular. Find values of y in the formula of the circle, by substituting for x the values 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, etc. and for R^2 the square of the radius, or 400. The values will be $y = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2} = \sqrt{400 - x^2}$.

For $x = 0$, $y = 20$. For $x = 1$, $y = 19.975$. For $x = 2$, $y = 19.90$. For $x = 3$, $y = 19.774$. For $x = 4$, $y = 19.506$.

For $x = 0.404$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 0.804$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 1.204$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 1.604$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 2.004$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 2.404$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 2.804$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 3.204$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 3.604$, $y = 19.999$. For $x = 4.004$, $y = 19.999$.

These distances on the five perpendiculars, as ordinates from the perpendicular at one end, and the positions of five points on the arc will be found.

Through these the curve may be drawn. (See also Problem 14.)

55. The Catenary is the curve assumed by a perfectly flexible cord when its ends are fastened at two points, the weight of a unit length being constant.

The equation of the catenary is

$y = \frac{a}{2} \left(e^{\frac{x}{a}} + e^{-\frac{x}{a}} \right)$, in which e is the base of the Napierian system of logarithms.

To plot the catenary.—Let O (Fig. 67) be the origin of coordinates. Assigning to a any value as 3, the equation becomes

$$y = \frac{3}{2} \left(e^{\frac{x}{3}} + e^{-\frac{x}{3}} \right).$$

lowest point of the curve.

$$x = 0; \therefore y = \frac{3}{2} \left(e^0 + e^{-0} \right) = \frac{3}{2} (1 + 1) = 3.$$

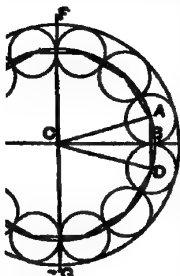


FIG. 65.

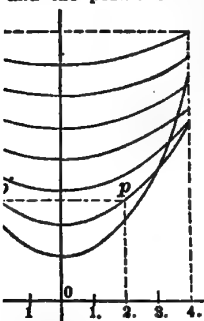


FIG. 67.

PROBLEMS.

The Circles

Method of plotting angles without using

100	100
90	90
80	80
70	70
60	60
50	50
40	40
30	30
20	20
10	10
0	0

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... off to the date of 1 by sense for each degr

GEOMETRICAL PROPOSITIONS.

On a right-angled triangle the square on the hypotenuse is equal to the squares on the other two sides.

An angle is equilateral, it is equiangular, and *vice versa*.

A right line from the vertex of an isosceles triangle bisects the base, the vertical angle and is perpendicular to the base.

One side of a triangle is produced, the exterior angle is equal to the sum of the interior and opposite angles.

Triangles are mutually equiangular, they are similar and their corresponding sides are proportional.

When the sides of a polygon are produced in the same order, the sum of the angles equals four right angles.

In a quadrilateral, the sum of the interior angles equals four right angles.

In a parallelogram, the opposite sides are equal; the opposite angles are equal; it is bisected by its diagonal; and its diagonals bisect each other.

Three points are not in the same straight line, a circle may be passed through them.

Two arcs intercepted on the same circle, they are proportional to the corresponding angles at the centre.

Circles are similar, they are proportional to their radii.

The radii of two circles are proportional to the squares of their radii.

A radius perpendicular to a chord, it bisects the chord and it bisects the arc subtended by the chord.

A right line tangent to a circle meets it in only one point, and it is perpendicular to the radius drawn to that point.

From a point without a circle tangents are drawn to touch the circle, the two are equal; they are equal, and they make equal angles with the radii to the tangent points.

Two lines are parallel chords or a tangent and parallel chord, they subtend equal arcs of a circle.

The angle at the circumference of a circle, between two chords, is subtended by the same arc as an angle at the centre, between two radii, the angle at the circumference is equal to half the angle at the centre.

An angle is inscribed in a semicircle, it is right-angled.

An angle is formed by a tangent and chord, it is measured by one half the arc intercepted by the chord; that is, it is equal to half the angle at the centre subtended by the chord.

Two chords intersect each other in a circle, the rectangle of the segments of one equals the rectangle of the segments of the other.

If one chord is a diameter and the other perpendicular to it, the rectangle of the segments of the diameter is equal to the square on half the length of the other chord.

The half diameter and the half chord is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter.

Relations of Arc, Chord, Chord of Half the Arc Versed Sine, etc.

Let R = radius, D = diameter, Arc = length of arc,

Cd = chord of the arc, ch = chord of half the arc.

V = versed sine, $D - V$ = diam. minus ver. sin.,

$$Arc = \frac{8ch - Cd}{3} \text{ (very nearly), } = \frac{\sqrt{Cd^2 + 4V^2} \times 10V^2}{15Cd^2 + 33V^2} + 2ch, \text{ near}$$

$$Arc = \frac{2ch \times 10V}{60D - 2V} + 2ch, \text{ nearly.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Chord of the arc} &= 2\sqrt{ch^2 - V^2}; = \sqrt{D^2 - (D - 2V)^2}; = 8ch - 3Arc. \\ &= 2\sqrt{R^2 - (R - V)^2}; = 2\sqrt{(D - V) \times V}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Chord of half the arc, } ch = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{Cd^2 + 4V^2}; = \sqrt{D \times V}; = \frac{3Arc + Cd}{8}.$$

$$\text{Diameter} = \frac{ch^2}{V}; = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}Cd\right)^2 + V^2}{V};$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Versed sine} &= \frac{ch^2}{D}; = \frac{1}{2}(D - \sqrt{D^2 - Cd^2}) \\ &(\text{or } \frac{1}{2}(D + \sqrt{D^2 - Cd^2}), \text{ if } V \text{ is greater than} \\ &= \sqrt{ch^2 - \frac{Cd^2}{4}}. \end{aligned}$$

Half the chord of the arc is a mean proportional between the versed sine and diameter minus versed sine:

$$\frac{1}{2}Cd = \sqrt{V \times (D - V)}.$$

Length of a Circular Arc.—Huyghens's Approxim

Let C represent the length of the chord of the arc and c the length of chord of half the arc; the length of the arc

$$L = \frac{8c - C}{3}.$$

Professor Williamson shows that when the arc subtends an angle of radius being 100,000 feet (nearly 19 miles), the error by this formula is so small that it may be neglected. Describing an arc with two inches, or $\frac{1}{600000}$ part of the radius. When the length of the arc is equal to the radius, i.e., when it subtends an angle of $57^\circ.3$, the error is less than $\frac{1}{7680}$ part of the radius. Therefore, if the radius is 100,000 feet error is less than $\frac{100000}{7680} = 13$ feet. The error increases rapidly with increase of the angle subtended.

In the measurement of an arc which is described with a short radius the error is so small that it may be neglected. Describing an arc with of 12 inches subtending an angle of 30° , the error is $\frac{1}{50000}$ of an inch. $57^\circ.3$ the error is less than $0''.0015$.

In order to measure an arc when it subtends a large angle, bisect the arc each half as before—in this case making B = length of the half the arc, and b = length of the chord of one fourth the arc; then

$$L = \frac{16b - 2B}{3}.$$

Relation of the Circle to its Equal, Inscribed, an circumscribed Squares.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Diameter of circle} &\times 848241 = \text{side of equal square.} \\ \text{Circumference of circle} &\times 268200 = \text{perimeter of equal square.} \\ \text{Area of circle} &\times 1.1284 = \text{area of equal square.} \end{aligned}$$

Diameter of circle \times	.7071	
Circumference of circle \times	.22508	} = side of inscribed square.
Area of circle \times	.90031 \div diameter	
Area of circle \times	1.2732	= area of circumscribed square.
Area of circle \times	.68602	= area of inscribed square.
Side of square \times	1.4142	= diam. of circumscribed circle.
" " " \times	4.4428	= circum. " "
" " " \times	1.1284	= diam. of equal circle.
" " " \times	3.5440	= circum. " "
Perimeter of square \times	0.86623	= " "
Square inches \times	1.2732	= circular inches.

Sectors and Segments.—To find the area of a sector of a circle.

Case 1. Multiply the arc of the sector by half its radius.

Case 2. As 360 is to the number of degrees in the arc, so is the area of the circle to the area of the sector.

Case 3. Multiply the number of degrees in the arc by the square of the radius and by .08727.

To find the area of a segment of a circle: Find the area of the sector which has the same arc, and also the area of the triangle formed by the chord of the segment and the radii of the sector.

Then take the sum of these areas, if the segment is greater than a semicircle, or take their difference if it is less.

Other Method: Area of segment = $\frac{R^2}{2} (\text{arc} - \sin A)$ in which A is the angle, R the radius, and arc the length of arc to radius 1.

To find the area of a segment of a circle when its chord and height or radius only are given. First find radius, as follows:

$$\text{radius} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\text{square of half the chord}}{\text{height}} + \text{height} \right].$$

To find the angle subtended by the arc, as follows: $\frac{\text{half chord}}{\text{radius}} = \sin$ of the angle. Take the corresponding angle from a table of sines, and use it to get the angle of the arc.

To find area of the sector of which the segment is a part;

$$\text{area of sector} = \text{area of circle} \times \frac{\text{degrees of arc}}{360}.$$

Subtract area of triangle under the segment:

$$\text{Area of triangle} = \frac{\text{chord}}{2} \times (\text{radius} - \text{height of segment}).$$

The remainder is the area of the segment.

When the chord, arc, and diameter are given, to find the area. From the arc of the arc subtract the length of the chord. Multiply the remainder by the radius or one half diameter; to the product add the chord multiplied by the height, and divide the sum by 2.

Other rule. Multiply the chord by the height and this product by .6834 the sixth of the square of the height divided by the radius.

Or the chord; From the diameter subtract the height; multiply the remainder by four times the height and extract the square root.

Or the chords of the arc and of half the arc and the versed sine are

1. To the chord of the arc add four thirds of the chord of half the arc;

2. To the sum by the versed sine and the product by .4026 approximate.

Annular Ring.—To find the area of a ring included between the circumferences of two concentric circles; Take the difference between the areas of the circles, or, subtract the square of the less radius from the square of the greater, and multiply their difference by 3.14159.

The area of the greater circle is equal to πR^2 ;

and the area of the smaller, πr^2 .

Difference, or the area of the ring is $\pi R^2 - \pi r^2$.

The Ellipse.—Area of an ellipse = product of its semi-axes \times 3.14159

$$= \text{product of its axes} \times .785398.$$

Ellipse.—Circumference (approximate) = $3.1416 \sqrt{\frac{b^2 + d^2}{2}}$. b and d are the axes.

The above gives the following as more accurate. When the longer axis is more than five times the length of the shorter axis, d .

$$\text{Circumference} = 3.1416 \sqrt{\frac{D^2 + d^2}{2} - \frac{(D - d)^2}{8.8}}$$

When D is more than 5d, the divisor 8.8 is to be replaced by the following divisors:

$$\frac{D}{d} = 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 30,$$

$$\text{Divisor} = 9, 9.2, 9.3, 9.35, 9.4, 9.5, 9.6, 9.68, 9.75, 9.8, 9.9,$$

$$\text{Reuleaux gives: Circumference} = \pi (a + b) \left(1 + \frac{n^2}{4} + \frac{n^4}{64} + \frac{n^6}{256} \right)$$

which $n = \frac{a - b}{a + b}$, a and b being the semi axes.

Area of a segment of an ellipse the base of which is parallel to the axes of the ellipse. Divide the height of the segment by the width it is part, and find the area of a circular segment, in a table of circular segments, of which the height is equal to the quotient; multiply this thus found by the product of the two axes of the ellipse.

Cycloid.—A curve generated by the rolling of a circle on a plane.

Length of a cycloidal curve = 4 × diameter of the generating circle.

Length of the base = circumference of the generating circle.

Area of a cycloid = 3 × area of generating circle.

Helix (Screw).—A line generated by the progressive rotation of a point around an axis and equidistant from its centre.

Length of a helix.—To the square of the circumference described by the generating point add the square of the distance advanced in one revolution, and take the square root of their sum multiplied by the number of revolutions of the generating point. Or,

$$\sqrt{(\pi n + h^2)n} = \text{length, } n \text{ being number of revolutions.}$$

Spirals.—Lines generated by the progressive rotation of a point around a fixed axis, with a constantly increasing distance from the axis.

A *plane spiral* is when the point rotates in one plane.

A *conical spiral* is when the point rotates around an axis at a constant distance from its centre, and advancing in the direction of the axis, as a cone.

Length of a plane spiral line.—When the distance between the turns is uniform.

Rule.—Add together the greater and less diameters; divide their sum by 2; multiply the quotient by 3.1416, and again by the number of revolutions. Or, take the mean of the length of the greater and less circumferences, multiply it by the number of revolutions. Or,

$$\text{length} = \pi n \frac{d + d'}{2}, \text{ } d \text{ and } d' \text{ being the inner and outer diameters.}$$

Length of a conical spiral line.—Add together the greater and less diameters; divide their sum by 2 and multiply the quotient by 3.1416; square the product of this circumference and the number of revolutions of the spiral and add the square of the height of its axis and take the root of the sum.

$$\text{Or, length} = \sqrt{\left(\pi n \frac{d + d'}{2}\right)^2 + h^2}.$$

SOLID BODIES.

The Prism.—To find the surface of a right prism: Multiply the area of the base by the altitude for the convex surface. To find the areas of the two ends when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a prism = area of its base × its altitude.

The pyramid.—Convex surface of a regular pyramid = $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{base} \times \text{slant height}$. To this add area of the base when the entire surface is required.

Vol. of a pyramid = area of base × one third of the height.

The surface of a frustum of a regular pyramid : Multiply half the sum by the sum of the perimeters of the two bases for the convex surface. To this add the areas of the two bases when the entire surface is required.

The volume of a frustum of a pyramid : Add together the areas of bases and a mean proportional between them, and multiply the sum by one third of the altitude. (Mean proportional between two numbers is the square root of their product.)

Ex.—A wedge is a solid bounded by five planes, viz.: a rectangular trapezoid, or two rectangles, meeting in an edge, and two triangles. The altitude is the perpendicular drawn from any point in the plane of the base.

The volume of a wedge : Add the length of the edge to twice the base, and multiply the sum by one sixth of the product of the altitude and the breadth of the base.

Angular prismoid.—A rectangular prismoid is a solid bounded by planes, of which the two bases are rectangles, having their corresponding sides parallel, and the four upright sides of the solids are trapezoids.

The volume of a rectangular prismoid : Add together the areas of bases and four times the area of a parallel section equally distant from the bases, and multiply the sum by one sixth of the altitude.

Ex.—Convex surface of a cylinder = perimeter of base \times altitude, and the areas of the two ends when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a cylinder = area of base \times altitude.

—Convex surface of a cone = circumference of base \times half the slant height. To this add the area of the base when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a cone = area of base $\times \frac{1}{3}$ altitude.

The surface of a frustum of a cone : Multiply half the sum by the sum of the circumferences of the two bases for the convex surface; to this add the areas of the two bases when the entire surface is required.

The volume of a frustum of a cone : Add together the areas of bases and a mean proportional between them, and multiply the sum by one third of the altitude.

Ex.—To find the surface of a sphere : Multiply the diameter by the circumference of a great circle; or, multiply the square of the diameter by

area of sphere = $4 \times$ area of its great circle.

" " = convex surface of its circumscribing cylinder.

Ex. of spheres are to each other as the squares of their diameters.

The volume of a sphere : Multiply the surface by one third of the diameter, or multiply the cube of the diameter by $1/6\pi$; that is, by 0.5236.

If 1π to 10 decimal places = 523.5987756.

Volume of a sphere = $2/3$ the volume of its circumscribing cylinder.

Ex. of spheres are to each other as the cubes of their diameters.

Spherical triangle.—To find the area of a spherical triangle : Compute the surface of the quadrantal triangle, or one eighth of the surface of the sphere. From the sum of the three angles subtract two right angles; the remainder by 90, and multiply the quotient by the area of the quadrantal triangle.

Spherical polygon.—To find the area of a spherical polygon : Compute the surface of the quadrantal triangle. From the sum of all the angles subtract the product of two right angles by the number of sides less two; the remainder by 90 and multiply the quotient by the area of the quadrantal triangle.

Prismoid.—The prismoid is a solid having parallel end areas, and composed of any combination of prisms, cylinders, wedges, pyramids or frustums of the same, whose bases and apices lie in the same plane.

Such as cylinders and cones are but special forms of prisms and cones, and warped surface solids may be divided into elementary forms and since frustums may also be subdivided into the elementary forms, it is sufficient to say that all prismoids may be decomposed into prisms, and pyramids. If a formula can be found which is equally applicable to all these forms, then it will apply to any combination of them, and is called

The Prismoidal Formula.

Let A = area of the base of a prism, wedge, or pyramid;
 A_1, A_2, A_m = the two end and the middle areas of a prismoid, or of its elementary solids;

h = altitude of the prismoid or elementary solid;
 V = its volume;

$$V = \frac{h}{6}(A_1 + 4A_m + A_2).$$

For a prism A_1, A_m and A_2 are equal, $= A$; $V = \frac{h}{6} \times 6A = hA$.

For a wedge with parallel ends, $A_2 = 0, A_m = \frac{1}{2}A_1$; $V = \frac{h}{6}(A_1 + 2A_m)$.

For a cone or pyramid, $A_2 = 0, A_m = \frac{1}{4}A_1$; $V = \frac{h}{6}(A_1 + A_2) = \frac{hA}{6}$.

The prismoidal formula is a rigid formula for all prismoids. The approximation involved in its use is in the assumption that the solid may be generated by a right line moving over the boundaries of the areas.

The area of the middle section is never the mean of the two end areas, the prismoid contains any pyramids or cones among its elements. When the three sections are similar in form the *diagonals* of the area are always the means of the corresponding end dimensions, which often enables the dimensions, and hence the area of the middle section, to be computed from the end areas.

Polyedrons.—A polyedron is a solid bounded by plane polygonal regions. A *regular polyedron* is one whose sides are all equal regular polygons.

To find the surface of a regular polyedron.—Multiply the area of the faces by the number of faces; or, multiply the square of an edge by the surface of a similar solid whose edge is unity.

A TABLE OF THE REGULAR POLYEDRONS WHOSE EDGES ARE 1

Names.	No. of Faces.	Surface.
Tetrahedron	4	1.7320508
Hexahedron	6	6.0000000
Octahedron	8	3.4641016
Dodecahedron	12	20.635288
Icosahedron	20	8.6602540

To find the volume of a regular polyedron.—Multiply the surface by one third of the perpendicular let fall from the centre on the faces; or, multiply the cube of one of the edges by the surface of a similar polyedron whose edge is unity.

Solid of revolution.—The volume of any solid of revolution is equal to the product of the area of its generating surface by the path of the centre of gravity of that surface.

The convex surface of any solid of revolution is equal to the perimeter of its generating surface by the length of path of its centre of gravity.

Cylindrical ring.—Let d = outer diameter; d' = inner diameter; t = thickness = $\frac{1}{2}(d - d')$; $\frac{1}{4}\pi t^2$ = sectional area; $\frac{1}{2}\pi(d + d')$ = mean circumference; πM = mean circumference of section; πM = mean circumference of ring; surface = $\pi t \times \pi M$; = $\frac{1}{4}\pi^2(d^2 - d'^2)$; = 9.86963 tM ; = 2.4674 tM .

volume = $\frac{1}{4}\pi t^2 M \pi$; = 2.4674113 $t^2 M$.

Spherical zone.—Surface of a spherical zone or segment of a sphere = its altitude \times the circumference of a great circle of the sphere. A *spherical circle* is one whose plane passes through the centre of the sphere. *Volume of a zone of a sphere.*—To the sum of the squares of the radii of the ends add one third of the square of the height, multiply by π and the result is the volume.

Spherical segment with one base.—Volume of a spherical segment with

the height of the segment by the area of the base, and the right by .5236 and add the two products. Or, from three times of the sphere subtract twice the height of the segment; multiply by the square of the height and by .5236. Or, to three of the radius of the base of the segment add the square of it multiply the sum by the height and by .5236.

or ellipsoid.—When the revolution of the spheroid is about a diameter it is *prolate*, and when about the conjugate it is

oblate.—**Surface of a segment of a spheroid.**—Square the diameters of the segment, take the square root of half their sum; then, as the diameter of the segment is cut is to this root so is the height of the segment to the proportionate height of the segment to the mean diameter. Multiply the product of the other diameter and 3.1416 by the proportionate

height of a frustum or zone of a spheroid.—Proceed as by the surface of a segment, and obtain the proportionate frustum. Multiply the product of the diameter parallel to the base and 3.1416 by the proportionate height of the frustum. The surface of a spheroid is equal to the product of the square of the revolving axis and by .5236. The volume of a spheroid is two thirds of the circumscribing cylinder.

Surface of a segment of a spheroid.—1. When the base is parallel to the revolving axis, multiply the difference between three times the fixed axis height of the segment, by the square of the height and by the product by the square of the revolving axis, and divide by the fixed axis.

2. When the base is perpendicular to the revolving axis, multiply the difference between three times the revolving axis and twice the height of the segment by the square of the height and by .5236. Multiply the product by the length of the fixed axis, and divide by the length of the

middle frustum of a spheroid.—1. When the ends are parallel to the revolving axis: To twice the square of the fixed axis add the square of the diameter of one end; multiply the sum by the length of the frustum and by .2618.

2. When the ends are elliptical, or perpendicular to the revolving axis: Multiply the product of the transverse and conjugate diameters of the ends and add the product of the transverse and conjugate diameters of the middle of the frustum by the length of the frustum and by .2618.

Figures generated by the revolution of a plane area, when revolved about a chord perpendicular to its axis, or about its vertex. They are designated by the name of the arc or curve by which they are generated, as Circular, Elliptic, Parabolic, etc., etc.

Surface of a circular spindle, zone, or segment of it.—Rule. Multiply by the radius of the revolving arc; multiply this by the length of the arc, or distance between the centre of the spindle and centre of the revolving arc; subtract this product from the former, double the result and multiply it by 3.1416.

Surface of a circular spindle.—Multiply the central distance by half the length of the revolving segment; subtract the product from one third of the length, and multiply the remainder by 12.5664.

Volume of a frustum or zone of a circular spindle.—From the square of the radius of the whole spindle take one third of the square of half the length of the frustum, and multiply the remainder by the same half length; multiply the central distance by the revolving area which frustum; subtract this product from the former, and multiply the result by 6.2832.

Volume of a segment of a circular spindle.—Subtract the length of the segment from the half length of the spindle; double the remainder and multiply by the square of the half length; subtract the product from the volume of a middle frustum of this length; subtract the product of the volume of the whole spindle and half the remainder.

Volume of a circular spindle.—Multiply the product of the square of twice the diameter of the circle and 3.027 by its circumference, and divide this product by 10.

Volume of a parabolic conoid.—Volume of a parabolic conoid (generated by the revolution of a parabola on its axis).—Multiply the area of the base by half

The tangent of the supplement is equal to the tangent of the arc, with a contrary sign. $\text{Tang. } B P F = B M.$

The secant of the supplement is equal to the secant of the arc, with a contrary sign. $\text{Sec. } B P F = C M.$

Signs of the functions in the four quadrants.—divide a circle into four quadrants by a vertical and a horizontal line; the upper right-hand quadrant is called the first, the upper left the second, the lower left the third, and the lower right the fourth. The signs of the functions in the four quadrants are as follows:

	First quad.	Second quad.	Third quad.	Fourth
Sine and cosecant,	+	+	-	-
Cosine and secant,	+	-	-	+
Tangent and cotangent,	+	-	+	+

The values of the functions are as follows for the angles specified.

Angle	0	30	45	60	90	120	135	150	180
Sine.....	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
Cosine.....	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	-1
Tangent.....	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	∞	$-\sqrt{3}$	-1	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0
Cotangent.....	∞	$\sqrt{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	-1	$-\sqrt{3}$	∞
Secant.....	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	∞	-2	$-\sqrt{2}$	$-\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	-1
Cosecant.....	∞	2	$\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	∞
Versed sine	0	$\frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2} - 1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{2 + \sqrt{3}}{2}$	2

TRIGONOMETRICAL FORMULÆ.

The following relations are deduced from the properties of similar triangles (Radius = 1):

$$\cos A : \sin A :: 1 : \tan A, \text{ whence } \tan A = \frac{\sin A}{\cos A};$$

$$\sin A : \cos A :: 1 : \cot A, \quad \cot A = \frac{\cos A}{\sin A};$$

$$\cos A : 1 :: 1 : \sec A, \quad \sec A = \frac{1}{\cos A};$$

$$\sin A : 1 :: 1 : \csc A, \quad \csc A = \frac{1}{\sin A};$$

$$\tan A : 1 :: 1 : \cot A, \quad \tan A = \frac{1}{\cot A};$$

The sum of the square of the sine of an arc and the square of the cosine equals unity. $\sin^2 A + \cos^2 A = 1.$

Formulæ for the functions of the sum and difference of two angles:

Let the two angles be denoted by A and B , their sum $A + B = C$, and their difference $A - B$ by D .

$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B; \quad \dots$$

$$\cos (A+B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B; \dots (2)$$

$$\sin (A-B) = \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B; \dots (3)$$

$$\cos (A-B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B. \dots (4)$$

From these four formulæ by addition and subtraction we obtain

$$\sin (A+B) + \sin (A-B) = 2 \sin A \cos B; \dots (5)$$

$$\sin (A+B) - \sin (A-B) = 2 \cos A \sin B; \dots (6)$$

$$\cos (A+B) + \cos (A-B) = 2 \cos A \cos B; \dots (7)$$

$$\cos (A-B) - \cos (A+B) = 2 \sin A \sin B. \dots (8)$$

If we put $A+B=C$, and $A-B=D$, then $A = \frac{1}{2}(C+D)$ and $B = \frac{1}{2}(C-D)$ and we have

$$\sin C + \sin D = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \cos \frac{1}{2}(C-D); \dots (9)$$

$$\sin C - \sin D = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \sin \frac{1}{2}(C-D); \dots (10)$$

$$\cos C + \cos D = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \cos \frac{1}{2}(C-D); \dots (11)$$

$$\cos D - \cos C = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \sin \frac{1}{2}(C-D). \dots (12)$$

Equation (9) may be enunciated thus: The sum of the sines of any two angles is equal to twice the sine of half the sum of the angles multiplied by the cosine of half their difference. These formulæ enable us to transform a sum or difference into a product.

The sum of the sines of two angles is to their difference as the tangent of the sum of those angles is to the tangent of half their difference.

$$\frac{\sin A + \sin B}{\sin A - \sin B} = \frac{2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)} = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}. \dots (13)$$

The sum of the cosines of two angles is to their difference as the cotangent of the sum of those angles is to the tangent of half their difference.

$$\frac{\cos A + \cos B}{\cos B - \cos A} = \frac{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)} = \frac{\cot \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}. \dots (14)$$

The sum of the tangents of two angles is to their difference as the tangent of the sum of those angles is to the difference of the tangents.

$$\frac{\sin (A+B)}{\sin (A-B)} = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{\tan A - \tan B}. \dots (15)$$

$$\frac{\sin (A+B)}{\cos A \cos B} = \tan A + \tan B;$$

$$\frac{\sin (A-B)}{\cos A \cos B} = \tan A - \tan B;$$

$$\frac{\cos (A+B)}{\cos A \cos B} = 1 - \tan A \tan B;$$

$$\frac{\cos (A-B)}{\cos A \cos B} = 1 + \tan A \tan B;$$

$$\tan (A+B) = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B};$$

$$\tan (A-B) = \frac{\tan A - \tan B}{1 + \tan A \tan B};$$

$$\cot (A+B) = \frac{\cot A \cot B - 1}{\cot B + \cot A};$$

$$\cot (A-B) = \frac{\cot A \cot B + 1}{\cot B - \cot A}.$$

Solution of Plane Right-angled Triangles.

Let A and B be the two acute angles and C the right angle, and a, b, c the sides opposite these angles, respectively, then we have

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1. \sin A = \cos B = \frac{a}{c}; & 3. \tan A = \cot B = \frac{a}{b}; \\ 2. \cos A = \sin B = \frac{b}{c}; & 4. \cot A = \tan B = \frac{b}{a}. \end{array}$$

1. In any plane right-angled triangle the sine of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the opposite leg divided by the hypotenuse.

2. The cosine of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the adjacent leg divided by the hypotenuse.

3. The tangent of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the opposite leg divided by the adjacent leg.

4. The cotangent of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the adjacent leg divided by the opposite leg.

5. The square of the hypotenuse equals the sum of the squares of the other two sides.

Solution of Oblique-angled Triangles.

The following propositions are proved in works on plane trigonometry any plane triangle—

Theorem 1. The sines of the angles are proportional to the opposite sides.

Theorem 2. The sum of any two sides is to their difference as the tangent of half the sum of the opposite angles is to the tangent of half their difference.

Theorem 3. If from any angle of a triangle a perpendicular be drawn to the opposite side or base, the whole base will be to the sum of the other two sides as the difference of those two sides is to the difference of the segments of the base.

CASE I. Given two angles and a side, to find the third angle and the two sides. 1. The third angle $= 180^\circ - \text{sum of the two angles}$. 2. The sides may be found by the following proportion:

The sine of the angle opposite the given side is to the sine of the angle opposite the required side as the given side is to the required side.

CASE II. Given two sides and an angle opposite one of them, to find the third side and the remaining angles.

The side opposite the given angle is to the side opposite the required angle as the sine of the given angle is to the sine of the required angle.

The third angle is found by subtracting the sum of the other two from 180° and the third side is found as in Case I.

CASE III. Given two sides and the included angle, to find the third side and the remaining angles.

The sum of the required angles is found by subtracting the given angle from 180° . The difference of the required angles is then found by Theorem II.

Half the difference added to half the sum gives the greater angle. Half the difference subtracted from half the sum gives the less angle. The third side is then found by Theorem I.

Another method:

Given the sides a, b , and the included angle A , to find the remaining side and the remaining angles B and C .

From either of the unknown angles, as B , draw a perpendicular Be to the opposite side.

Then

$$Ae = c \cos A, \quad Be = c \sin A, \quad eC = b - Ae, \quad Be + eC = \tan C$$

Or, in other words, solve Be, Ae and BeC as right-angled triangles.

CASE IV. Given the three sides, to find the angles.

Let fall a perpendicular upon the longest side from the opposite vertex, dividing the given triangle into two right-angled triangles. The segments of the base may be found by Theorem III. There will then be two right-angled triangles, one of which will give the angle at the vertex, and one side of a right-angled triangle, to find the angle at the base.

For areas of triangles, see Mensuration.

ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY.

analytical geometry is that branch of Mathematics which has for its object the determination of the forms and magnitudes of geometrical figures by means of analysis.

Lines and abscissas.—In analytical geometry two intersecting lines YY' , XX' are used as *coördinate axes*, XX' being the axis of abscissas or axis of X , and YY' the axis of ordinates or axis of Y . A , the intersection, is called the origin of coördinates. The distance of any point P from the axis of Y measured parallel to the axis of X is called the *abscissa* of the point, as AD or CP , Fig. 71. Its distance from the axis of X , measured parallel to the axis of Y , is called the *ordinate*, as AC or PD . The abscissa and ordinate taken together are called the *coördinates* of the point P . The angle of intersection is usually taken as a right angle, in which case the axes of X and Y are called *rectangular coördinates*.

FIG. 71.

The *abscissa* of a point is designated by the letter x and the *ordinate* by y . The *equations* of a point are the equations which express the distances of the point from the axes. Thus $x = a$, $y = b$ are the equations of the point P . **Equations referred to rectangular coördinates.**—The equation of a line expresses the relation which exists between the coördinates of any point of the line.

The equation of a straight line, $y = ax \pm b$, in which a is the tangent of the angle the line makes with the axis of X , and b the distance above A in which it cuts the axis of Y .

The equation of the first degree between two variables is the equation of a straight line, as $Ay + Bx + C = 0$, which can be reduced to the form $y =$

the equation of the distance between two points:

$$D = \sqrt{(x'' - x')^2 + (y'' - y')^2},$$

in which x' , y' , x'' , y'' are the coördinates of the two points.

The equation of a line passing through a given point:

$$y - y' = a(x - x'),$$

in which x' , y' are the coördinates of the given point, a , the tangent of the angle the line makes with the axis of x , being undetermined, since any number of lines may be drawn through a given point.

The equation of a line passing through two given points:

$$y - y' = \frac{y'' - y'}{x'' - x'}(x - x').$$

The equation of a line parallel to a given line and through a given point:

$$y - y' = a(x - x').$$

The equation of an angle V included between two given lines:

$$\tan V = \frac{a' - a}{1 + a'a'}$$

in which a and a' are the tangents of the angles the lines make with the axis of abscissas.

Two lines are at right angles to each other $\tan V = \infty$, and

$$1 + a'a = 0.$$

The equation of an intersection of two lines, whose equations are

$$y = ax + b, \quad \text{and} \quad y = a'x + b',$$

$$x = -\frac{b - b'}{a - a'}, \quad \text{and} \quad y = \frac{ab' - a'b}{a - a'}.$$

Equation of a perpendicular from a given point to a given line:

$$y - y' = -\frac{1}{a}(x - x').$$

Equation of the length of the perpendicular P :

$$P = \frac{y' - ax' - b}{\sqrt{1 + a^2}}.$$

The circle.—Equation of a circle, the origin of coördinates being at the centre, and radius = R :

$$x^2 + y^2 = R^2.$$

If the origin is at the left extremity of the diameter, on the axis of X :

$$y^2 = 2Rx - x^2.$$

If the origin is at any point, and the coördinates of the centre are $x'y'$:

$$(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2 = R^2.$$

Equation of a tangent to a circle, the coördinates of the point of tangency being $x''y''$ and the origin at the centre,

$$yy'' + xx'' = R^2.$$

The ellipse.—Equation of an ellipse, referred to rectangular coördinates with axis at the centre:

$$A^2y^2 + B^2x^2 = A^2B^2,$$

in which A is half the transverse axis and B half the conjugate axis.

Equation of the ellipse when the origin is at the vertex of the transverse axis:

$$y^2 = \frac{B^2}{A^3}(2Ax - x^2).$$

The eccentricity of an ellipse is the distance from the centre to either focus, divided by the semi-transverse axis, or

$$e = \frac{\sqrt{A^2 - B^2}}{A}.$$

The parameter of an ellipse is the double ordinate passing through the foci. It is a third proportional to the transverse axis and its conjugate, or

$$2A : 2B :: 2B : \text{parameter}; \text{ or parameter} = \frac{2B^2}{A}.$$

Any ordinate of a circle circumscribing an ellipse is to the corresponding ordinate of the ellipse as the semi-transverse axis to the semi-conjugate. Any ordinate of a circle inscribed in an ellipse is to the corresponding ordinate of the ellipse as the semi-conjugate axis to the semi-transverse.

Equation of the tangent to an ellipse, origin of axes at the centre:

$$A^2yy'' + B^2xx'' = A^2B^2,$$

$y'x''$ being the coördinates of the point of tangency.

Equation of the normal, passing through the point of tangency, and perpendicular to the tangent:

$$y - y''xx \frac{A^2y''}{B^2x''}(x - x'').$$

The normal bisects the angle of the two lines drawn from the point of tangency to the foci.

The lines drawn from the foci make equal angles with the tangent.

The parabola.—Equation of the parabola referred to rectangular coördinates, the origin being at the vertex of its axis, $y^2 = 2px$, in which the parameter or double ordinate through the focus.

normal, or projection of the normal on the axis, is constant, and is the parameter.

But at any point makes equal angles with the axis and with the line from the point of tangency to the focus.

Hyperbola.—Equation of the hyperbola referred to rectangular axes with origin at the centre:

$$A^2y^2 - B^2x^2 = -A^2B^2,$$

where A is the semi-transverse axis and B the semi-conjugate axis.

When the origin is at the vertex of the transverse axis:

$$y^2 = \frac{B^2}{A^2}(2Ax - x^2).$$

Conjugate and equilateral hyperbolas.—If on the conjugate axis of a hyperbola, and a focal distance equal to $\sqrt{A^2 + B^2}$, we construct the two hyperbolas thus constructed are conjugate hyperbolas. If the transverse and conjugate axes are equal, the hyperbolas are called equilateral, in which case $y^2 - x^2 = -A^2$ when A is the transverse axis, and $x^2 - y^2 = -B^2$ when B is the transverse axis.

The parameter of the transverse axis is a third proportional to the transverse axis and its conjugate.

$$2A : 2B :: 2B : \text{parameter}.$$

A tangent to a hyperbola bisects the angle of the two lines drawn from the point of tangency to the foci.

Asymptotes of a hyperbola are the diagonals of the rectangle formed by the axes, indefinitely produced in both directions.

In the case of an equilateral hyperbola the asymptotes make equal angles with the axes, and are at right angles to each other.

The asymptotes continually approach the hyperbola, and become tangent to it at an infinite distance from the centre.

Sections.—Every equation of the second degree between two variables represents either a circle, an ellipse, a parabola or a hyperbola.

DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS.

The differential of a variable quantity is the difference between any of its consecutive values; hence it is indefinitely small. It is expressed by writing d before the quantity, as dx , which is read differential of x .

The term $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is called the differential coefficient of y regarded as a function of x .

The differential of a function is equal to its differential coefficient multiplied by the differential of the independent variable; thus, $\frac{dy}{dx} dx = dy$.

The limit of a variable quantity is that value to which it continually approaches, so as at last to differ from it by less than any assignable quantity.

The differential coefficient is the limit of the ratio of the increment of the independent variable to the increment of the function.

The differential of a constant quantity is equal to 0.

The differential of a product of a constant by a variable is equal to the constant multiplied by the differential of the variable.

$$\text{If } u = Av, \quad du = A dv.$$

In any curve whose equation is $y = f(x)$, the differential coefficient $\frac{dy}{dx} = \tan \alpha$; hence, the rate of increase of the function, or the ascent of the curve at any point, is equal to the tangent of the angle which the tangent line makes with the axis of abscissas.

All the operations of the Differential Calculus comprise but two objects:
1. To find the rate of change in a function when it passes from one value to another, consecutive with it.

2. To find the actual change in the function: The rate of change, the differential coefficient, and the actual change, the differential.

Differentials of algebraic functions.—The differential of the sum or difference of any number of functions, dependent on the same variable, is equal to the sum or difference of their differentials taken separately:

$$\text{If } u = y + z - w, \quad du = dy + dz - dw.$$

The differential of a product of two functions dependent on the same variable is equal to the sum of the products of each by the differential of the other:

$$d(uv) = v du + u dv, \quad \frac{d(uv)}{uv} = \frac{du}{u} + \frac{dv}{v}.$$

The differential of the product of any number of functions is equal to the sum of the products which arise by multiplying the differential of each function by the product of all the others:

$$d(uts) = t u dv + u s dt + u t ds.$$

The differential of a fraction equals the differential of the numerator minus the numerator multiplied by the differential of the denominator, divided by the square of the denominator:

$$d\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v du - u dv}{v^2}.$$

If the denominator is constant, $dv = 0$, and $dt = \frac{v du}{v^2} = \frac{du}{v}$.

If the numerator is constant, $du = 0$, and $dt = -\frac{u dv}{v^2}$.

The differential of the square root of a quantity is equal to the differential of the quantity divided by twice the square root of the quantity:

$$\text{or } v = \sqrt{u}, \quad dv = \frac{du}{2\sqrt{u}} = \frac{1}{2} u^{-\frac{1}{2}} du.$$

al of any power of a function is equal to the exponent multiplied raised to a power less one, multiplied by the differential, $d(u^n) = nu^{n-1}du$.

for Differentiating algebraic functions.

$dx.$	$6. d\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \frac{ydx - xdy}{y^2}.$
$dx + dy.$	$7. d(x^m) = mx^{m-1}dx.$
$dx - dy.$	$8. d(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{dx}{2\sqrt{x}}.$
$y + ydx.$	$9. d\left(x - \frac{r}{s}\right) = -\frac{r}{s}x - \frac{r}{s} - 1 dx.$

differential of the form $u = (a + bx^n)^m$:

exponent of the parenthesis into the exponent of the variable, into the coefficient of the variable, into the binomial to a power less 1, into the variable within the parenthesis or less 1, into the differential of the variable.

$$u = d(a + bx^n)^m = mnb(a + bx^n)^{m-1}x^{n-1}dx.$$

rate of change for a given value of the variable:

differential coefficient, and substitute the value of the variable in number of the equation.

x is the side of a cube and u its volume, $u = x^3$, $\frac{du}{dx} = 3x^2$.

rate of change in the volume is three times the square of the side. If the side is denoted by 1, the rate of change is 3.

The coefficient of expansion by heat of the volume of a body is linear coefficient of expansion. Thus if the side of a cube is 1, its volume expands .003 cubic inch. $1.003^3 = 1.009003001$.

differential coefficient is the differential coefficient of one or more variables under the supposition that only one of them changes its value.

partial differential is the differential of a function of two or more variables under the supposition that only one of them has changed its value.

partial differential of a function of any number of variables is equal to the differential of the function with respect to that variable.

the partial differentials are $\frac{du}{dx}, \frac{du}{dy}, \frac{du}{dz}.$

$$u = x, du = \frac{du}{dx}dx + \frac{du}{dy}dy + \frac{du}{dz}dz; = 2x dx + 3y^2 dy - dz.$$

An integral is a functional expression derived from a function by integration. It is indicated by the sign \int , which is read "integrate." Thus $\int 2x dx = x^2$; read, the integral of $2x dx$ equals x^2 .

Integration of the form $mx^{m-1}dx$ or $x^m dx$, add 1 to the exponent, and divide by the new exponent and by the differential; $\int 3x^2 dx = x^3$. (Applicable in all cases except when $x^{-1} dx$ see formula 2 page 78.)

Integral of the product of a constant by the differential of a variable is the constant multiplied by the integral of the differential:

$$\int ax^m dx = a \int x^m dx = a \frac{1}{m+1} x^{m+1}.$$

Integral of the algebraic sum of any number of differentials is equal to the sum of their integrals;

$$\int 2x^2 dx - 3y dy - x^2 dz; \int du = \frac{2}{3} x^3 - \frac{3}{2} y^2 - \frac{x^2}{2}.$$

Differential of a constant is 0, a constant connected with a variable or disappears in the differentiation; thus $d(a + x^m) = dx^m$.

Hence in integrating a differential expression we must

annex to the integral obtained a constant represented by C to compensate for the term which may have been lost in differentiation. Thus if $dy = adx$; $\int dy = a \int dx$. Integrating,

$$y = ax \pm C.$$

The constant C , which is added to the first integral, must have value as to render the functional equation true for every possible value of the variable. Hence, after having found the first integral equation and added the constant C , if we then make the value of C equal to zero, the value which the function assumes will be the value of C .

An indefinite integral is the first integral obtained before the value of the constant C is determined.

A particular integral is the integral after the value of C has been found.

A definite integral is the integral corresponding to a given value of the variable.

Integration between limits.—Having found the indefinite integral and the particular integral, the next step is to find the definite integral, and then the definite integral between given limits of the variable.

The integral of a function, taken between two limits, indicated by values of x , is equal to the difference of the definite integrals corresponding to those limits. The expression

$$\int_{x'}^{x''} dy = a \int_{x'}^{x''} dx$$

is read: Integral of the differential of y , taken between the limits x' and x'' , is equal to the least limit, or the limit corresponding to the subtractive integral, placed below.

Integrate $du = 2x^2 dx$ between the limits $x = 1$ and $x = 3$, u being 81 when $x = 0$. $\int du = \int 2x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3}x^3 + C$; $C = 81$ when $x = 0$, then

$$\int_{x=1}^{x=3} du = \frac{2}{3}(3)^3 + 81, \text{ minus } \frac{2}{3}(1)^3 + 81 = 78.$$

Integration of particular forms.

To integrate a differential of the form $du = (a + bx^n)^m x^{n-1} dx$,

1. If there is a constant factor, place it without the sign of the differential, and omit the power of the variable without the parenthesis and the differential;

2. Augment the exponent of the parenthesis by 1, and then divide the quantity, with the exponent so increased, by the exponent of the parenthesis, into the exponent of the variable within the parenthesis. The coefficient of the variable. Whence

$$\int du = \frac{(a + bx^n)^{m+1}}{(m+1)nb} = C.$$

The differential of an arc is the hypotenuse of a right-angle triangle, in which the base is dx and the perpendicular dy .

$$\text{If } z \text{ is an arc, } dz = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2} \quad z = \int \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2}.$$

Quadrature of a plane figure.

The differential of the area of a plane surface is equal to the ordinate multiplied by the differential of the abscissa,

$$ds = ydx.$$

To apply the principle enunciated in the last equation, in finding the area of any particular plane surface:

Find the value of y in terms of x , from the equation of the boundary; substitute this value in the differential equation, and then integrate between the required limits of x .

Area of the parabola.—Find the area of any portion of a parabola whose equation is

$$y^2 = 2px; \quad \text{whence } y = \sqrt{2px}.$$

oting the particular integral by s , $s = \frac{\pi}{8} xy$.

is, the area of any portion of the parabola, estimated from the vertex, is equal to $\frac{2}{3}$ of the rectangle of the abscissa and ordinate of the extreme of the curve is therefore quadrable.

Measure of surfaces of revolution.—The differential of a surface of revolution is equal to the circumference of a circle perpendicular to the axis into the differential of the arc of the meridian curve.

$$ds = 2\pi y \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2};$$

in which y is the radius of a circle of the bounding surface in a plane perpendicular to the axis of revolution, and x is the abscissa, or distance of the point from the origin of coördinate axes.

Therefore, to find the volume of any surface of revolution:

1. Find the value of y and dy from the equation of the meridian curve in terms of x and dx , then substitute these values in the differential equation, and integrate between the proper limits of x .

2. In application of this rule we may find:

The curved surface of a cylinder equals the product of the circumference of the base into the altitude.

The convex surface of a cone equals the product of the circumference of the base into half the slant height.

The surface of a sphere is equal to the area of four great circles, or equal to the curved surface of the circumscribing cylinder.

Measure of volumes of revolution.—A volume of revolution is equal to the volume generated by the revolution of a plane figure about a fixed line as the axis.

1. Denote the volume by V , $dV = \pi y^2 dx$.

2. The area of a circle described by any ordinate y is πy^2 ; hence the differential of a volume of revolution is equal to the area of a circle perpendicular to the axis into the differential of the axis.

3. The differential of a volume generated by the revolution of a plane figure about the axis of Y is $\pi x^2 dy$.

4. Find the value of V for any given volume of revolution:

1. Find the value of y^2 in terms of x from the equation of the meridian curve, and substitute this value in the differential equation, and then integrate

cient $\frac{d^2u}{dx^2}$, which is read: second differential of u divided by the square of the differential of x (or dx squared),

The third differential coefficient $\frac{d^3u}{dx^3}$ is read: third differential of u divided by dx cubed.

The differentials of the different orders are obtained by multiplying the differential coefficients by the corresponding powers of dx ; thus $\frac{d^2u}{dx^2} dx^2 =$ third differential of u .

Sign of the first differential coefficient.—If we have a curve, whose equation is $y = f(x)$, referred to rectangular coördinates, the curve will recede from the axis of X when $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is positive, and approach the axis when it is negative, when the curve lies within the first angle of the coördinate axes. For all angles and every relation of y and x the curve will recede from the axis of X when the ordinate and first differential coefficient have the same sign, and approach it when they have different signs. If the tangent of the curve becomes parallel to the axis of X at any point $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$. If the tangent becomes perpendicular to the axis of X at any point $\frac{dy}{dx} = \infty$.

Sign of the second differential coefficient.—The second differential coefficient has the same sign as the ordinate when the curve is convex toward the axis of abscissa and a contrary sign when it is concave.

Maclaurin's Theorem.—For developing into a series any function of a single variable as $u = A + Bx + Cx^2 + Dx^3 + Ex^4$, etc., in which A, B, C , etc., are independent of x :

$$u = (u)_{x=0} + \left(\frac{du}{dx}\right)_{x=0} x + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} \left(\frac{d^2u}{dx^2}\right)_{x=0} x^2 + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \left(\frac{d^3u}{dx^3}\right)_{x=0} x^3 + \text{etc.}$$

In applying the formula, omit the expressions $x = 0$, although the coefficients are always found under this hypothesis.

EXAMPLES:

$$(a+x)^m = a^m + ma^{m-1}x + \frac{m(m-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a^{m-2}x^2 + \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} a^{m-3}x^3 + \text{etc.}$$

$$\frac{1}{a+x} = \frac{1}{a} - \frac{x}{a^2} + \frac{x^2}{a^3} - \frac{x^3}{a^4} + \dots - \frac{x^n}{a^{n+1}} + \text{etc.}$$

Taylor's Theorem.—For developing into a series any function of the sum or difference of two independent variables, as $u' = f(x+y)$:

$$u' = u + \frac{du}{dx} y + \frac{d^2u}{dx^2} \frac{y^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{d^3u}{dx^3} \frac{y^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \text{etc.},$$

in which u is what u' becomes when $y = 0$, $\frac{du}{dx}$ is what $\frac{du'}{dx}$ becomes when $y = 0$, etc.

Maxima and minima.—To find the maximum or minimum value of a function of a single variable:

1. Find the first differential coefficient of the function, place it equal to 0, and determine the roots of the equation.
2. Find the second differential coefficient, and substitute each real root. In succession, for the variable in the second member of the equation. Each root which gives a negative result will correspond to a maximum value of the function, and each which gives a positive result will correspond to a minimum value.

EXAMPLE.—To find the value of x which will render the function y a maximum or minimum in the equation of the circle, $y^2 + x^2 = R^2$;

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}; \text{ making } -\frac{x}{y} = 0 \text{ gives } x = 0.$$

second differential coefficient is: $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{x^2 + y^2}{y^3}$.

= 0, $y = R$; hence $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{1}{R^2}$, which being negative, y is a maximum.

Applying the rule to practical examples we first find an expression for a function which is to be made a maximum or minimum.

Such an expression a constant quantity is found as a factor, it may be added in the operation; for the product will be a maximum or a minimum when the variable factor is a maximum or a minimum.

Value of the independent variable which renders a function a maximum or a minimum will render any power or root of that function a maximum or minimum; hence we may square both members of an equation if it contains radicals before differentiating.

By the rule we may find:

1. The maximum rectangle which can be inscribed in a triangle is one whose base is half the altitude of the triangle.

2. The maximum cylinder which can be inscribed in a cone is one whose altitude is half the altitude of the cone.

3. The surface of a cylindrical vessel of a given volume, open at the top, is a minimum when the altitude equals half the diameter.

4. The maximum cylinder inscribed in a sphere when its convex surface is a great circle is one whose radius is $\frac{r}{\sqrt{2}}$. r = radius.

5. The maximum cylinder inscribed in a sphere when the volume is a maximum is one whose radius is $\frac{2r}{\sqrt{3}}$.

6. The differential of an exponential function.

$$\text{If } u = a^x, \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$\text{then } du = da^x = a^x k dx, \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

where k is a constant dependent on a .

$$\text{Relation between } a \text{ and } k \text{ is } a^{\frac{1}{k}} = e; \text{ whence } a = e^k, \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

where $e = 2.7182818 \dots$ the base of the Napierian system of logarithms. **Arithmetical.**—The logarithms in the Napierian system are denoted by \log or hyperbolic \log , hyp. \log , or \log_e ; and in the common system by \log .

$$k = \text{Nap. } \log a, \log a = k \log e. \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Common logarithm of e , = $\log 2.7182818 \dots = .4342945 \dots$, is called the modulus of the common system, and is denoted by M . Hence, if we have the Napierian logarithm of a number we can find the common logarithm of the number by multiplying by the modulus. Reciprocally, Nap. $\log x \times 2.3025851$.

In equation (4) we make $a = 10$, we have

$$1 = k \log e, \text{ or } \frac{1}{k} = \log e = M.$$

where the modulus of the common system is equal to 1, divided by the Napierian logarithm of the common base.

In equation (2) we have

$$\frac{du}{u} = \frac{da^x}{a^x} = k dx.$$

make $a = 10$, the base of the common system, $x = \log u$, and

$$d(\log u) = dx = \frac{du}{u} \times \frac{1}{k} = \frac{du}{u} \times M.$$

The differential of a common logarithm of a quantity is equal to the differential of the quantity divided by the quantity, into the modulus. If $a = e$, the base of the Napierian system, x becomes the Napierian

rian logarithm of u , and k becomes 1 (see equation (3)); hence $M = 1$.

$$d(\text{Nap. log } u) = dx = \frac{du}{u}; \quad \frac{du}{u}.$$

That is, the differential of a Napierian logarithm of a quantity is equal differential of the quantity divided by the quantity; and in the Napierian system the modulus is 1.

Since k is the Napierian logarithm of a , $du = a^x l a \, dx$. That differential of a function of the form a^x is equal to the function, in Napierian logarithm of the base a , into the differential of the exponent.

If we have a differential in a fractional form, in which the numerator is the differential of the denominator, the integral is the Napierian log of the denominator. Integrals of fractional differentials of other forms given below:

Differential forms which have known integrals
ponential functions. ($l = \text{Nap. log.}$)

1. $\int a^x l a \, dx = a^x + C;$
2. $\int \frac{dx}{x} = \int dx x^{-1} = lx + C;$
3. $\int (xy^{x-1} dy + y^x l y \times dx) = y^x + C;$
4. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2}} = l(x + \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2}) + C;$
5. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 \pm 2ax}} = l(x \pm a + \sqrt{x^2 \pm 2ax}) + C;$
6. $\int \frac{2adx}{a^2 - x^2} = l\left(\frac{a+x}{a-x}\right) + C;$
7. $\int \frac{2adx}{x^2 - a^2} = l\left(\frac{x-a}{x+a}\right) + C;$
8. $\int \frac{2axl x}{x\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} = l\left(\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} - a}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} + a}\right) + C;$
9. $\int \frac{2adx}{x\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = l\left(\frac{a - \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}{a + \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}\right) + C;$
10. $\int \frac{x^{-2} dx}{\sqrt{x + x^{-2}}} = -l\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + a^2 x^2}}{x}\right) + C.$

Circular functions.—Let z denote an arc in the first quadrant, x its cosine, y its versed sine, and t its tangent; and the following *don* be employed to designate an arc by any one of its functions, viz.,

$\sin^{-1} y$ denotes an arc of which y is the sine
 $\cos^{-1} x$ " " " " " " x is the cosine,
 $\tan^{-1} t$ " " " " " " t is the tangent

and "arc whose sine is y ," etc.),—we have the following differential forms which have known integrals (r = radius):

$$\int \cos z \, dz = \sin z + C;$$

$$\int -\sin z \, dz = \cos z + C;$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} = \sin^{-1} y + C;$$

$$\int \frac{-dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \cos^{-1} x + C;$$

$$\int \frac{dv}{\sqrt{2v-v^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$$

$$\int \frac{dt}{1+t^2} = \tan^{-1} t + C;$$

$$\int \frac{r dy}{\sqrt{r^2-y^2}} = \sin^{-1} y + C;$$

$$\int \frac{-r dx}{\sqrt{r^2-x^2}} = \cos^{-1} x + C;$$

$$\int \sin z \, dz = \text{ver-sin} z + C;$$

$$\int \frac{dz}{\cos^2 z} = \tan z + C;$$

$$\int \frac{r dv}{\sqrt{2rv-v^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$$

$$\int \frac{r^2 dt}{r^2+t^2} = \tan^{-1} t + C;$$

$$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2-u^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$$

$$\int \frac{-du}{\sqrt{a^2-u^2}} = \cos^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$$

$$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{2au-u^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$$

$$\int \frac{adu}{a^2+u^2} = \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C.$$

The cycloid.—If a circle be rolled along a straight line, any point of the circumference, as P , will describe a curve which is called a cycloid. The circle is called the generating circle, and P the generating point.

The transcendental equation of the cycloid is

$$x = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} y - \sqrt{2ry - y^2},$$

and the differential equation is $dx = \frac{y dx}{\sqrt{2ry - y^2}}$.

The area of the cycloid is equal to three times the area of the generating circle.

The surface described by the arc of a cycloid when revolved about its base is equal to $\frac{64}{3}$ thirds of the generating circle.

The volume of the solid generated by revolving a cycloid about its base is equal to five eighths of the circumscribing cylinder.

Integral calculus.—In the integral calculus we have to return from the differential to the function from which it was derived. A number of differential expressions are given above, each of which has a known integral corresponding to it, and which being differentiated, will produce the given differential.

In all classes of functions any differential expression may be integrated when it is reduced to one of the known forms; and the operations of the integral calculus consist mainly in making such transformations of given differential expressions as shall reduce them to equivalent ones whose integrals are known.

For methods of making these transformations reference must be made to the text-books on differential and integral calculus.

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3	.00153119	18	.00139247	3	.00124696	8	.00117920	13	.00113621
4	.00152879	19	.00139047	4	.00124529	9	.00117779	14	.00113399
5	.00152639	790	.00138848	5	.00124362	850	.00117638	15	.00113177
6	.00152399	1	.00138648	6	.00124195	11	.00117497	16	.00112955
7	.00152159	2	.00138448	7	.00124028	12	.00117356	17	.00112733
8	.00151919	3	.00138248	8	.00123861	13	.00117215	18	.00112511
9	.00151679	4	.00138048	9	.00123694	14	.00117074	19	.00112289
060	.00151439	5	.00137848	780	.00123527	5	.00116933	920	.00112067
1	.00151199	6	.00137648	1	.00123360	6	.00116792	1	.00111845
2	.00150959	7	.00137448	2	.00123193	7	.00116651	2	.00111623
3	.00150719	8	.00137248	3	.00123026	8	.00116510	3	.00111401
4	.00150479	9	.00137048	4	.00122859	9	.00116369	4	.00111179
5	.00150239	790	.00136848	5	.00122692	860	.00116228	5	.00110957
6	.00149999	1	.00136648	6	.00122525	2	.00116087	6	.00110735
7	.00149759	2	.00136448	7	.00122358	3	.00115946	7	.00110513
8	.00149519	3	.00136248	8	.00122191	4	.00115805	8	.00110291
9	.00149279	4	.00136048	9	.00122024	5	.00115664	9	.00110069
070	.00149039	5	.00135848	800	.00121857	6	.00115523	980	.00110000
1	.00148799	6	.00135648	1	.00121690	7	.00115382	1	.00109778
2	.00148559	7	.00135448	2	.00121523	8	.00115241	2	.00109556
3	.00148319	8	.00135248	3	.00121356	9	.00115100	3	.00109334
4	.00148079	9	.00135048	4	.00121189	10	.00114959	4	.00109112
5	.00147839	740	.00134848	5	.00121022	870	.00114818	5	.00108890
6	.00147599	1	.00134648	6	.00120855	1	.00114677	6	.00108668
7	.00147359	2	.00134448	7	.00120688	2	.00114536	7	.00108446
8	.00147119	3	.00134248	8	.00120521	3	.00114395	8	.00108224
9	.00146879	4	.00134048	9	.00120354	4	.00114254	9	.00108002
080	.00146639	5	.00133848	810	.00120187	5	.00114113	940	.00107780
1	.00146399	6	.00133648	11	.00120020	6	.00113972	1	.00107558
2	.00146159	7	.00133448	12	.00119853	7	.00113831	2	.00107336
3	.00145919	8	.00133248	13	.00119686	8	.00113690	3	.00107114
4	.00145679	9	.00133048	14	.00119519	9	.00113549	4	.00106892
5	.00145439	750	.00132848	15	.00119352	880	.00113408	5	.00106670
6	.00145199	1	.00132648	16	.00119185	1	.00113267	6	.00106448
7	.00144959	2	.00132448	17	.00119018	2	.00113126	7	.00106226
8	.00144719	3	.00132248	18	.00118851	3	.00112985	8	.00106004
9	.00144479	4	.00132048	19	.00118684	4	.00112844	9	.00105782
090	.00144239	5	.00131848	820	.00118517	5	.00112703	950	.00105560
1	.00143999	6	.00131648	1	.00118350	6	.00112562	1	.00105338
2	.00143759	7	.00131448	2	.00118183	7	.00112421	2	.00105116
3	.00143519	8	.00131248	3	.00118016	8	.00112280	3	.00104894
4	.00143279	9	.00131048	4	.00117849	9	.00112139	4	.00104672
5	.00143039	760	.00130848	5	.00117682	890	.00111998	5	.00104450
6	.00142799	1	.00130648	6	.00117515	1	.00111857	6	.00104228
7	.00142559	2	.00130448	7	.00117348	2	.00111716	7	.00104006
8	.00142319	3	.00130248	8	.00117181	3	.00111575	8	.00103784
9	.00142079	4	.00130048	9	.00117014	4	.00111434	9	.00103562
1	.00141839	770	.00129848	1	.00116847	5	.00111293	1	.00103340
2	.00141599	7	.00129648	2	.00116680	6	.00111152	2	.00103118
3	.00141359	8	.00129448	3	.00116513	7	.00111011	3	.00102896
4	.00141119	9	.00129248	4	.00116372	8	.00110870	4	.00102674
5	.00140879	780	.00129048	5	.00116231	9	.00110729	5	.00102452
6	.00140639	1	.00128848	6	.00116090	10	.00110588	6	.00102230
7	.00140399	2	.00128648	7	.00115949	11	.00110447	7	.00102008
8	.00140159	3	.00128448	8	.00115808	12	.00110306	8	.00101786
9	.00139919	4	.00128248	9	.00115667	13	.00110165	9	.00101564
1	.00139679	5	.00128048	10	.00115526	14	.00110024	1	.00101342
2	.00139439	6	.00127848	11	.00115385	15	.00109883	2	.00101120
3	.00139199	7	.00127648	12	.00115244	16	.00109742	3	.00100898
4	.00138959	8	.00127448	13	.00115103	17	.00109601	4	.00100676
5	.00138719	9	.00127248	14	.00114962	18	.00109460	5	.00100454
6	.00138479	790	.00127048	15	.00114821	19	.00109319	6	.00100232
7	.00138239	1	.00126848	16	.00114680	1	.00109178	7	.00100010
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9	.00137759	3	.00126448	18	.00114398	3	.00108896	9	.00099566
0	.00137519	4	.00126248	19	.00114257	4	.00108755	0	.00099344
1	.00137279	5	.00126048	800	.00114116	5	.00108614	1	.00099122
2	.00137039	6	.00125848	1	.00113975	6	.00108473	2	.00098900
3	.00136799	7	.00125648	2	.00113834	7	.00108332	3	.00098678
4	.00136559	8	.00125448	3	.00113693	8	.00108191	4	.00098456
5	.00136319	9	.00125248	4	.00113552	9	.00108050	5	.00098234
6	.00136079	700	.00125048	5	.00113411	10	.00107909	6	.00098012
7	.00135839	1	.00124848	6	.00113270	11	.00107768	7	.00097790
8	.00135599	2	.00124648	7	.00113129	12	.00107627	8	.00097568
9	.00135359	3	.00124448	8	.00112988	13	.00107486	9	.00097346
0	.00135119	4	.00124248	9	.00112847	14	.00107345	0	.00097124
1	.00134879	5	.00124048	10	.00112706	15	.00107204	1	.00096902
2	.00134639	6	.00123848	11	.00112565	16	.00107063	2	.00096680
3	.00134399	7	.00123648	12	.00112424	17	.00106922	3	.00096458
4	.00134159	8	.00123448	13	.00112283	18	.00106781	4	.00096236
5	.00133919	9	.00123248	14	.00112142	19	.00106640	5	.00096014
6	.00133679	710	.00123048	15	.00111999	1	.00106499	6	.00095792
7	.00133439	1	.00122848	16	.00111858	2	.00106358	7	.00095570
8	.00133199	2	.00122648	17	.00111717	3	.00106217	8	.00095348
9	.00132959	3	.00122448	18	.00111576	4	.00106076	9	.00095126
0	.00132719	4	.00122248	19	.00111435	5	.00105935	0	.00094904
1	.00132479	5	.00122048	810	.00111294	6	.00105794	1	.00094682
2	.00132239	6	.00121848	1	.00111153	7	.00105653	2	.00094460
3	.00131999	7	.00121648	2	.00111012	8	.00105512	3	.00094238
4	.00131759	8	.00121448	3	.00110871	9	.00105371	4	.00094016
5	.00131519	9	.00121248	4	.00110730	10	.00105230	5	.00093794
6	.00131279	720	.00121048	5	.00110589	11	.00105089	6	.00093572
7	.00131039	1	.00120848	6	.00110448	12	.00104948	7	.00093350
8	.00130799	2	.00120648	7	.00110307	13	.00104807	8	.00093128
9	.00130559	3	.00120448	8	.00110166	14	.00104666	9	.00092906
0	.00130319	4	.00120248	9	.00110025	15	.00104525	0	.00092684
1	.00130079	5	.00120048	10	.00109884	16	.00104384	1	.00092462
2	.00129839	6	.00119848	11	.00109743	17	.00104243	2	.00092240
3	.00129599	7	.00119648	12	.00109602	18	.00104102	3	.00092018
4	.00129359	8	.00119448	13	.00109461	19	.00103961	4	.00091796
5	.00129119	9	.00119248	14	.00109320	1	.00103820	5	.00091574
6	.00128879	730	.00119048	15	.00109179	2	.00103679	6	.00091352
7	.00128639	1	.00118848	16	.00109038	3	.00103538	7	.00091130
8	.00128399	2	.00118648	17	.00108897	4	.00103397	8	.00090908
9	.00128159	3	.00118448	18	.00108756	5	.00103256	9	.00090686
0	.00127919	4	.00118248	19	.00108615	6	.00103115	0	.00090464
1	.00127679	5	.00118048	820	.00108474	7	.00102974	1	.00090242
2	.00127439	6	.00117848	1	.00108333	8	.00102833	2	.00090020
3	.00127199	7	.00117648</						

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1031	0.000969932	1096	0.00012409	1161	0.000811326	1226	0.00016661
2	0.000484966	7	0.0001577	2	0.000403585	7	0.00014246
3	0.000333333	8	0.000125000	3	0.000333333	8	0.000125000
4	0.000250000	9	0.000111111	4	0.000250000	9	0.000111111
5	0.000200000	1100	0.000090909	5	0.000200000	1230	0.000081301
6	0.000166667	1	0.000082655	6	0.000166667	1	0.000082655
7	0.000142857	2	0.000071429	7	0.000142857	2	0.000071429
8	0.000125000	3	0.000065116	8	0.000125000	3	0.000065116
9	0.000111111	4	0.000057692	9	0.000111111	4	0.000057692
1040	0.000961538	5	0.000049377	1170	0.000854701	5	0.000049377
1	0.000400000	6	0.000041667	1	0.000400000	6	0.000041667
2	0.000200000	7	0.000034343	2	0.000200000	7	0.000034343
3	0.000133333	8	0.000027438	3	0.000133333	8	0.000027438
4	0.000096875	9	0.000022222	4	0.000096875	9	0.000022222
5	0.000076923	1110	0.000019818	5	0.000076923	1240	0.000019818
6	0.000062500	11	0.000016667	6	0.000062500	11	0.000016667
7	0.000053763	12	0.000014286	7	0.000053763	12	0.000014286
8	0.000046296	13	0.000012308	8	0.000046296	13	0.000012308
9	0.000040476	14	0.000010714	9	0.000040476	14	0.000010714
1050	0.000952381	15	0.000009375	1180	0.000847157	15	0.000009375
1	0.000370370	16	0.000008333	1	0.000370370	16	0.000008333
2	0.000185185	17	0.000007647	2	0.000185185	17	0.000007647
3	0.000123457	18	0.000006944	3	0.000123457	18	0.000006944
4	0.000092593	19	0.000006316	4	0.000092593	19	0.000006316
5	0.000080000	1120	0.000005769	5	0.000080000	1250	0.000005769
6	0.000071429	1	0.000005208	6	0.000071429	1	0.000005208
7	0.000065116	2	0.000004762	7	0.000065116	2	0.000004762
8	0.000059876	3	0.000004348	8	0.000059876	3	0.000004348
9	0.000055556	4	0.000003968	9	0.000055556	4	0.000003968
1060	0.000943396	5	0.000003618	1190	0.000840732	5	0.000003618
1	0.000421698	6	0.000003281	1	0.000421698	6	0.000003281
2	0.000210849	7	0.000002985	2	0.000210849	7	0.000002985
3	0.000139233	8	0.000002727	3	0.000139233	8	0.000002727
4	0.000104426	9	0.000002500	4	0.000104426	9	0.000002500
5	0.000080000	1130	0.000002303	5	0.000080000	1260	0.000002303
6	0.000069444	1	0.000002128	6	0.000069444	1	0.000002128
7	0.000060606	2	0.000001975	7	0.000060606	2	0.000001975
8	0.000053763	3	0.000001837	8	0.000053763	3	0.000001837
9	0.000048148	4	0.000001714	9	0.000048148	4	0.000001714
1070	0.000934579	5	0.000001600	1200	0.000833333	5	0.000001600
1	0.000373827	6	0.000001496	1	0.000373827	6	0.000001496
2	0.000186914	7	0.000001403	2	0.000186914	7	0.000001403
3	0.000124643	8	0.000001323	3	0.000124643	8	0.000001323
4	0.000093477	9	0.000001250	4	0.000093477	9	0.000001250
5	0.000080000	1140	0.000001183	5	0.000080000	1270	0.000001183
6	0.000071429	1	0.000001125	6	0.000071429	1	0.000001125
7	0.000065116	2	0.000001071	7	0.000065116	2	0.000001071
8	0.000059876	3	0.000001020	8	0.000059876	3	0.000001020
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000969	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000969
1080	0.000925926	5	0.000000926	1210	0.000826446	5	0.000000926
1	0.000369970	6	0.000000889	1	0.000369970	6	0.000000889
2	0.000184985	7	0.000000857	2	0.000184985	7	0.000000857
3	0.000123457	8	0.000000827	3	0.000123457	8	0.000000827
4	0.000092593	9	0.000000800	4	0.000092593	9	0.000000800
5	0.000080000	1150	0.000000774	5	0.000080000	1280	0.000000774
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000750	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000750
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000727	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000727
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000706	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000706
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000686	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000686
1090	0.000917431	5	0.000000667	1220	0.000819001	5	0.000000667
1	0.000367357	6	0.000000649	1	0.000367357	6	0.000000649
2	0.000183679	7	0.000000633	2	0.000183679	7	0.000000633
3	0.000122449	8	0.000000618	3	0.000122449	8	0.000000618
4	0.000091830	9	0.000000604	4	0.000091830	9	0.000000604
5	0.000080000	1160	0.000000590	5	0.000080000	1290	0.000000590
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000577	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000577
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000565	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000565
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000554	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000554
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000544	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000544
1100	0.000909091	5	0.000000535	1230	0.000813008	5	0.000000535
1	0.000363636	6	0.000000526	1	0.000363636	6	0.000000526
2	0.000181818	7	0.000000518	2	0.000181818	7	0.000000518
3	0.000121212	8	0.000000510	3	0.000121212	8	0.000000510
4	0.000090909	9	0.000000503	4	0.000090909	9	0.000000503
5	0.000080000	1170	0.000000496	5	0.000080000	1240	0.000000496
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000490	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000490
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000484	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000484
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000478	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000478
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000473	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000473
1110	0.000900901	5	0.000000468	1250	0.000806452	5	0.000000468
1	0.000360360	6	0.000000463	1	0.000360360	6	0.000000463
2	0.000180180	7	0.000000458	2	0.000180180	7	0.000000458
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4	0.000090090	9	0.000000450	4	0.000090090	9	0.000000450
5	0.000080000	1180	0.000000446	5	0.000080000	1260	0.000000446
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000442	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000442
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000438	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000438
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000434	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000434
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000430	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000430
1120	0.000896000	5	0.000000426	1270	0.000801585	5	0.000000426
1	0.000358400	6	0.000000422	1	0.000358400	6	0.000000422
2	0.000179200	7	0.000000418	2	0.000179200	7	0.000000418
3	0.000126933	8	0.000000415	3	0.000126933	8	0.000000415
4	0.000095200	9	0.000000411	4	0.000095200	9	0.000000411
5	0.000080000	1190	0.000000408	5	0.000080000	1280	0.000000408
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000404	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000404
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000401	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000401
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000397	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000397
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000394	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000394
1130	0.000890909	5	0.000000391	1290	0.000797207	5	0.000000391
1	0.000345455	6	0.000000387	1	0.000345455	6	0.000000387
2	0.000172727	7	0.000000384	2	0.000172727	7	0.000000384
3	0.000122222	8	0.000000381	3	0.000122222	8	0.000000381
4	0.000090909	9	0.000000378	4	0.000090909	9	0.000000378
5	0.000080000	1200	0.000000375	5	0.000080000	1290	0.000000375
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000372	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000372
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000369	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000369
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000366	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000366
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000363	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000363
1140	0.000884956	5	0.000000360	1210	0.000792815	5	0.000000360
1	0.000341178	6	0.000000357	1	0.000341178	6	0.000000357
2	0.000170589	7	0.000000354	2	0.000170589	7	0.000000354
3	0.000120443	8	0.000000351	3	0.000120443	8	0.000000351
4	0.000090330	9	0.000000348	4	0.000090330	9	0.000000348
5	0.000080000	1220	0.000788585	5	0.000080000	1290	0.000000348
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000345	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000345
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000342	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000342
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000339	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000339
9	0.000055556	4	0.000000336	9	0.000055556	4	0.000000336
1150	0.000877161	5	0.000000333	1230	0.000784841	5	0.000000333
1	0.000338880	6	0.000000330	1	0.000338880	6	0.000000330
2	0.000169440	7	0.000000327	2	0.000169440	7	0.000000327
3	0.000122222	8	0.000000324	3	0.000122222	8	0.000000324
4	0.000090909	9	0.000000321	4	0.000090909	9	0.000000321
5	0.000080000	1240	0.000780901	5	0.000080000	1290	0.000000321
6	0.000071429	1	0.000000318	6	0.000071429	1	0.000000318
7	0.000065116	2	0.000000315	7	0.000065116	2	0.000000315
8	0.000059876	3	0.000000312	8	0.000059876	3	0.000000312
9	0.						

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1356	.000737468	1421	.000709730	1486	.000672948	1551	.000644745
1357	.000736920	2	.000709235	7	.00072105	2	.000644330
8	.000736477	2	.000708741	8	.000720443	2	.000643915
9	.000735935	4	.000708247	0	.000719921	4	.000643501
1360	.000735494	5	.000707754	1490	.000671141	6	.000643086
1	.000734951	6	.000707262	1	.000670631	6	.000642673
2	.000734411	7	.000706771	2	.000670121	7	.000642260
3	.000733870	8	.000706280	3	.000669612	8	.000641848
4	.000733328	9	.000705790	4	.000669102	9	.000641435
5	.000732787	1490	.000699301	5	.000668591	1500	.000641023
6	.000732246	1	.000698812	6	.000668081	1	.000640610
7	.000731705	2	.000698324	7	.000667571	2	.000640197
8	.000731164	3	.000697835	8	.000667061	3	.000639784
9	.000730623	4	.000697346	9	.000666551	4	.000639371
1370	.000730082	5	.000696856	1500	.000666041	5	.000638958
1	.000729541	6	.000696367	1	.000665531	6	.000638545
2	.000729000	7	.000695878	2	.000665021	7	.000638132
3	.000728459	8	.000695389	3	.000664511	8	.000637719
4	.000727918	9	.000694900	4	.000664001	9	.000637306
5	.000727377	1440	.000694411	5	.000663491	1510	.000636893
6	.000726836	1	.000693922	6	.000662981	1	.000636480
7	.000726295	2	.000693433	7	.000662471	2	.000636067
8	.000725754	3	.000692944	8	.000661961	3	.000635654
9	.000725213	4	.000692455	9	.000661451	4	.000635241
1380	.000724672	5	.000691966	1510	.000660941	5	.000634828
1	.000724131	6	.000691477	1	.000660431	6	.000634415
2	.000723590	7	.000690988	2	.000659921	7	.000634002
3	.000723049	8	.000690499	3	.000659411	8	.000633589
4	.000722508	9	.000689999	4	.000658901	9	.000633176
5	.000721967	1450	.000689510	5	.000658391	1520	.000632763
6	.000721426	1	.000689021	6	.000657881	1	.000632350
7	.000720885	2	.000688532	7	.000657371	2	.000631937
8	.000720344	3	.000688043	8	.000656861	3	.000631524
9	.000719803	4	.000687554	9	.000656351	4	.000631111
1390	.000719262	5	.000687065	1520	.000655841	5	.000630698
1	.000718721	6	.000686576	1	.000655331	6	.000630285
2	.000718180	7	.000686087	2	.000654821	7	.000629872
3	.000717639	8	.000685598	3	.000654311	8	.000629459
4	.000717098	9	.000685109	4	.000653801	9	.000629046
5	.000716557	1460	.000684620	5	.000653291	1530	.000628633
6	.000716016	1	.000684131	6	.000652781	1	.000628220
7	.000715475	2	.000683642	7	.000652271	2	.000627807
8	.000714934	3	.000683153	8	.000651761	3	.000627394
9	.000714393	4	.000682664	9	.000651251	4	.000626981
1400	.000713852	5	.000682175	1530	.000650741	5	.000626568
1	.000713311	6	.000681686	1	.000650231	6	.000626155
2	.000712770	7	.000681197	2	.000649721	7	.000625742
3	.000712229	8	.000680708	3	.000649211	8	.000625329
4	.000711688	9	.000680219	4	.000648701	9	.000624916
5	.000711147	1470	.000679730	5	.000648191	1540	.000624503
6	.000710606	1	.000679241	6	.000647681	1	.000624090
7	.000710065	2	.000678752	7	.000647171	2	.000623677
8	.000709524	3	.000678263	8	.000646661	3	.000623264
9	.000708983	4	.000677774	9	.000646151	4	.000622851
1410	.000708442	5	.000677285	1540	.000645641	5	.000622438
1	.000707901	6	.000676796	1	.000645131	6	.000622025
2	.000707360	7	.000676307	2	.000644621	7	.000621612
3	.000706819	8	.000675818	3	.000644111	8	.000621199
4	.000706278	9	.000675329	4	.000643601	9	.000620786
5	.000705737	1480	.000674840	5	.000643091	1550	.000620373
6	.000705196	1	.000674351	6	.000642581	1	.000619960
7	.000704655	2	.000673862	7	.000642071	2	.000619547
8	.000704114	3	.000673373	8	.000641561	3	.000619134
9	.000703573	4	.000672884	9	.000641051	4	.000618721
1420	.000703032	5	.000672395	1550	.000640541	5	.000618308
1	.000702491	6	.000671906	1	.000640031	6	.000617895
2	.000701950	7	.000671417	2	.000639521	7	.000617482
3	.000701409	8	.000670928	3	.000639011	8	.000617069
4	.000700868	9	.000670439	4	.000638501	9	.000616656
5	.000700327	1490	.000669950	5	.000637991	1560	.000616243
6	.000699786	1	.000669461	6	.000637481	1	.000615830
7	.000699245	2	.000668972	7	.000636971	2	.000615417
8	.000698704	3	.000668483	8	.000636461	3	.000615004
9	.000698163	4	.000667994	9	.000635951	4	.000614591
1430	.000697622	5	.000667505	1560	.000635441	5	.000614178
1	.000697081	6	.000667016	1	.000634931	6	.000613765
2	.000696540	7	.000666527	2	.000634421	7	.000613352
3	.000696000	8	.000666038	3	.000633911	8	.000612939
4	.000695459	9	.000665549	4	.000633401	9	.000612526
5	.000694918	1500	.000665060	5	.000632891	1570	.000612113
6	.000694377	1	.000664571	6	.000632381	1	.000611700
7	.000693836	2	.000664082	7	.000631871	2	.000611287
8	.000693295	3	.000663593	8	.000631361	3	.000610874
9	.000692754	4	.000663104	9	.000630851	4	.000610461
1440	.000692213	5	.000662615	1570	.000630341	5	.000610048
1	.000691672	6	.000662126	1	.000629831	6	.000609635
2	.000691131	7	.000661637	2	.000629321	7	.000609222
3	.000690590	8	.000661148	3	.000628811	8	.000608809
4	.000690049	9	.000660659	4	.000628301	9	.000608396
5	.000689508	1510	.000660170	5	.000627791	1580	.000607983
6	.000688967	1	.000659681	6	.000627281	1	.000607570
7	.000688426	2	.000659192	7	.000626771	2	.000607157
8	.000687885	3	.000658703	8	.000626261	3	.000606744
9	.000687344	4	.000658214	9	.000625751	4	.000606331
1450	.000686803	5	.000657725	1580	.000625241	5	.000605918
1	.000686262	6	.000657236	1	.000624731	6	.000605505
2	.000685721	7	.000656747	2	.000624221	7	.000605092
3	.000685180	8	.000656258	3	.000623711	8	.000604679
4	.000684639	9	.000655769	4	.000623201	9	.000604266
5	.000684098	1520	.000655280	5	.000622691	1590	.000603853
6	.000683557	1	.000654791	6	.000622181	1	.000603440
7	.000683016	2	.000654302	7	.000621671	2	.000603027
8	.000682475	3	.000653813	8	.000621161	3	.000602614
9	.000681934	4	.000653324	9	.000620651	4	.000602201
1460	.000681393	5	.000652835	1590	.000620141	5	.000601788
1	.000680852	6	.000652346	1	.000619631	6	.000601375
2	.000680311	7	.000651857	2	.000619121	7	.000600962
3	.000679770	8	.000651368	3	.000618611	8	.000600549
4	.000679229	9	.000650879	4	.000618101	9	.000600136
5	.000678688	1530	.000650390	5	.000617591	1600	.000599723
6	.000678147	1	.000649901	6	.000617081	1	.000599310
7	.000677606	2	.000649412	7	.000616571	2	.000598897
8	.000677065	3	.000648923	8	.000616061	3	.000598484
9	.000676524	4	.000648434	9	.000615551	4	.000598071
1470	.000675983	5	.000647945	1600	.000615041	5	.000597658
1	.000675442	6	.000647456	1	.000614531	6	.000597245
2	.000674901	7	.000646967	2	.000614021	7	.000596832
3	.000674360	8	.000646478	3	.000613511	8	.000596419
4	.000673819	9	.000645989	4	.000613001	9	.000596006
5	.000673278	1540	.000645500	5	.000612491	1610	.000595593
6	.000672737	1	.000645011	6	.000611981	1	.000595180
7	.000672196	2	.000644522	7	.000611471	2	.000594767
8	.000671655	3	.000644033	8	.000610961	3	.000594354
9	.000671114	4	.000643544	9	.000610451	4	.000593941
1480	.000670573	5	.000643055	1610	.000610041	5	.000593528
1	.000670032	6	.000642566	1	.000609531	6	.000593115
2	.000669491	7	.000642077	2	.000609021	7	.000592702
3	.000668950	8	.000641588	3	.000608511	8	.000592289
4	.000668409	9	.000641099	4	.000608001	9	.000591876
5	.000667868	1550	.000640610	5	.000607491	1620	.000591463
6	.000667327	1	.000640121	6	.000606981	1	.000591050
7	.000666786	2	.000639632	7	.000606471	2	.000590637
8	.000666245	3	.000639143	8	.000605961	3	.000590224
9	.000665704	4	.000638654	9	.000605451	4	.000589811
1490	.000665163	5	.000638165	1620	.000604941	5	.000589398
1	.000664622	6	.000637676	1	.000604431	6	.000588985
2	.000664081	7	.000637187	2	.000603921	7	.000588572
3	.000663540	8	.000636698	3	.000603411	8	.000588159
4	.000663000	9	.000636209	4	.000602901	9	.000587746
5	.000662459	1560	.000635720	5	.000602391	1630	.000587333
6	.000661918	1	.000635231	6	.000601881	1	.000586920
7	.000661377	2	.000634742	7	.000601371	2	.000586507

whose sine is y ," etc.),—we have the following differential forms and integrals (r = radius):

$$= \sin z + C;$$

$$= \cos z + C;$$

$$= \sin^{-1} y + C;$$

$$= \cos^{-1} x + C;$$

$$= \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$$

$$= \tan^{-1} t + C;$$

$$= \sin^{-1} y + C;$$

$$= \cos^{-1} x + C;$$

$$\int \sin z \, dz = \text{ver-sin } z + C;$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\cos^2 z} = \tan z + C;$$

$$\int \frac{r \, dv}{\sqrt{2rv + v^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$$

$$\int \frac{r^2 \, dt}{r^2 + t^2} = \tan^{-1} t + C;$$

$$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$$

$$\int \frac{-du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \cos^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$$

$$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{2au - u^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$$

$$\int \frac{adu}{a^2 + u^2} = \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C.$$

old.—If a circle be rolled along a straight line, any point of the circumference, as P , will describe a curve which is called a cycloid. The circle is the generating circle, and P the generating point. The differential equation of the cycloid is

$$x = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} y - \sqrt{2ry - y^2},$$

and the differential equation is $dx = \frac{y \, dy}{\sqrt{2ry - y^2}}$.

The area of the cycloid is equal to three times the area of the generating circle. The length of the arc of a cycloid when revolved about its base is three times the circumference of the generating circle. The surface of the solid generated by revolving a cycloid about its base is eight times the surface of the circumscribing cylinder.

calculus.—In the integral calculus we have to return from the integral to the function from which it was derived. A number of differential expressions are given above, each of which has a known integral corresponding to it, and which being differentiated, will produce the original function.

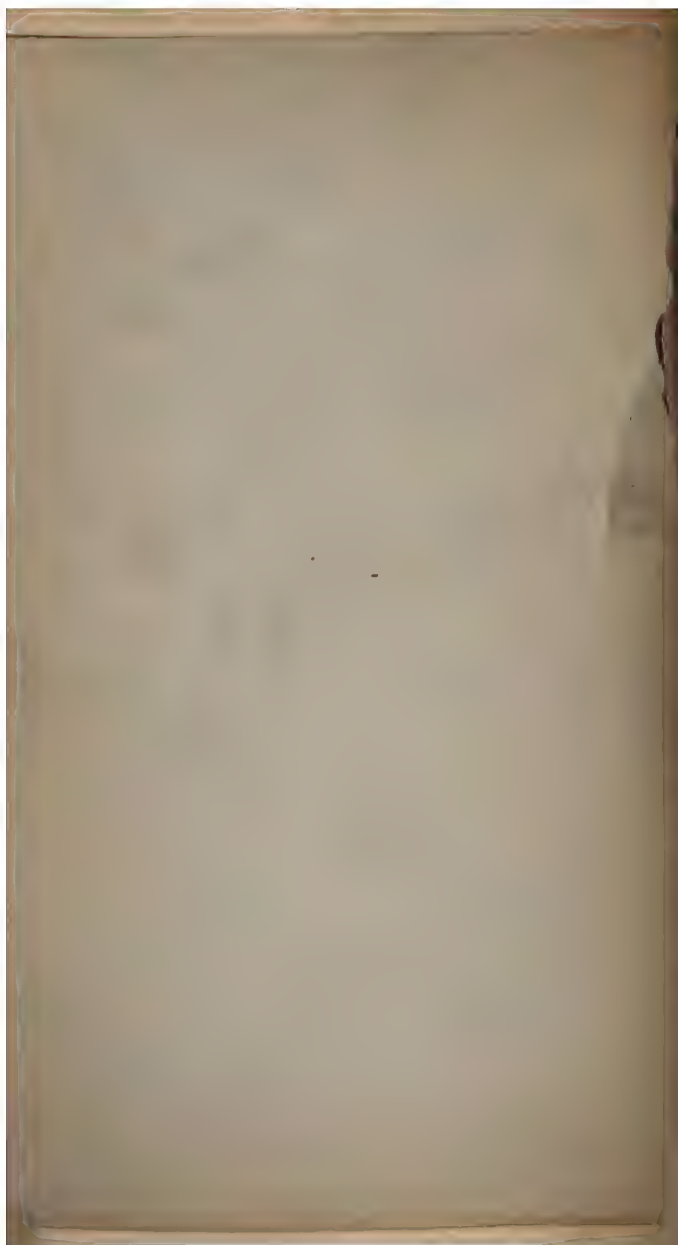
In the integral calculus any differential expression may be integrated by reducing it to one of the known forms; and the operations of the integral calculus consist mainly in making such transformations of the differential expressions as shall reduce them to equivalent ones whose integrals are known.

In making these transformations reference must be made to the principles of differential and integral calculus.

RECIPROCAL OF NUMBERS.

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1	1.0000000	61	.01562500	127	.00787402	190	.00526316	253	.00395258
2	.5000000	5	.01538461	8	.00781250	1	.00522590	4	.00392156
3	.3333333	0	.01515151	9	.00775194	2	.00518938	5	.00389165
4	.2500000	7	.01492537	130	.00780931	3	.00515485	6	.00386301
5	.2000000	8	.01470588	1	.00763759	4	.00512144	7	.00383536
6	.1666667	9	.01449275	2	.00755576	5	.00508900	8	.00380781
7	.1428571	70	.01428571	3	.00747380	6	.00505294	9	.00378036
8	.1250000	1	.01408451	4	.00739209	7	.00501714	360	.00375291
9	.1111111	2	.01388889	5	.00731071	8	.00498155	1	.00372546
10	.1000000	3	.01369863	6	.00722994	9	.00494613	2	.00369801
11	.0909091	4	.01351351	7	.00714927	200	.00491088	3	.00367056
12	.0833333	5	.01333333	8	.00706920	1	.00487588	4	.00364311
13	.0769231	6	.01315789	9	.00698923	2	.00484109	5	.00361566
14	.0714286	7	.01298701	140	.00691429	3	.00480640	6	.00358821
15	.0666667	8	.01282051	1	.00683955	4	.00477181	7	.00356076
16	.0625000	9	.01265822	2	.00676482	5	.00473732	8	.00353331
17	.0588235	80	.01250000	3	.00669011	6	.00470293	9	.00350586
18	.0555556	1	.01234568	4	.00661544	7	.00466864	270	.00347841
19	.0526316	2	.01219012	5	.00654075	8	.00463445	1	.00345096
20	.0500000	3	.01204189	6	.00646601	9	.00460036	2	.00342351
30	.0333333	4	.01189176	7	.00639127	210	.00456637	3	.00339606
2	.0476190	5	.01174371	8	.00631654	11	.00453238	4	.00336861
3	.0418182	6	.01159574	9	.00624181	12	.00449839	5	.00334116
4	.0416667	7	.01144775	150	.00616707	13	.00446440	6	.00331371
5	.0400000	8	.01130004	1	.00609232	14	.00443041	7	.00328626
6	.0384615	9	.01115236	2	.00601758	15	.00439642	8	.00325881
7	.0370370	90	.01111111	3	.00594284	16	.00436243	9	.00323136
8	.0357143	1	.01098901	4	.00586811	17	.00432844	280	.00320391
9	.0344828	2	.01086656	5	.00579337	18	.00429445	1	.00317646
30	.0333333	3	.01074393	6	.00571864	19	.00426046	2	.00314901
1	.0322580	4	.01062136	7	.00564390	220	.00422647	3	.00312156
2	.0311590	5	.01050082	8	.00556917	1	.00419248	4	.00309411
3	.0300930	6	.01037927	9	.00549443	2	.00415849	5	.00306666
4	.0291176	7	.01025772	160	.00541970	3	.00412450	6	.00303921
5	.0281423	8	.01013618	1	.00534496	4	.00409051	7	.00301176
6	.0271670	9	.01001463	2	.00527023	5	.00405652	8	.00298431
7	.0257020	100	.01000000	3	.00519549	6	.00402253	9	.00295686
8	.0246157	1	.00988039	4	.00512076	7	.00398854	300	.00292941
9	.0235294	2	.00976082	5	.00504601	8	.00395455	1	.00290196
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4	.0227511	7	.00916307	170	.00467234	3	.00378460	6	.00276471
5	.0221814	8	.00904350	1	.00459760	4	.00375061	7	.00273726
6	.0216117	9	.00892393	2	.00452287	5	.00371662	8	.00270981
7	.0210420	110	.00880436	3	.00444814	6	.00368263	9	.00268236
8	.0204723	11	.00868479	4	.00437341	7	.00364864	300	.00265491
9	.0200000	12	.00856522	5	.00429868	8	.00361465	1	.00262746
50	.0200000	13	.00844565	6	.00422395	9	.00358066	2	.00260001
1	.0196667	14	.00832608	7	.00414922	240	.00354667	3	.00257256
2	.0193333	15	.00820651	8	.00407449	1	.00351268	4	.00254511
3	.0189999	16	.00808694	9	.00400000	2	.00347869	5	.00251766
4	.0186666	17	.00796737	180	.00392526	3	.00344470	6	.00249021
5	.0183333	18	.00784780	1	.00385053	4	.00341071	7	.00246276
6	.0179999	19	.00772823	2	.00377580	5	.00337672	8	.00243531
7	.0176666	120	.00760866	3	.00370107	6	.00334273	9	.00240786
8	.0173333	1	.00748909	4	.00362634	7	.00330874	310	.00238041
9	.0169999	2	.00736952	5	.00355161	8	.00327475	1	.00235296
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		5	.00701081	8	.00332742	1	.00317278	4	.00227061
		6	.00689124	9	.00325269	2	.00313879	5	.00224316
		7	.00677167	10	.00317796	3	.00310480	6	.00221571
		8	.00665210	11	.00310323	4	.00307081	7	.00218826
		9	.00653253	12	.00302850	5	.00303682	8	.00216081
		10	.00641296	13	.00295377	6	.00300283	9	.00213336
		11	.00629339	14	.00287904	7	.00296884	10	.00210591
		12	.00617382	15	.00280431	8	.00293485	11	.00207846
		13	.00605425	16	.00272958	9	.00290086	12	.00205101
		14	.00593468	17	.00265485	10	.00286687	13	.00202356
		15	.00581511	18	.00258012	11	.00283288	14	.00199611
		16	.00569554	19	.00250539	12	.00279889	15	.00196866
		17	.00557597	20	.00243066	13	.00276490	16	.00194121
		18	.00545640	21	.00235593	14	.00273091	17	.00191376
		19	.00533683	22	.00228120	15	.00269692	18	.00188631
		20	.00521726	23	.00220647	16	.00266293	19	.00185886
		21	.00509769	24	.00213174	17	.00262894	20	.00183141
		22	.00497812	25	.00205701	18	.00259495	21	.00180396
		23	.00485855	26	.00198228	19	.00256096	22	.00177651
		24	.00473898	27	.00190755	20	.00252697	23	.00174906
		25	.00461941	28	.00183282	21	.00249298	24	.00172161
		26	.00449984	29	.00175809	22	.00245899	25	.00169416
		27	.00438027	30	.00168336	23	.00242500	26	.00166671
		28	.00426070	31	.00160863	24	.00239101	27	.00163926
		29	.00414113	32	.00153390	25	.00235702	28	.00161181
		30	.00402156	33	.00145917	26	.00232303	29	.00158436
		31	.00390199	34	.00138444	27	.00228904	30	.00155691
		32	.00378242	35	.00130971	28	.00225505	31	.00152946
		33	.00366285	36	.00123498	29	.00222106	32	.00150201
		34	.00354328	37	.00116025	30	.00218707	33	.00147456
		35	.00342371	38	.00108552	31	.00215308	34	.00144711
		36	.00330414	39	.00101079	32	.00211909	35	.00141966
		37	.00318457	40	.00093606	33	.00208510	36	.00139221
		38	.00306500	41	.00086133	34	.00205111	37	.00136476
		39	.00294543	42	.00078660	35	.00201712	38	.00133731
		40	.00282586	43	.00071187	36	.00198313	39	.00130986
		41	.00270629	44	.00063714	37	.00194914	40	.00128241
		42	.00258672	45	.00056241	38	.00191515	41	.00125496
		43	.00246715	46	.00048768	39	.00188116	42	.00122751
		44	.00234758	47	.00041295	40	.00184717	43	.00120006
		45	.00222801	48	.00033822	41	.00181318	44	.00117261
		46	.00210844	49	.00026349	42	.00177919	45	.00114516
		47	.00198887	50	.00018876	43	.00174520	46	.00111771
		48	.00186930			44	.00171121	47	.00109026
		49	.00174973			45	.00167722	48	.00106281
		50	.00163016			46	.00164323	49	.00103536
						47	.00160924	50	.00100791
						48	.00157525		
						49	.00154126		
						50	.00150727		

No.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
0456	381	0.00262467	446	0.00223215	511	0.00195495	576	0.00173011
0457	2	0.00261780	7	0.00223714	12	0.00195312	7	0.00173310
0458	3	0.00261097	8	0.00223214	13	0.00194932	8	0.00173010
0459	4	0.00260417	9	0.00222717	14	0.00194552	9	0.00172712
0460	5	0.00259740	450	0.00222222	15	0.00194175	580	0.00172414
0461	6	0.00259067	1	0.00221729	16	0.00193798	1	0.00172117
0462	7	0.00258398	2	0.00221239	17	0.00193424	2	0.00171821
0463	8	0.00257732	3	0.00220751	18	0.00193050	3	0.00171527
0464	9	0.00257069	4	0.00220261	19	0.00192678	4	0.00171234
0465	800	0.00256410	5	0.00219780	520	0.00192308	5	0.00170940
0466	1	0.00255754	6	0.00219308	1	0.00191939	6	0.00170648
0467	2	0.00255102	7	0.00218848	2	0.00191571	7	0.00170358
0468	3	0.00254453	8	0.00218391	3	0.00191205	8	0.00170068
0469	4	0.00253807	9	0.00217935	4	0.00190840	9	0.00169779
0470	5	0.00253165	460	0.00217481	5	0.00190476	590	0.00169491
0471	6	0.00252525	1	0.00217030	6	0.00190114	1	0.00169205
0472	7	0.00251889	2	0.00216580	7	0.00189753	2	0.00168919
0473	8	0.00251256	3	0.00216133	8	0.00189394	3	0.00168634
0474	9	0.00250627	4	0.00215687	9	0.00189036	4	0.00168350
0475	400	0.00250000	5	0.00215245	530	0.00188679	5	0.00168067
0476	1	0.00249377	6	0.00214802	1	0.00188324	6	0.00167785
0477	2	0.00248756	7	0.00214363	2	0.00187970	7	0.00167504
0478	3	0.00248139	8	0.00213925	3	0.00187617	8	0.00167224
0479	4	0.00247525	9	0.00213490	4	0.00187266	9	0.00166945
0480	5	0.00246914	470	0.00213056	5	0.00186916	600	0.00166667
0481	6	0.00246305	1	0.00212624	6	0.00186567	1	0.00166389
0482	7	0.00245698	2	0.00212194	7	0.00186220	2	0.00166113
0483	8	0.00245098	3	0.00211766	8	0.00185874	3	0.00165837
0484	9	0.00244500	4	0.00211340	9	0.00185528	4	0.00165563
0485	410	0.00243902	5	0.00210917	540	0.00185185	5	0.00165289
0486	11	0.00243306	6	0.00210494	1	0.00184843	6	0.00165016
0487	12	0.00242718	7	0.00210071	2	0.00184502	7	0.00164745
0488	13	0.00242131	8	0.00209655	3	0.00184162	8	0.00164474
0489	14	0.00241546	9	0.00209238	4	0.00183823	9	0.00164204
0490	15	0.00240961	480	0.00208823	5	0.00183486	610	0.00163931
0491	16	0.00240385	1	0.00208406	6	0.00183150	11	0.00163666
0492	17	0.00239808	2	0.00207990	7	0.00182815	12	0.00163400
0493	18	0.00239234	3	0.00207573	8	0.00182482	13	0.00163132
0494	19	0.00238663	4	0.00207157	9	0.00182149	14	0.00162866
0495	420	0.00238095	5	0.00206740	560	0.00181818	15	0.00162602
0496	1	0.00237530	6	0.00206324	1	0.00181488	16	0.00162338
0497	2	0.00236967	7	0.00205907	2	0.00181159	17	0.00162075
0498	3	0.00236407	8	0.00205491	3	0.00180832	18	0.00161812
0499	4	0.00235849	9	0.00205076	4	0.00180505	19	0.00161551
0500	5	0.00235294	490	0.00204662	5	0.00180180	480	0.00161290
0501	6	0.00234742	1	0.00204249	6	0.00179856	1	0.00161031
0502	7	0.00234192	2	0.00203835	7	0.00179533	2	0.00160772
0503	8	0.00233645	3	0.00203420	8	0.00179211	3	0.00160514
0504	9	0.00233090	4	0.00203007	9	0.00178891	4	0.00160256
0505	430	0.00232538	5	0.00202593	580	0.00178571	5	0.00160000
0506	1	0.00231989	6	0.00202180	1	0.00178253	6	0.00159744
0507	2	0.00231441	7	0.00201767	2	0.00177936	7	0.00159488
0508	3	0.00230894	8	0.00201354	3	0.00177620	8	0.00159236
0509	4	0.00230349	9	0.00200941	4	0.00177305	9	0.00158982
0510	5	0.00229805	500	0.00200528	5	0.00176991	620	0.00158730
0511	6	0.00229263	1	0.00200115	6	0.00176678	1	0.00158479
0512	7	0.00228723	2	0.00199703	7	0.00176367	2	0.00158228
0513	8	0.00228183	3	0.00199291	8	0.00176056	3	0.00157978
0514	9	0.00227644	4	0.00198881	9	0.00175747	4	0.00157729
0515	440	0.00227107	5	0.00198472	570	0.00175439	5	0.00157480
0516	1	0.00226572	6	0.00198063	1	0.00175131	6	0.00157231
0517	2	0.00226039	7	0.00197655	2	0.00174824	7	0.00156982
0518	3	0.00225507	8	0.00197247	3	0.00174517	8	0.00156734
0519	4	0.00224976	9	0.00196840	4	0.00174211	9	0.00156486
0520	5	0.00224446	510	0.00196433	5	0.00173905	5	0.00156239
0521	6	0.00223917	1	0.00196026	6	0.00173599	6	0.00155992
0522	7	0.00223389	2	0.00195619	7	0.00173294	7	0.00155745
0523	8	0.00222862	3	0.00195213	8	0.00172989	8	0.00155498
0524	9	0.00222336	4	0.00194807	9	0.00172684	9	0.00155251
0525	450	0.00221811	5	0.00194401	520	0.00172379	5	0.00155005
0526	1	0.00221287	6	0.00193996	1	0.00172074	6	0.00154759
0527	2	0.00220764	7	0.00193591	2	0.00171769	7	0.00154513
0528	3	0.00220242	8	0.00193186	3	0.00171464	8	0.00154267
0529	4	0.00219721	9	0.00192781	4	0.00171159	9	0.00154021
0530	5	0.00219201	460	0.00192376	5	0.00170854	5	0.00153775
0531	6	0.00218682	1	0.00191971	6	0.00170549	6	0.00153529
0532	7	0.00218164	2	0.00191566	7	0.00170244	7	0.00153283
0533	8	0.00217647	3	0.00191161	8	0.00169939	8	0.00153037
0534	9	0.00217131	4	0.00190756	9	0.00169634	9	0.00152791
0535	470	0.00216616	5	0.00190351	530	0.00169329	5	0.00152545
0536	1	0.00216101	6	0.00189946	1	0.00169024	6	0.00152299
0537	2	0.00215587	7	0.00189541	2	0.00168719	7	0.00152053
0538	3	0.00215073	8	0.00189136	3	0.00168414	8	0.00151807
0539	4	0.00214560	9	0.00188731	4	0.00168109	9	0.00151561
0540	5	0.00214047	480	0.00188326	5	0.00167804	5	0.00151315
0541	6	0.00213534	1	0.00187921	6	0.00167499	6	0.00151069
0542	7	0.00213021	2	0.00187516	7	0.00167194	7	0.00150823
0543	8	0.00212508	3	0.00187111	8	0.00166889	8	0.00150577
0544	9	0.00211995	4	0.00186706	9	0.00166584	9	0.00150331
0545	490	0.00211482	5	0.00186301	540	0.00166279	5	0.00150085
0546	1	0.00210969	6	0.00185896	1	0.00165974	6	0.00149839
0547	2	0.00210456	7	0.00185491	2	0.00165669	7	0.00149593
0548	3	0.00209943	8	0.00185086	3	0.00165364	8	0.00149347
0549	4	0.00209430	9	0.00184681	4	0.00165059	9	0.00149101
0550	5	0.00208917	500	0.00184276	5	0.00164754	5	0.00148855
0551	6	0.00208404	1	0.00183871	6	0.00164449	6	0.00148609
0552	7	0.00207891	2	0.00183466	7	0.00164144	7	0.00148363
0553	8	0.00207378	3	0.00183061	8	0.00163839	8	0.00148117
0554	9	0.00206865	4	0.00182656	9	0.00163534	9	0.00147871
0555	450	0.00206352	5	0.00182251	550	0.00163229	5	0.00147625
0556	1	0.00205839	6	0.00181846	1	0.00162924	6	0.00147379
0557	2	0.00205326	7	0.00181441	2	0.00162619	7	0.00147133
0558	3	0.00204813	8	0.00181036	3	0.00162314	8	0.00146887
0559	4	0.00204300	9	0.00180631	4	0.00162009	9	0.00146641
0560	5	0.00203787	460	0.00180226	5	0.00161704	5	0.00146395
0561	6	0.00203274	1	0.00179821	6	0.00161399	6	0.00146149
0562	7	0.00202761	2	0.00179416	7	0.00161094	7	0.00145903
0563	8	0.00202248	3	0.00179011	8	0.00160789	8	0.00145657
0564	9	0.00201735	4	0.00178606	9	0.00160484	9	0.00145411
0565	470	0.00201222	5	0.00178201	570	0.00160179	5	0.00145165
0566	1	0.00200709	6	0.00177796	1	0.00159874	6	0.00144919
0567	2	0.00200196	7	0.00177391	2	0.00159569	7	0.00144673
0568	3	0.00199683	8	0.00176986	3	0.00159264	8	0.00144427
0569	4	0.00199170	9	0.00176581	4	0.00158959	9	0.00144181
0570	5	0.00198657	480	0.00176176	5	0.00158654	5	0.00143935
0571	6	0.00198144	1	0.00175771	6	0.00158349	6	0.00143689
0572	7	0.00197631	2	0.00175366	7	0.00158044	7	0.00143443
0573	8	0.00197118	3	0.00174961	8	0.00157739	8	0.00143197
0574	9	0.00196605	4	0.00174556	9	0.00157434	9	0.00142951
0575	490	0.00196092	5	0.00174151	590	0.00157129	5	0.00142705
0576	1	0.00195579	6	0.00173746	1	0.00156824	6	0.00142459
0577	2	0.00195066	7	0.00173341	2	0.00156519	7	0.00142213
0578	3	0.00194553	8	0.00172936	3	0.00156214	8	0.00141967
0579	4	0.00194040	9	0				



Ap- pro- x- i-m	No.	Recipro- cal.	No.	Recipro- cal.	No.	Recipro- cal.	No.	Recipro- cal.
99520	1031	.000969932	1096	.000912409	1161	.000861326	1226	.000815661
99443	2	.000968992	7	.000911577	2	.000860585	7	.000814966
99366	3	.000968053	8	.000910747	3	.000859845	8	.000814332
99289	4	.000967118	9	.000909918	4	.000859100	9	.000813670
99212	5	.000966184	1100	.000909089	5	.000858360	1230	.000813008
99135	6	.000965251	1	.000908265	6	.000857623	1	.000812348
99058	7	.000964320	2	.000907441	7	.000856886	2	.000811688
98981	8	.000963391	3	.000906618	8	.000856144	3	.000811020
98904	9	.000962464	4	.000905797	9	.000855402	4	.000810353
98827	1040	.000961538	5	.000904977	1170	.000854671	5	.000809687
98750	1	.000960615	6	.000904150	1	.000853931	6	.000809061
98673	2	.000959693	7	.000903324	2	.000853192	7	.000808407
98596	3	.000958774	8	.000902507	3	.000852455	8	.000807754
98519	4	.000957854	9	.000901673	4	.000851718	9	.000807102
98442	5	.000956938	1110	.000900801	5	.000850984	1240	.000806452
98365	6	.000956023	11	.000900000	6	.000850240	1	.000805802
98288	7	.000955110	12	.000899281	7	.000849508	2	.000805153
98211	8	.000954198	13	.000898473	8	.000848766	3	.000804505
98134	9	.000953280	14	.000897666	9	.000848024	4	.000803858
98057	1050	.000952361	15	.000896861	1180	.000847287	5	.000803211
97980	1	.000951445	16	.000896045	1	.000846540	6	.000802568
97903	2	.000950530	17	.000895235	2	.000845792	7	.000801925
97826	3	.000949618	18	.000894424	3	.000845048	8	.000801282
97749	4	.000948707	19	.000893615	4	.000844303	9	.000800640
97672	5	.000947797	1190	.000892807	5	.000843562	1250	.000800000
97595	6	.000946880	1	.000892001	6	.000842817	1	.000799350
97518	7	.000945964	2	.000891196	7	.000842070	2	.000798702
97441	8	.000945050	3	.000890392	8	.000841321	3	.000798055
97364	9	.000944138	4	.000889580	9	.000840573	4	.000797408
97287	1060	.000943220	5	.000888769	1190	.000839824	5	.000796762
97210	1	.000942307	6	.000887960	1	.000839076	6	.000796117
97133	2	.000941396	7	.000887151	2	.000838327	7	.000795472
97056	3	.000940486	8	.000886343	3	.000837578	8	.000794827
96979	4	.000939577	9	.000885535	4	.000836829	9	.000794182
96902	5	.000938668	1130	.000884728	5	.000836080	1260	.000793537
96825	6	.000937760	1	.000883921	6	.000835331	1	.000792892
96748	7	.000936853	2	.000883113	7	.000834582	2	.000792247
96671	8	.000935946	3	.000882306	8	.000833833	3	.000791602
96594	9	.000935040	4	.000881499	9	.000833084	4	.000790957
96517	1070	.000934134	5	.000880692	1200	.000832335	5	.000790312
96440	1	.000933228	6	.000879885	1	.000831586	6	.000789667
96363	2	.000932323	7	.000879078	2	.000830837	7	.000789022
96286	3	.000931418	8	.000878271	3	.000830088	8	.000788377
96209	4	.000930513	9	.000877464	4	.000829339	9	.000787732
96132	5	.000929608	1140	.000876657	5	.000828590	1270	.000787087
96055	6	.000928703	1	.000875850	6	.000827841	1	.000786442
95978	7	.000927798	2	.000875043	7	.000827092	2	.000785797
95901	8	.000926893	3	.000874236	8	.000826343	3	.000785152
95824	9	.000925988	4	.000873429	9	.000825594	4	.000784507
95747	1080	.000925083	5	.000872622	1210	.000824845	5	.000783862
95670	1	.000924178	6	.000871815	1	.000824096	6	.000783217
95593	2	.000923273	7	.000871008	2	.000823347	7	.000782572
95516	3	.000922368	8	.000870201	3	.000822598	8	.000781927
95439	4	.000921463	9	.000869394	4	.000821849	9	.000781282
95362	5	.000920558	1150	.000868587	5	.000821100	1280	.000780637
95285	6	.000919653	1	.000867780	6	.000820351	1	.000780000
95208	7	.000918748	2	.000866973	7	.000819602	2	.000779355
95131	8	.000917843	3	.000866166	8	.000818853	3	.000778710
95054	9	.000916938	4	.000865359	9	.000818104	4	.000778065
94977	1090	.000916033	5	.000864552	1220	.000817355	5	.000777420
94900	1	.000915128	6	.000863745	1	.000816606	6	.000776775
94823	2	.000914223	7	.000862938	2	.000815857	7	.000776130
94746	3	.000913318	8	.000862131	3	.000815108	8	.000775485
94669	4	.000912413	9	.000861324	4	.000814359	9	.000774840
94592	5	.000911508	1160	.000860517	5	.000813610	1290	.000774195
94515	6	.000910603	1	.000859710	6	.000812861	1	.000773550
94438	7	.000909698	2	.000858903	7	.000812112	2	.000772905
94361	8	.000908793	3	.000858096	8	.000811363	3	.000772260
94284	9	.000907888	4	.000857289	9	.000810614	4	.000771615
94207	1100	.000906983	5	.000856482	1	.000809865	5	.000770970
94130	1	.000906078	6	.000855675	2	.000809116	6	.000770325
94053	2	.000905173	7	.000854868	3	.000808367	7	.000769680
93976	3	.000904268	8	.000854061	4	.000807618	8	.000769035
93899	4	.000903363	9	.000853254	5	.000806869	9	.000768390
93822	5	.000902458	1170	.000852447	6	.000806120	1	.000767745
93745	6	.000901553	1	.000851640	7	.000805371	2	.000767100
93668	7	.000900648	2	.000850833	8	.000804622	3	.000766455
93591	8	.000899743	3	.000850026	9	.000803873	4	.000765810
93514	9	.000898838	4	.000849219	1	.000803124	5	.000765165
93437	10	.000897933	5	.000848412	2	.000802375	6	.000764520
93360	11	.000897028	6	.000847605	3	.000801626	7	.000763875
93283	12	.000896123	7	.000846798	4	.000800877	8	.000763230
93206	13	.000895218	8	.000845991	5	.000800128	9	.000762585
93129	14	.000894313	9	.000845184	6	.000799379	1	.000761940
93052	15	.000893408	10	.000844377	7	.000798630	2	.000761295
92975	16	.000892503	11	.000843570	8	.000797881	3	.000760650
92898	17	.000891598	12	.000842763	9	.000797132	4	.000760005
92821	18	.000890693	13	.000841956	1	.000796383	5	.000759360
92744	19	.000889788	14	.000841149	2	.000795634	6	.000758715
92667	20	.000888883	15	.000840342	3	.000794885	7	.000758070
92590	21	.000887978	16	.000839535	4	.000794136	8	.000757425
92513	22	.000887073	17	.000838728	5	.000793387	9	.000756780
92436	23	.000886168	18	.000837921	6	.000792638	1	.000756135
92359	24	.000885263	19	.000837114	7	.000791889	2	.000755490
92282	25	.000884358	20	.000836307	8	.000791140	3	.000754845
92205	26	.000883453	21	.000835500	9	.000790391	4	.000754200
92128	27	.000882548	22	.000834693	1	.000789642	5	.000753555
92051	28	.000881643	23	.000833886	2	.000788893	6	.000752910
91974	29	.000880738	24	.000833079	3	.000788144	7	.000752265
91897	30	.000879833	25	.000832272	4	.000787395	8	.000751620
91820	31	.000878928	26	.000831465	5	.000786646	9	.000750975
91743	32	.000878023	27	.000830658	6	.000785897	1	.000750330
91666	33	.000877118	28	.000829851	7	.000785148	2	.000749685
91589	34	.000876213	29	.000829044	8	.000784399	3	.000749040
91512	35	.000875308	30	.000828237	9	.000783650	4	.000748395
91435	36	.000874403	31	.000827430	1	.000782901	5	.000747750
91358	37	.000873498	32	.000826623	2	.000782152	6	.000747105
91281	38	.000872593	33	.000825816	3	.000781403	7	.000746460
91204	39	.000871688	34	.000825009	4	.000780654	8	.000745815
91127	40	.000870783	35	.000824202	5	.000779905	9	.000745170
91050	41	.000869878	36	.000823395	6	.000779156	1	.000744525
90973	42	.000868973	37	.000822588	7	.000778407	2	.000743880
90896	43	.000868068	38	.000821781	8	.000777658	3	.000743235
90819	44	.000867163	39	.000820974	9	.000776909	4	.000742590
90742	45	.000866258	40	.000820167	1	.000776160	5	.000741945
90665	46	.000865353	41	.000819360	2	.000775411	6	.000741300
90588	47	.000864448	42	.000818553	3	.000774662	7	.000740655
90511	48	.000863543	43	.000817746	4	.000773913	8	.000740010
90434	49	.000862638	44	.000816939	5	.000773164	9	.000739365
90357	50	.000861733	45	.000816132	6	.000772415	1	.000738720
90280	51	.000860828	46	.000815325	7	.000771666	2	.000738075
90203	52	.000860023	47	.000814518	8	.000770917	3	.000737430
90126	53	.000859118	48	.000813711	9	.000770168	4	.000736785
90049	54	.000858213	49	.000812904	1	.000769419	5	.000736140
89972	55	.000857308	50	.000812097	2	.000768670	6	.000735495
89895	56	.000856403	51	.000811290	3	.000767921	7	.000734850
89818	57							

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1291	.000773894	1356	.000787403	1421	.000798780	1486	.000812048	1551	.000826185
2	.000773894	7	.000786929	2	.000798235	7	.000812195	2	.000826185
3	.000773895	8	.000786977	3	.000798241	8	.000812243	3	.000826185
4	.000773897	9	.000787035	4	.000798247	9	.000812292	4	.000826185
5	.000773901	1360	.000795204	5	.000798254	1490	.000812341	5	.000826185
6	.000774505	1	.000787454	6	.000798262	1	.000812390	6	.000826185
7	.000774510	2	.000787411	7	.000798271	2	.000812439	7	.000826185
8	.000774516	3	.000787467	8	.000798280	3	.000812488	8	.000826185
9	.000774523	4	.000787524	9	.000798289	4	.000812537	9	.000826185
1300	.000789241	5	.000787581	1430	.000809301	5	.000812586	1500	.000826185
1	.000789339	6	.000787638	1	.000809312	6	.000812635	1	.000826185
2	.000789439	7	.000787695	2	.000809324	7	.000812684	2	.000826185
3	.000789540	8	.000787752	3	.000809335	8	.000812733	3	.000826185
4	.000789641	9	.000787809	4	.000809346	9	.000812782	4	.000826185
5	.000789742	1370	.00079927	5	.000809357	1500	.000826185	5	.000826185
6	.000789843	1	.000787866	6	.000809368	1	.000812831	6	.000826185
7	.000789944	2	.000787923	7	.000809379	2	.000812880	7	.000826185
8	.000790045	3	.000787980	8	.000809390	3	.000812929	8	.000826185
9	.000790146	4	.000788037	9	.000809401	4	.000812978	9	.000826185
1310	.000791359	5	.000788094	1440	.000811114	5	.000813027	1570	.000826185
11	.000791460	6	.000788151	1	.000811163	6	.000813076	1	.000826185
12	.000791561	7	.000788208	2	.000811212	7	.000813125	2	.000826185
13	.000791662	8	.000788265	3	.000811261	8	.000813174	3	.000826185
14	.000791763	9	.000788322	4	.000811310	9	.000813223	4	.000826185
15	.000791864	1380	.000791638	5	.000811359	1510	.000826185	5	.000826185
16	.000791965	1	.000788379	6	.000811408	11	.000813272	6	.000826185
17	.000792066	2	.000788436	7	.000811457	12	.000813321	7	.000826185
18	.000792167	3	.000788493	8	.000811506	13	.000813370	8	.000826185
19	.000792268	4	.000788550	9	.000811555	14	.000813419	9	.000826185
1320	.000793477	5	.000788607	1450	.000813655	15	.000813468	1580	.000826185
1	.000793578	6	.000788664	1	.000813704	16	.000813517	1	.000826185
2	.000793679	7	.000788721	2	.000813753	17	.000813566	2	.000826185
3	.000793780	8	.000788778	3	.000813802	18	.000813615	3	.000826185
4	.000793881	9	.000788835	4	.000813851	19	.000813664	4	.000826185
5	.000793982	1390	.000793424	5	.000813900	1530	.000813713	5	.000826185
6	.000794083	1	.000788891	6	.000813949	1	.000813762	6	.000826185
7	.000794184	2	.000788948	7	.000813998	2	.000813811	7	.000826185
8	.000794285	3	.000789005	8	.000814047	3	.000813860	8	.000826185
9	.000794386	4	.000789062	9	.000814096	4	.000813909	9	.000826185
1330	.000795595	5	.000789119	1460	.000814332	5	.000813958	1500	.000826185
1	.000795696	6	.000789176	1	.000814381	6	.000814007	1	.000826185
2	.000795797	7	.000789233	2	.000814430	7	.000814056	2	.000826185
3	.000795898	8	.000789290	3	.000814479	8	.000814105	3	.000826185
4	.000795999	9	.000789347	4	.000814528	9	.000814154	4	.000826185
5	.000796100	1400	.000796581	5	.000814577	1560	.000814203	5	.000826185
6	.000796201	1	.000789404	6	.000814626	1	.000814252	6	.000826185
7	.000796302	2	.000789461	7	.000814675	2	.000814301	7	.000826185
8	.000796403	3	.000789518	8	.000814724	3	.000814350	8	.000826185
9	.000796504	4	.000789575	9	.000814773	4	.000814399	9	.000826185
1340	.000797713	5	.000789632	1470	.000815009	5	.000814448	1600	.000826185
1	.000797814	6	.000789689	1	.000815058	6	.000814497	1	.000826185
2	.000797915	7	.000789746	2	.000815107	7	.000814546	2	.000826185
3	.000798016	8	.000789803	3	.000815156	8	.000814595	3	.000826185
4	.000798117	9	.000789860	4	.000815205	9	.000814644	4	.000826185
5	.000798218	1410	.000798220	5	.000815254	1540	.000814693	5	.000826185
6	.000798319	11	.000789917	6	.000815303	1	.000814742	6	.000826185
7	.000798420	12	.000790018	7	.000815352	2	.000814791	7	.000826185
8	.000798521	13	.000790119	8	.000815401	3	.000814840	8	.000826185
9	.000798622	14	.000790220	9	.000815450	4	.000814889	9	.000826185
1350	.000799831	15	.000790321	1480	.000815686	5	.000814938	1620	.000826185
1	.000799932	16	.000790422	1	.000815735	6	.000814987	1	.000826185
2	.000800033	17	.000790523	2	.000815784	7	.000815036	2	.000826185
3	.000800134	18	.000790624	3	.000815833	8	.000815085	3	.000826185
4	.000800235	19	.000790725	4	.000815882	9	.000815134	4	.000826185
5	.000800336	1300	.000790826	5	.000815931	1550	.000815183	5	.000826185
6	.000800437	1	.000790883	6	.000815980	1	.000815232	6	.000826185
7	.000800538	2	.000790940	7	.000816029	2	.000815281	7	.000826185
8	.000800639	3	.000791000	8	.000816078	3	.000815330	8	.000826185
9	.000800740	4	.000791059	9	.000816127	4	.000815379	9	.000826185
1360	.000801949	5	.000791118	1490	.000816363	5	.000815428	1580	.000826185
1	.000802050	6	.000791177	1	.000816412	6	.000815477	1	.000826185
2	.000802151	7	.000791236	2	.000816461	7	.000815526	2	.000826185
3	.000802252	8	.000791295	3	.000816510	8	.000815575	3	.000826185
4	.000802353	9	.000791354	4	.000816559	9	.000815624	4	.000826185
5	.000802454	1420	.000802420	5	.000816608	1510	.000815673	5	.000826185
6	.000802555	11	.000791411	6	.000816657	1	.000815722	6	.000826185
7	.000802656	12	.000791470	7	.000816706	2	.000815771	7	.000826185
8	.000802757	13	.000791529	8	.000816755	3	.000815820	8	.000826185
9	.000802858	14	.000791588	9	.000816804	4	.000815869	9	.000826185
1370	.000804067	15	.000791647	1430	.000817040	5	.000815918	1570	.000826185
1	.000804168	16	.000791706	1	.000817089	6	.000815967	1	.000826185
2	.000804269	17	.000791765	2	.000817138	7	.000816016	2	.000826185
3	.000804370	18	.000791824	3	.000817187	8	.000816065	3	.000826185
4	.000804471	19	.000791883	4	.000817236	9	.000816114	4	.000826185
5	.000804572	1310	.000804520	5	.000817285	1540	.000816163	5	.000826185
6	.000804673	1	.000791942	6	.000817334	1	.000816212	6	.000826185
7	.000804774	2	.000791999	7	.000817383	2	.000816261	7	.000826185
8	.000804875	3	.000792058	8	.000817432	3	.000816310	8	.000826185
9	.000804976	4	.000792117	9	.000817481	4	.000816359	9	.000826185
1380	.000806185	5	.000792176	1440	.000817717	5	.000816408	1590	.000826185
1	.000806286	6	.000792235	1	.000817766	6	.000816457	1	.000826185
2	.000806387	7	.000792294	2	.000817815	7	.000816506	2	.000826185
3	.000806488	8	.000792353	3	.000817864	8	.000816555	3	.000826185
4	.000806589	9	.000792412	4	.000817913	9	.000816604	4	.000826185
5	.000806690	1450	.000806620	5	.000817962	1560	.000816653	5	.000826185
6	.000806791	11	.000792471	6	.000818011	1	.000816702	6	.000826185
7	.000806892	12	.000792530	7	.000818060	2	.000816751	7	.000826185
8	.000806993	13	.000792589	8	.000818109	3	.000816800	8	.000826185
9	.000807094	14	.000792648	9	.000818158	4	.000816849	9	.000826185
1390	.000808303	15	.000792707	1460	.000818394	5	.000816898	1600	.000826185
1	.000808404	16	.000792766	1	.000818443	6	.000816947	1	.000826185
2	.000808505	17	.000792825	2	.000818492	7	.000816996	2	.000826185
3	.000808606	18	.000792884	3	.000818541	8	.000817045	3	.000826185
4	.000808707	19	.000792943	4	.000818590	9	.000817094	4	.000826185
5	.000808808	1320	.000808820	5	.000818639	1570	.000817143	5	.000826185
6	.000808909	1	.000792999	6	.000818688	1	.000817192	6	.000826185
7	.000809010	2	.000793058	7	.000818737	2	.000817241	7	.000826185
8	.000809111	3	.000793117	8	.000818786	3	.000817290	8	.000826185
9	.000809212	4	.000793176	9	.000818835	4	.000817339	9	.000826185
1400	.000810421	5	.000793235	1480	.000819071	5	.000817388	1580	.000826185
1	.000810522	6	.000793294	1	.000819120	6	.000817437	1	.000826185
2	.000810623	7	.000793353	2	.000819169	7	.000817486	2	.000826185
3	.000810724	8	.000793412	3	.000819218	8	.000817535	3	.000826185
4	.000								

Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
44100	9261000	14.3914	5.9439	265	70225	18600625	16.2788	6.4232
44521	9394331	14.5258	5.9585	266	70776	18821096	16.3035	6.4372
44944	9528128	14.5602	5.9627	267	71289	19034163	16.3401	6.4491
45369	9663597	14.5945	5.9721	268	71834	19248832	16.3707	6.4733
45796	9800844	14.6287	5.9814	269	72361	19465109	16.4012	6.4263
46225	9939875	14.6629	5.9907	270	72900	19683000	16.4817	6.4488
46656	10077796	14.6969	6.0000	271	73441	19902511	16.4621	6.4713
47089	10218913	14.7309	6.0092	272	73984	20123648	16.4924	6.4792
47524	10360332	14.7648	6.0185	273	74529	20346417	16.5227	6.4872
47961	10503159	14.7986	6.0277	274	75076	20570824	16.5529	6.4951
48400	10648000	14.8324	6.0368	275	75625	20796875	16.5831	6.5030
48841	10793961	14.8661	6.0459	276	76176	21024576	16.6132	6.5108
49284	10941048	14.8997	6.0550	277	76729	21253833	16.6433	6.5187
49729	11089267	14.9332	6.0641	278	77284	21484652	16.6733	6.5265
50176	11239424	14.9666	6.0732	279	77841	21717039	16.7033	6.5343
50625	11390625	15.0000	6.0822	280	78400	21951000	16.7332	6.5421
51076	11542876	15.0333	6.0912	281	78961	22186551	16.7631	6.5499
51529	11696183	15.0665	6.1002	282	79524	22423698	16.7929	6.5577
51984	11850552	15.0997	6.1091	283	80089	22662437	16.8226	6.5654
52441	12005989	15.1327	6.1180	284	80656	22902864	16.8523	6.5731
52900	12163490	15.1658	6.1269	285	81225	23144915	16.8819	6.5808
53361	12322061	15.1987	6.1358	286	81796	23388596	16.9115	6.5885
53824	12481798	15.2315	6.1446	287	82369	23633903	16.9411	6.5962
54289	12642607	15.2643	6.1533	288	82944	23880832	16.9706	6.6039
54756	12804494	15.2971	6.1621	289	83521	24129389	17.0000	6.6115
55225	12967465	15.3297	6.1710	290	84100	24389580	17.0294	6.6191
55696	13131516	15.3623	6.1797	291	84681	24651411	17.0587	6.6267
56169	13296643	15.3948	6.1885	292	85264	24914888	17.0880	6.6343
56644	13462852	15.4272	6.1972	293	85849	25179917	17.1172	6.6419
57121	13630139	15.4596	6.2059	294	86436	25446504	17.1464	6.6494
57600	13798500	15.4919	6.2145	295	87025	25714655	17.1755	6.6569
58081	13967941	15.5242	6.2231	296	87616	25984368	17.2047	6.6644
58564	14138468	15.5565	6.2317	297	88209	26255639	17.2337	6.6719
59049	14310087	15.5885	6.2403	298	88804	26528472	17.2627	6.6794
59536	14482794	15.6205	6.2488	299	89401	26792883	17.2916	6.6869
60025	14656595	15.6525	6.2573	300	90000	27059880	17.3205	6.6944
60516	14831496	15.6844	6.2658	301	90601	27328471	17.3494	6.7018
61009	15007493	15.7162	6.2743	302	91204	27598652	17.3781	6.7092
61504	15184592	15.7480	6.2828	303	91809	27870427	17.4069	6.7166
62001	15362799	15.7797	6.2912	304	92416	28143792	17.4356	6.7240
62500	15542000	15.8114	6.2996	305	93025	28418755	17.4642	6.7313
63001	15722201	15.8430	6.3080	306	93636	28695316	17.4929	6.7387
63504	15903498	15.8745	6.3164	307	94249	28973483	17.5214	6.7460
64009	16085897	15.9060	6.3247	308	94864	29253252	17.5499	6.7533
64516	16269394	15.9374	6.3330	309	95481	29534629	17.5784	6.7606
65025	16453995	15.9687	6.3413	310	96100	29817600	17.6068	6.7679
65536	16639696	16.0000	6.3496	311	96721	30102271	17.6352	6.7752
66049	16826493	16.0312	6.3579	312	97344	30389632	17.6635	6.7824
66564	17014392	16.0624	6.3661	313	97969	30678687	17.6918	6.7897
67081	17203399	16.0935	6.3743	314	98596	30969444	17.7200	6.7969
67600	17393510	16.1245	6.3825	315	99225	31261809	17.7482	6.8041
68121	17584721	16.1555	6.3907	316	99856	31555880	17.7764	6.8113
68644	17777038	16.1864	6.3989	317	100489	31851661	17.8045	6.8185
69169	17970457	16.2173	6.4070	318	101124	32149148	17.8326	6.8257
69696	18164984	16.2481	6.4151	319	101761	32448337	17.8606	6.8329

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS AND CUBE ROOTS OF NUMBERS FROM .1 TO 1000.

Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
01	.001	.3162	.4642	8.1	0.61	29.791	1.761	1.817
025	.0034	.3873	.5313	8.2	10.24	32.768	1.789	1.838
04	.008	.4472	.5848	8.3	10.89	35.937	1.817	1.859
0625	.0156	.500	.6900	8.4	11.56	39.304	1.844	1.880
09	.027	.5477	.6691	8.5	12.25	42.875	1.871	1.901
1225	.0429	.5916	.7047	8.6	12.96	46.656	1.897	1.922
16	.064	.6325	.7368	8.7	13.69	50.653	1.924	1.943
2025	.0911	.6708	.7663	8.8	14.44	54.872	1.949	1.964
25	.125	.7071	.7937	8.9	15.21	59.319	1.975	1.985
3025	.1604	.7416	.8193	9.	16.	64.	2.	2.
36	.216	.7746	.8434	9.1	16.81	68.921	2.022	2.032
4225	.2746	.8062	.8662	9.2	17.64	73.088	2.049	2.059
49	.343	.8367	.8870	9.3	18.49	77.507	2.074	2.084
5625	.4219	.8660	.9084	9.4	19.36	82.184	2.098	2.108
64	.512	.8944	.9284	9.5	20.25	91.125	2.121	2.131
7225	.6141	.9219	.9473	9.6	21.16	97.336	2.145	2.155
81	.729	.9487	.9657	9.7	22.09	103.823	2.168	2.178
9025	.8574	.9747	.9830	9.8	23.04	110.592	2.191	2.201
1025	1.	1.	1.	9.9	24.01	117.649	2.214	2.224
1158	1.158	1.025	1.016	10.	25.	125.	2.236	2.246
1231	1.331	1.049	1.032	10.1	25.01	128.651	2.256	2.266
1325	1.521	1.072	1.048	10.2	25.96	134.008	2.280	2.290
144	1.728	1.095	1.063	10.3	26.09	138.877	2.302	2.312
1625	1.953	1.118	1.077	10.4	26.16	137.464	2.324	2.334
19	2.197	1.140	1.091	10.5	26.25	140.375	2.345	2.355
2025	2.460	1.162	1.105	10.6	26.36	175.616	2.366	2.376
26	2.744	1.183	1.119	10.7	26.49	185.193	2.387	2.397
3025	3.019	1.204	1.132	10.8	33.64	195.112	2.408	2.418
35	3.375	1.2247	1.1447	10.9	34.81	205.379	2.429	2.439
4025	3.724	1.245	1.157	11.	121.	216.	2.449	2.459
46	4.096	1.265	1.170	11.1	37.21	226.981	2.470	2.480
5225	4.492	1.285	1.182	11.2	38.44	238.328	2.491	2.501
59	4.913	1.304	1.193	11.3	39.69	250.417	2.510	2.520
6625	5.359	1.323	1.205	11.4	40.96	263.144	2.529	2.539
74	5.832	1.342	1.216	11.5	42.25	271.625	2.549	2.559
8025	6.361	1.360	1.228	11.6	43.56	287.406	2.569	2.579
88	6.860	1.378	1.239	11.7	44.89	300.763	2.589	2.599
9625	7.415	1.396	1.249	11.8	46.24	314.432	2.608	2.618
105	8.	1.4142	1.2599	11.9	47.61	328.509	2.627	2.637
11	9.201	1.440	1.2691	12.	49.	343.	2.6458	2.6558
124	10.618	1.463	1.291	12.1	50.41	357.911	2.665	2.675
139	12.167	1.517	1.320	12.2	51.84	373.248	2.683	2.693
156	13.924	1.549	1.349	12.3	53.29	389.017	2.700	2.710
175	15.625	1.581	1.377	12.4	54.76	405.224	2.718	2.728
195	17.576	1.612	1.375	12.5	56.25	421.875	2.739	2.749
216	19.693	1.643	1.392	12.6	57.76	438.976	2.757	2.767
238	21.954	1.673	1.409	12.7	59.29	456.523	2.775	2.785
261	24.389	1.703	1.426	12.8	60.84	474.552	2.793	2.803
285	27.021	1.732	1.442	12.9	62.41	493.089	2.811	2.821

Sq. Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
14900	79507000	20.7364	7.5478	485	235225	114084125	22.0227	7.8588
15000	80000000	20.7005	7.5547	486	236100	114791456	22.0454	7.8622
15100	80501500	20.7646	7.5605	487	236975	115501303	22.0681	7.8656
15200	81003737	20.8087	7.5654	488	237850	116214752	22.0907	7.8690
15300	81506504	20.8327	7.5712	489	238725	116930100	22.1133	7.8724
15400	82010850	20.8567	7.5770	490	239600	117648000	22.1359	7.8837
15500	82516850	20.8806	7.5828	491	240475	118367571	22.1585	7.8891
15600	83023450	20.9045	7.5886	492	241350	119089488	22.1811	7.8944
15700	83530707	20.9284	7.5944	493	242225	119813157	22.2036	7.8998
15800	84038519	20.9523	7.6001	494	243100	120538784	22.2261	7.9051
15900	84546800	20.9762	7.6059	495	243975	121266375	22.2486	7.9105
16000	85055650	21.0000	7.6117	496	244850	121995936	22.2711	7.9158
16100	85565088	21.0238	7.6174	497	245725	122727473	22.2935	7.9211
16200	86075037	21.0476	7.6232	498	246600	123460992	22.3159	7.9264
16300	86585504	21.0714	7.6289	499	247475	124196499	22.3383	7.9317
16400	87096480	21.0952	7.6346	500	248350	124933990	22.3607	7.9370
16500	87607967	21.1189	7.6403	501	249225	125673463	22.3830	7.9423
16600	88119975	21.1427	7.6460	502	250100	126414928	22.4054	7.9476
16700	88632507	21.1664	7.6517	503	250975	127158387	22.4277	7.9528
16800	89145564	21.1901	7.6574	504	251850	127903840	22.4500	7.9581
16900	89659140	21.2138	7.6631	505	252725	128651287	22.4723	7.9634
17000	90173237	21.2375	7.6688	506	253600	129400728	22.4945	7.9687
17100	90687850	21.2612	7.6744	507	254475	130152163	22.5167	7.9739
17200	91202987	21.2849	7.6801	508	255350	130905592	22.5389	7.9791
17300	91718640	21.3086	7.6857	509	256225	131661015	22.5610	7.9843
17400	92234800	21.3323	7.6914	510	257100	132418432	22.5832	7.9895
17500	92751475	21.3560	7.6970	511	257975	133177843	22.6054	7.9947
17600	93268650	21.3797	7.7026	512	258850	133939248	22.6275	7.9999
17700	93786337	21.4034	7.7082	513	259725	134702647	22.6496	8.0051
17800	94304530	21.4271	7.7138	514	260600	135468040	22.6717	8.0103
17900	94823237	21.4508	7.7194	515	261475	136235427	22.6938	8.0155
18000	95342450	21.4745	7.7250	516	262350	137004808	22.7159	8.0207
18100	95862175	21.4982	7.7306	517	263225	137776183	22.7379	8.0259
18200	96382410	21.5219	7.7362	518	264100	138549552	22.7599	8.0311
18300	96903157	21.5456	7.7418	519	264975	139324915	22.7819	8.0363
18400	97424410	21.5693	7.7473	520	265850	140102272	22.8039	8.0415
18500	97946175	21.5930	7.7529	521	266725	140881623	22.8259	8.0467
18600	98468450	21.6167	7.7584	522	267600	141662978	22.8478	8.0519
18700	98991237	21.6404	7.7639	523	268475	142446327	22.8697	8.0571
18800	99514530	21.6641	7.7695	524	269350	143231672	22.8916	8.0623
18900	100038600	21.6878	7.7750	525	270225	144019013	22.9135	8.0675
19000	100532000	21.7115	7.7806	526	271100	144808348	22.9354	8.0727
19100	101025430	21.7352	7.7861	527	271975	145600677	22.9573	8.0779
19200	101518880	21.7589	7.7916	528	272850	146394992	22.9792	8.0831
19300	102012350	21.7826	7.7971	529	273725	147191303	22.1011	8.0883
19400	102505840	21.8063	7.8026	530	274600	147989608	22.1230	8.0935
19500	103000350	21.8300	7.8081	531	275475	148789917	22.1449	8.0987
19600	103494880	21.8537	7.8136	532	276350	149592222	22.1668	8.1039
19700	104000430	21.8774	7.8191	533	277225	150396523	22.1887	8.1091
19800	104506000	21.9011	7.8246	534	278100	151202828	22.2106	8.1143
19900	105011590	21.9248	7.8301	535	278975	152011127	22.2325	8.1195
20000	105518200	21.9485	7.8356	536	279850	152821422	22.2544	8.1247
20100	106024830	21.9722	7.8411	537	280725	153633713	22.2763	8.1299
20200	106531480	21.9959	7.8466	538	281600	154448008	22.2982	8.1351
20300	107038150	22.0196	7.8521	539	282475	155264307	22.3201	8.1403
20400	107544840	22.0433	7.8576	540	283350	156082602	22.3420	8.1455
20500	108051550	22.0670	7.8631	541	284225	156902903	22.3639	8.1507
20600	108558280	22.0907	7.8686	542	285100	157725208	22.3858	8.1559
20700	109065030	22.1144	7.8741	543	285975	158549517	22.4077	8.1611
20800	109571800	22.1381	7.8796	544	286850	159375822	22.4296	8.1663
20900	110078590	22.1618	7.8851	545	287725	160204123	22.4515	8.1715
21000	110585400	22.1855	7.8906	546	288600	161034428	22.4734	8.1767
21100	111092230	22.2092	7.8961	547	289475	161866727	22.4953	8.1819
21200	111599080	22.2329	7.9016	548	290350	162699022	22.5172	8.1871
21300	112105950	22.2566	7.9071	549	291225	163533313	22.5391	8.1923
21400	112612840	22.2803	7.9126	550	292100	164369608	22.5610	8.1975
21500	113119750	22.3040	7.9181	551	292975	165207907	22.5829	8.2027
21600	113626680	22.3277	7.9236	552	293850	166048202	22.6048	8.2079
21700	114133630	22.3514	7.9291	553	294725	166890493	22.6267	8.2131
21800	114640600	22.3751	7.9346	554	295600	167734788	22.6486	8.2183
21900	115147590	22.3988	7.9401	555	296475	168581077	22.6705	8.2235
22000	115654600	22.4225	7.9456	556	297350	169429362	22.6924	8.2287
22100	116161630	22.4462	7.9511	557	298225	170279643	22.7143	8.2339
22200	116668680	22.4699	7.9566	558	299100	171131928	22.7362	8.2391
22300	117175750	22.4936	7.9621	559	299975	171986207	22.7581	8.2443
22400	117682840	22.5173	7.9676	560	300850	172842482	22.7800	8.2495
22500	118189950	22.5410	7.9731	561	301725	173699753	22.8019	8.2547
22600	118697080	22.5647	7.9786	562	302600	174559018	22.8238	8.2599
22700	119204230	22.5884	7.9841	563	303475	175419277	22.8457	8.2651
22800	119711400	22.6121	7.9896	564	304350	176281522	22.8676	8.2703
22900	120218590	22.6358	7.9951	565	305225	177145753	22.8895	8.2755
23000	120725800	22.6595	8.0006	566	306100	178011978	22.9114	8.2807
23100	121233030	22.6832	8.0061	567	306975	178880197	22.9333	8.2859
23200	121740280	22.7069	8.0116	568	307850	179750402	22.9552	8.2911
23300	122247550	22.7306	8.0171	569	308725	180622593	22.9771	8.2963
23400	122754840	22.7543	8.0226	570	309600	181496778	22.9990	8.3015
23500	123262150	22.7780	8.0281	571	310475	182372957	23.0209	8.3067
23600	123769480	22.8017	8.0336	572	311350	183251122	23.0428	8.3119
23700	124276830	22.8254	8.0391	573	312225	184131273	23.0647	8.3171
23800	124784200	22.8491	8.0446	574	313100	185013408	23.0866	8.3223
23900	125291590	22.8728	8.0501	575	313975	185897527	23.1085	8.3275
24000	125799000	22.8965	8.0556	576	314850	186783632	23.1304	8.3327
24100	126306430	22.9202	8.0611	577	315725	187671723	23.1523	8.3379
24200	126813880	22.9439	8.0666	578	316600	188561808	23.1742	8.3431
24300	127321350	22.9676	8.0721	579	317475	189453877	23.1961	8.3483
24400	127828840	22.9913	8.0776	580	318350	190347932	23.2180	8.3535
24500	128336350	23.0150	8.0831	581	319225	191243973	23.2399	8.3587
24600	128843880	23.0387	8.0886	582	320100	192142008	23.2618	8.3639
24700	129351430	23.0624	8.0941	583	320975	193042027	23.2837	8.3691
24800	129859000	23.0861	8.0996	584	321850	193944032	23.3056	8.3743
24900	130366590	23.1098	8.1051	585	322725	194848023	23.3275	8.3795
25000	130874200	23.1335	8.1106	586	323600	195754008	23.3494	8.3847
25100	131381830	23.1572	8.1161	587	324475	196661977	23.3713	8.3899
25200	131889480	23.1809	8.1216	588	325350	197571922	23.3932	8.3951
25300	132397150	23.2046	8.1271	589	326225	198483843	23.4151	8.4003
25400	132904840	23.2283	8.1326	590	327100	199397748	23.4370	8.4055
25500	133412550	23.2520	8.1381	591	327975	200313637	23.4589	8.4107
25600	133920280	23.2757	8.1436	592	328850	201231502	23.4808	8.4159
25700	134428030	23.2994	8.1491	593	329725	202151343	23.5027	8.4211
25800	134935800	23.3231	8.1546	594	330600	203073168	23.5246	8.4263
25900	135443590	23.3468	8.1601	595	331475	203996977	23.5465	8.4315
26000	135951400	23.3705	8.1656	596	332350	204922762	23.5684	8.4367
26100	136459230	23.3942	8.1711	597	333225	205850523	23.5903	8.4419
26200	136967080	23.4179	8.1766	598	334100	206780		

Pre.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
41	512	2.28284	2.	45	2025	91125	0.7082	3.5560
42	531.441	2.2816	2.008	46	2116	97336	0.7024	3.5840
43	551.368	2.2804	2.017	47	2209	103823	0.6967	3.6088
44	571.787	2.2881	2.025	48	2304	110592	0.6912	3.6342
45	592.704	2.2868	2.033	49	2401	117649	7.	3.6598
46	614.125	2.2815	2.041	50	2500	125000	7.0711	3.6840
47	636.056	2.2833	2.049	51	2601	132651	7.1144	3.7084
48	658.503	2.2850	2.057	52	2704	140608	7.2111	3.7325
49	681.472	2.2866	2.065	53	2809	148877	7.2801	3.7563
50	704.969	2.2883	2.072	54	2916	157464	7.3485	3.7798
51	729	8.	2.0801	55	3025	166375	7.4162	3.8030
52	753.571	8.017	2.088	56	3136	175616	7.4833	3.8259
53	778.688	8.053	2.095	57	3249	185193	7.5498	3.8485
54	804.357	8.080	2.103	58	3364	195112	7.6158	3.8709
55	830.584	8.106	2.110	59	3481	205379	7.6811	3.8930
56	857.375	8.082	2.118	60	3600	216000	7.7460	3.9149
57	884.736	8.098	2.125	61	3721	226981	7.8102	3.9365
58	912.673	8.114	2.133	62	3844	238328	7.8740	3.9579
59	941.192	8.130	2.140	63	3969	250047	7.9373	3.9791
60	970.299	8.146	2.147	64	4096	262144	8.	4.
61	1000	8.162	2.1544	65	4225	274625	8.0029	4.0007
62	1031	8.180	2.1620	66	4356	287496	8.1240	4.0412
63	1063	8.191	2.1694	67	4489	300763	8.1854	4.0615
64	1097	8.206	2.1768	68	4624	314432	8.2462	4.0817
65	1132	8.221	2.1841	69	4761	328509	8.3066	4.1018
66	1168	8.236	2.1915	70	4900	343000	8.3666	4.1213
67	1205	8.251	2.1989	71	5041	357911	8.4261	4.1408
68	1243	8.266	2.2063	72	5184	373248	8.4853	4.1602
69	1282	8.281	2.2137	73	5329	389017	8.5440	4.1793
70	1322	8.296	2.2211	74	5476	405224	8.6023	4.1983
71	1363	8.311	2.2285	75	5625	421875	8.6603	4.2172
72	1405	8.326	2.2359	76	5776	438976	8.7178	4.2358
73	1448	8.341	2.2433	77	5929	456523	8.7750	4.2543
74	1492	8.356	2.2507	78	6084	474520	8.8318	4.2727
75	1537	8.371	2.2581	79	6241	492969	8.8882	4.2908
76	1583	8.386	2.2655	80	6400	511870	8.9443	4.3089
77	1630	8.401	2.2729	81	6561	531221	9.	4.3267
78	1678	8.416	2.2803	82	6724	551028	9.0554	4.3445
79	1727	8.431	2.2877	83	6889	571287	9.1104	4.3621
80	1777	8.446	2.2951	84	7056	592004	9.1652	4.3795
81	1828	8.461	2.3025	85	7225	613285	9.2195	4.3968
82	1880	8.476	2.3099	86	7396	635026	9.2736	4.4140
83	1933	8.491	2.3173	87	7569	657233	9.3276	4.4310
84	1987	8.506	2.3247	88	7744	680000	9.3808	4.4480
85	2042	8.521	2.3321	89	7921	703329	9.4340	4.4647
86	2098	8.536	2.3395	90	8100	727200	9.4868	4.4814
87	2155	8.551	2.3469	91	8281	751621	9.5394	4.4979
88	2213	8.566	2.3543	92	8464	776592	9.5917	4.5144
89	2272	8.581	2.3617	93	8649	802119	9.6437	4.5307
90	2332	8.596	2.3691	94	8836	828208	9.6954	4.5468
91	2393	8.611	2.3765	95	9025	854865	9.7468	4.5628
92	2455	8.626	2.3839	96	9216	882096	9.7979	4.5787
93	2518	8.641	2.3913	97	9409	909909	9.8488	4.5945
94	2582	8.656	2.3987	98	9604	938300	9.8994	4.6102
95	2647	8.671	2.4061	99	9801	967285	9.9498	4.6258

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.
100	10000	1000000	10.	4.6416	155	24025	3723875
101	10201	1030301	10.0169	4.6570	156	24336	3790416
102	10404	1061208	10.0995	4.6723	157	24649	3860493
103	10609	1092727	10.1499	4.6875	158	24964	3934132
104	10816	1124864	10.1980	4.7027	159	25281	4010679
105	11025	1157625	10.2470	4.7177	160	25600	4090000
106	11236	1191016	10.2956	4.7326	161	25921	4173281
107	11449	1225043	10.3441	4.7475	162	26244	4259528
108	11664	1259712	10.3923	4.7622	163	26569	4348867
109	11881	1295029	10.4403	4.7769	164	26896	4441094
110	12100	1331000	10.4881	4.7914	165	27225	4492125
111	12321	1367631	10.5357	4.8059	166	27556	4545496
112	12544	1404928	10.5830	4.8203	167	27889	4601463
113	12769	1442897	10.6301	4.8346	168	28224	4741632
114	12996	1481544	10.6771	4.8488	169	28561	4836800
115	13225	1520875	10.7238	4.8629	170	28900	4938000
116	13456	1560896	10.7703	4.8770	171	29241	5005211
117	13689	1601613	10.8167	4.8910	172	29584	5084448
118	13924	1643032	10.8628	4.9049	173	29929	5177717
119	14161	1685169	10.9087	4.9187	174	30276	5286024
120	14400	1728000	10.9545	4.9324	175	30625	5359375
121	14641	1771561	11.0000	4.9461	176	30976	5451776
122	14884	1815848	11.0454	4.9597	177	31329	5545233
123	15129	1860867	11.0905	4.9732	178	31684	5640852
124	15376	1906624	11.1355	4.9866	179	32041	5738639
125	15625	1953125	11.1803	5.0000	180	32400	5838600
126	15876	2000376	11.2250	5.0133	181	32761	5940841
127	16129	2048383	11.2694	5.0265	182	33124	6045368
128	16384	2097152	11.3137	5.0397	183	33489	6152187
129	16641	2146689	11.3578	5.0528	184	33856	6261304
130	16900	2197000	11.4018	5.0658	185	34225	6372825
131	17161	2248081	11.4455	5.0788	186	34596	6486856
132	17424	2299936	11.4891	5.0916	187	34969	6603403
133	17689	2352567	11.5325	5.1045	188	35344	6722572
134	17956	2406064	11.5758	5.1172	189	35721	6844369
135	18225	2460435	11.6190	5.1299	190	36100	6968800
136	18496	2515584	11.6619	5.1425	191	36481	7095981
137	18769	2571513	11.7047	5.1551	192	36864	7225928
138	19044	2628224	11.7473	5.1676	193	37249	7358757
139	19321	2685719	11.7898	5.1801	194	37636	7494484
140	19600	2744000	11.8322	5.1925	195	38025	7633025
141	19881	2803081	11.8745	5.2048	196	38416	7774496
142	20164	2862968	11.9167	5.2171	197	38809	7917913
143	20449	2923667	11.9589	5.2293	198	39204	8064292
144	20736	2985184	12.0000	5.2415	199	39601	8213729
145	21025	3047525	12.0416	5.2536	200	40000	8366300
146	21316	3110696	12.0830	5.2656	201	40401	8522021
147	21609	3174693	12.1244	5.2775	202	40804	8680992
148	21904	3239520	12.1655	5.2893	203	41209	8843223
149	22201	3305189	12.2066	5.3011	204	41616	8908824
150	22500	3371700	12.2474	5.3128	205	42025	8977805
151	22801	3439061	12.2882	5.3245	206	42436	9049176
152	23104	3507272	12.3288	5.3361	207	42849	9123047
153	23409	3576343	12.3693	5.3476	208	43264	9199428

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
700	70000	685800000	20	1058	925	855625	701453125	30	4138
701	70201	697000000	20	5127	926	857176	702902576	30	4392
702	70404	698000000	20	5186	927	858729	704352049	30	4497
703	70609	699000000	20	5245	928	860284	705801544	30	4601
704	70816	699900000	20	5304	929	861841	707251069	30	4705
705	71025	700000000	20	5363	930	863400	708700625	30	4809
706	71236	700100000	20	5422	931	864961	710150216	30	4912
707	71449	700200000	20	5481	932	866524	711600832	30	5015
708	71664	700300000	20	5540	933	868089	713051473	30	5118
709	71881	700400000	20	5599	934	869656	714502140	30	5221
710	72090	700500000	20	5658	935	871225	715952833	30	5324
711	72301	700600000	20	5717	936	872796	717403552	30	5427
712	72514	700700000	20	5776	937	874369	718854297	30	5530
713	72729	700800000	20	5835	938	875944	720305068	30	5633
714	72946	700900000	20	5894	939	877521	721755865	30	5736
715	73165	701000000	20	5953	940	879100	723206688	30	5839
716	73386	701100000	20	6012	941	880681	724657537	30	5942
717	73609	701200000	20	6071	942	882264	726108412	30	6045
718	73834	701300000	20	6130	943	883849	727559313	30	6148
719	74061	701400000	20	6189	944	885436	729010240	30	6251
720	74290	701500000	20	6248	945	887025	730461193	30	6354
721	74521	701600000	20	6307	946	888616	731912172	30	6457
722	74754	701700000	20	6366	947	890209	733363177	30	6560
723	74989	701800000	20	6425	948	891804	734814208	30	6663
724	75226	701900000	20	6484	949	893401	736265265	30	6766
725	75465	702000000	20	6543	950	895000	737716348	30	6869
726	75706	702100000	20	6602	951	896601	739167457	30	6972
727	75949	702200000	20	6661	952	898204	740618592	30	7075
728	76194	702300000	20	6720	953	899809	742069753	30	7178
729	76441	702400000	20	6779	954	901416	743520940	30	7281
730	76690	702500000	20	6838	955	903025	744972153	30	7384
731	76941	702600000	20	6897	956	904636	746423392	30	7487
732	77194	702700000	20	6956	957	906249	747874657	30	7590
733	77449	702800000	20	7015	958	907864	749325948	30	7693
734	77706	702900000	20	7074	959	909481	750777265	30	7796
735	77965	703000000	20	7133	960	911100	752228608	30	7899
736	78226	703100000	20	7192	961	912721	753679987	30	7999
737	78489	703200000	20	7251	962	914344	755131402	30	8102
738	78754	703300000	20	7310	963	915969	756582853	30	8205
739	79021	703400000	20	7369	964	917596	758034340	30	8308
740	79290	703500000	20	7428	965	919225	759485863	30	8411
741	79561	703600000	20	7487	966	920856	760937422	30	8514
742	79834	703700000	20	7546	967	922489	762388917	30	8617
743	80109	703800000	20	7605	968	924124	763840448	30	8720
744	80386	703900000	20	7664	969	925761	765291915	30	8823
745	80665	704000000	20	7723	970	927400	766743418	30	8926
746	80946	704100000	20	7782	971	929041	768194957	30	9029
747	81229	704200000	20	7841	972	930684	769646532	30	9132
748	81514	704300000	20	7900	973	932329	771098143	30	9235
749	81801	704400000	20	7959	974	933976	772549790	30	9338
750	82090	704500000	20	8018	975	935625	774001473	30	9441
751	82381	704600000	20	8077	976	937276	775453192	30	9544
752	82674	704700000	20	8136	977	938929	776904947	30	9647
753	82969	704800000	20	8195	978	940584	778356738	30	9750
754	83266	704900000	20	8254	979	942241	779808565	30	9853

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cub. Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	No.
320	102400	32768000	17.8885	0.8369	375	140625	52731375	19.7
321	103041	33076161	17.9165	0.8470	376	141376	53157376	19.7
322	103684	33386248	17.9444	0.8541	377	142129	53582383	19.7
323	104329	33696207	17.9722	0.8612	378	142884	54007392	19.7
324	104976	34012224	18.0000	0.8683	379	143641	54432409	19.7
325	105625	34328125	18.0278	0.8753	380	144400	54857400	19.7
326	106276	34644000	18.0555	0.8824	381	145161	55282381	19.7
327	106929	34960863	18.0831	0.8894	382	145924	55707368	19.7
328	107584	35278704	18.1108	0.8964	383	146689	56132357	19.7
329	108241	35597521	18.1384	0.9034	384	147456	56557344	19.7
330	108900	35917200	18.1659	0.9104	385	148225	56982325	19.7
331	109561	36237841	18.1934	0.9174	386	148996	57407306	19.7
332	110224	36559464	18.2209	0.9244	387	149769	57832287	19.7
333	110889	36882069	18.2483	0.9313	388	150544	58257268	19.7
334	111556	37205664	18.2757	0.9383	389	151321	58682249	19.7
335	112225	37530245	18.3030	0.9453	390	152100	59107230	19.7
336	112896	37855808	18.3303	0.9523	391	152881	59532211	19.7
337	113569	38182353	18.3576	0.9593	392	153664	59957192	19.7
338	114244	38509880	18.3848	0.9663	393	154449	60382173	19.7
339	114921	38838409	18.4120	0.9732	394	155236	60807154	19.7
340	115600	39167920	18.4391	0.9799	395	156025	61232135	19.7
341	116281	39499421	18.4662	0.9869	396	156816	61657116	19.7
342	116964	39831904	18.4932	0.9938	397	157609	62082097	19.7
343	117649	40165369	18.5203	1.0008	398	158404	62507078	19.7
344	118336	40500816	18.5472	1.0068	399	159201	62932059	19.7
345	119025	40838245	18.5742	1.0136	400	160000	63357040	19.7
346	119716	41177666	18.6011	1.0203	401	160801	63782021	19.7
347	120409	41519089	18.6279	1.0271	402	161604	64207002	19.7
348	121104	41862512	18.6548	1.0338	403	162409	64631983	19.7
349	121801	42207935	18.6815	1.0406	404	163216	65056964	19.7
350	122500	42555360	18.7083	1.0473	405	164025	65481945	19.7
351	123201	42904781	18.7350	1.0540	406	164836	65906926	19.7
352	123904	43256204	18.7617	1.0607	407	165649	66331907	19.7
353	124609	43609629	18.7883	1.0674	408	166464	66756888	19.7
354	125316	43965056	18.8149	1.0740	409	167281	67181869	19.7
355	126025	44322485	18.8414	1.0807	410	168100	67606850	19.7
356	126736	44681916	18.8680	1.0873	411	168921	68031831	19.7
357	127449	45043349	18.8944	1.0940	412	169744	68456812	19.7
358	128164	45406784	18.9209	1.1006	413	170569	68881793	19.7
359	128881	45772221	18.9473	1.1072	414	171396	69306774	19.7
360	129600	46139660	18.9737	1.1138	415	172225	69731755	19.7
361	130321	46509101	19.0000	1.1204	416	173056	70156736	19.7
362	131044	46880544	19.0262	1.1269	417	173889	70581717	19.7
363	131769	47253989	19.0523	1.1335	418	174724	71006698	19.7
364	132496	47629436	19.0784	1.1400	419	175561	71431679	19.7
365	133225	48006885	19.1045	1.1466	420	176400	71856660	19.7
366	133956	48386336	19.1305	1.1531	421	177241	72281641	19.7
367	134689	48767789	19.1564	1.1596	422	178084	72706622	19.7
368	135424	49151244	19.1823	1.1661	423	178929	73131603	19.7
369	136161	49536701	19.2081	1.1726	424	179776	73556584	19.7
370	136900	49924160	19.2339	1.1791	425	180625	73981565	19.7
371	137641	50313621	19.2596	1.1855	426	181476	74406546	19.7
372	138384	50705084	19.2853	1.1920	427	182329	74831527	19.7
373	139129	51098549	19.3109	1.1984	428	183184	75256508	19.7
374	139876	51494016	19.3365	1.2048	429	184041	75681489	19.7

1532375	33.0008	10.3071	1150	1522200	1530875000	33.9116	10.4750
1532730	33.1069	10.3103	1151	1524801	1524845057	33.9264	10.4790
15330073	33.1210	10.3131	1152	1527104	1528823868	33.9411	10.4830
15331192	33.1361	10.3165	1153	1529409	1532808577	33.9559	10.4869
15332899	33.1512	10.3197	1154	1531716	1536800204	33.9706	10.4909
15334000	33.1662	10.3228	1155	1534025	1540708875	33.9853	10.4921
15334401	33.1813	10.3259	1156	1536326	1544804116	34.0000	10.4951
15335284	33.1964	10.3290	1157	1538640	1548816893	34.0147	10.4981
1533727	33.2114	10.3322	1158	1540961	1552810312	34.0294	10.5011
1533864	33.2264	10.3353	1159	1543281	1556862079	34.0441	10.5042
15339325	33.2415	10.3384	1160	1545600	1560896000	34.0588	10.5072
15340016	33.2566	10.3415	1161	1547921	1564933281	34.0735	10.5102
15340703	33.2716	10.3447	1162	1550244	1568983529	34.0881	10.5132
15341512	33.2866	10.3478	1163	1552569	1573037747	34.1028	10.5162
15342020	33.3017	10.3509	1164	1554896	1577088944	34.1174	10.5192
15343100	33.3167	10.3540	1165	1557225	1581167125	34.1321	10.5223
15343631	33.3317	10.3571	1166	1559556	1585212296	34.1467	10.5253
15344028	33.3467	10.3602	1167	1561889	1589324467	34.1611	10.5283
15344597	33.3617	10.3633	1168	1564224	1593436638	34.1760	10.5313
153450544	33.3768	10.3664	1169	1566561	1597508809	34.1906	10.5343
15345575	33.3918	10.3695	1170	1568900	1601613000	34.2053	10.5373
15345906	33.4066	10.3726	1171	1571241	1605733211	34.2199	10.5403
15346018	33.4215	10.3757	1172	1573584	1609840448	34.2345	10.5433
15346032	33.4365	10.3788	1173	1575929	1613969717	34.2491	10.5463
15346150	33.4515	10.3819	1174	1578270	1618090024	34.2637	10.5493
153462000	33.4664	10.3850	1175	1580625	1622234375	34.2783	10.5523
15346561	33.4813	10.3881	1176	1582976	1626379776	34.2929	10.5553
153467408	33.4963	10.3912	1177	1585329	1630532233	34.3074	10.5583
15347807	33.5112	10.3943	1178	1587684	1634691752	34.3220	10.5613
153484024	33.5261	10.3973	1179	1590041	1638858839	34.3366	10.5642
153485000	33.5410	10.4004	1180	1592400	1643030000	34.3511	10.5673

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.
540	291600	157464000	539.379	8.1439	595	354025	210644875
541	292801	158340421	539.594	8.1489	596	355216	211508736
542	293764	159200888	539.809	8.1539	597	356409	212371753
543	294849	160059307	540.024	8.1589	598	357604	213234712
544	295956	160916984	540.238	8.1639	599	358801	214097729
545	297025	161778025	540.452	8.1689	600	360000	216000000
546	298116	162642436	540.666	8.1739	601	361201	216963801
547	299209	163509324	540.880	8.1789	602	362404	217928208
548	300304	164368692	541.094	8.1839	603	363609	218893227
549	301401	165230649	541.307	8.1889	604	364816	219858864
550	302500	166095200	541.521	8.1939	605	366025	220825125
551	303601	166962451	541.734	8.1989	606	367236	221793016
552	304704	167832408	541.947	8.2039	607	368449	222762549
553	305809	168705077	542.160	8.2089	608	369664	223733728
554	306916	169580464	542.372	8.2139	609	370881	224706569
555	308025	170458585	542.584	8.2189	610	372100	225681000
556	309136	171339436	542.797	8.2239	611	373321	226657131
557	310249	172223003	543.008	8.2289	612	374544	227634968
558	311364	173109292	543.220	8.2339	613	375769	228614517
559	312481	174008409	543.432	8.2389	614	376996	229595784
560	313600	174910400	543.643	8.2439	615	378225	230578785
561	314721	175815281	543.854	8.2489	616	379456	231563536
562	315844	176723048	544.065	8.2539	617	380689	232549953
563	316969	177633697	544.276	8.2589	618	381924	233538048
564	318096	178547244	544.487	8.2639	619	383161	234527829
565	319225	179463695	544.697	8.2689	620	384400	235519300
566	320356	180383056	544.908	8.2739	621	385641	236512469
567	321489	181305333	545.118	8.2789	622	386884	237507344
568	322624	182230532	545.328	8.2839	623	388129	238503931
569	323761	183158669	545.537	8.2889	624	389376	239502240
570	324900	184089760	545.747	8.2939	625	390625	240502285
571	326041	185023811	545.956	8.2989	626	391876	241504076
572	327184	185960828	546.165	8.3039	627	393129	242507617
573	328329	186900817	546.374	8.3089	628	394384	243512912
574	329476	187843784	546.583	8.3139	629	395641	244520069
575	330625	188789735	546.792	8.3189	630	396900	245528990
576	331776	189738676	547.000	8.3239	631	398161	246539691
577	332929	190690613	547.208	8.3289	632	399424	247552176
578	334084	191645552	547.416	8.3339	633	400689	248566451
579	335241	192603499	547.624	8.3389	634	401956	249582524
580	336400	193564460	547.832	8.3439	635	403225	250600395
581	337561	194528436	548.040	8.3489	636	404496	251619966
582	338724	195495424	548.247	8.3539	637	405769	252641337
583	339889	196465437	548.454	8.3589	638	407044	253664508
584	341056	197438480	548.661	8.3639	639	408321	254689489
585	342225	198414559	548.868	8.3689	640	409600	255716280
586	343406	199393684	549.074	8.3739	641	410881	256744891
587	344589	200375853	549.280	8.3789	642	412164	257775322
588	345774	201361072	549.486	8.3839	643	413449	258807583
589	346961	202349349	549.691	8.3889	644	414736	259841684
590	348150	203340680	549.896	8.3939	645	416025	260877625
591	349341	204334071	550.100	8.3989	646	417316	261915406
592	350534	205329528	550.304	8.4039	647	418609	262954927
593	351729	206327059	550.508	8.4089	648	419904	263996188
594	352926	207326672	550.712	8.4139	649	421201	265039189
595	354125	208328385	550.916	8.4189	650	422500	266083930

15	2801111725	25.5030	8.5845	710	504100	325911000	26.6458	8.9211
16	2801111716	25.6125	8.6890	711	505521	359425431	26.6646	8.9253
17	2801111703	25.6320	8.6931	712	506944	360941128	26.6839	8.9295
18	2801111712	25.6515	8.6978	713	508369	362467097	26.7021	8.9337
19	2801111729	25.6710	8.7022	714	509796	363994844	26.7208	8.9378
20	2801111700	25.6905	8.7066	715	511225	365525875	26.7395	8.9420
21	2801111711	25.7099	8.7110	716	512656	367061666	26.7582	8.9462
22	2801111728	25.7294	8.7154	717	514089	368601813	26.7769	8.9503
23	2801111717	25.7488	8.7198	718	515524	370146292	26.7955	8.9545
24	2801111724	25.7682	8.7241	719	516961	371694959	26.8142	8.9587
25	2801111702	25.7876	8.7285	720	518400	373249000	26.8328	8.9628
26	2801111706	25.8070	8.7329	721	519841	374805361	26.8514	8.9670
27	2801111703	25.8263	8.7373	722	521284	376367048	26.8701	8.9711
28	2801111702	25.8457	8.7416	723	522729	377932907	26.8887	8.9752
29	2801111800	25.8650	8.7460	724	524176	379503424	26.9072	8.9794
30	3007030000	25.8844	8.7503	725	525625	381078125	26.9258	8.9835
31	3011111711	25.9037	8.7547	726	527076	382655176	26.9444	8.9876
32	3040444444	25.9230	8.7590	727	528529	384234089	26.9629	8.9918
33	3040441217	25.9422	8.7634	728	529984	385825452	26.9815	8.9959
34	306193024	25.9615	8.7677	729	531441	387420189	27.0000	9.0000
35	307540875	25.9808	8.7721	730	532900	389017000	27.0185	9.0041
36	308915576	26.0000	8.7764	731	534361	390617891	27.0370	9.0082
37	310288523	26.0192	8.7807	732	535824	392225768	27.0555	9.0123
38	311665752	26.0384	8.7850	733	537289	393840637	27.0740	9.0164
39	313046839	26.0576	8.7893	734	538756	395463904	27.0924	9.0205
40	314433000	26.0768	8.7937	735	540225	397095375	27.1109	9.0246
41	315821211	26.0960	8.7980	736	541694	398735256	27.1293	9.0287
42	317214568	26.1151	8.8023	737	543169	400383553	27.1477	9.0328
43	318611097	26.1343	8.8066	738	544644	402040272	27.1662	9.0369
44	320013504	26.1534	8.8109	739	546121	403695419	27.1846	9.0410
45	321419125	26.1725	8.8152	740	547600	405359100	27.2029	9.0450
46	322828856	26.1916	8.8194	741	549081	407030921	27.2213	9.0491
47	324242703	26.2107	8.8237	742	550564	408710488	27.2397	9.0532
48	325660652	26.2298	8.8280	743	552049	410398407	27.2580	9.0573

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube. Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.
980	960400	941192000	31.3050	9.9829	1095	1071225	1108717875	32.1774
981	962361	944078141	31.3309	9.9964	1096	1073496	1111994053	32.1850
982	964324	946966168	31.3569	9.9996	1097	1075769	1115270232	32.1926
983	966289	949856207	31.3828	9.9999	1098	1078044	1118546413	32.2002
984	968256	952748264	31.3688	9.9944	1099	1079521	1121822594	32.2078
985	970225	955642345	31.3847	9.9997	1040	1081800	1125098775	32.2154
986	972196	958538426	31.4006	9.9951	1041	1083681	1128374956	32.2230
987	974169	961436507	31.4166	9.9966	1042	1085564	1131651137	32.2306
988	976144	964336588	31.4325	9.9968	1043	1087449	1134927318	32.2382
989	978121	967238669	31.4484	9.9992	1044	1089336	1138203499	32.2458
990	980100	970142750	31.4643	9.9996	1045	1091225	1141479680	32.2534
991	982081	973048831	31.4802	9.9999	1046	1093116	1144755861	32.2610
992	984064	975956912	31.4960	9.9943	1047	1095009	1148032042	32.2686
993	986049	978866993	31.5119	9.9966	1048	1096904	1151308223	32.2762
994	988036	981779074	31.5278	9.9990	1049	1100401	1154584404	32.2838
995	990025	984693155	31.5436	9.9993	1050	1102500	1157860585	32.2914
996	992016	987609236	31.5595	9.9996	1051	1104601	1161136766	32.2990
997	994009	990527317	31.5753	9.9999	1052	1106704	1164412947	32.3066
998	996004	993447398	31.5911	9.9943	1053	1108809	1167689128	32.3142
999	998001	996369479	31.6070	9.9967	1054	1110916	1170965309	32.3218
1000	1000000	1000000000	31.6228	10.0000	1055	1113025	1174241490	32.3294
1001	1002001	1003003001	31.6386	10.0003	1056	1115136	1177517671	32.3370
1002	1004004	1006006004	31.6544	10.0007	1057	1117249	1180793852	32.3446
1003	1006009	1009009009	31.6702	10.0010	1058	1119364	1184070033	32.3522
1004	1008016	1012012016	31.6860	10.0013	1059	1121481	1187346214	32.3598
1005	1010025	1015015025	31.7017	10.0166	1060	1123600	1190622395	32.3674
1006	1012036	1018018036	31.7175	10.0230	1061	1125721	1193898576	32.3750
1007	1014049	1021021049	31.7333	10.0293	1062	1127844	1197174757	32.3826
1008	1016064	1024024064	31.7490	10.0356	1063	1129969	1200450938	32.3902
1009	1018081	1027027081	31.7648	10.0420	1064	1132096	1203727119	32.3978
1010	1020100	1030030100	31.7805	10.0483	1065	1134225	1207003300	32.4054
1011	1022121	1033033121	31.7962	10.0546	1066	1136356	1210279481	32.4130
1012	1024144	1036036144	31.8119	10.0609	1067	1138489	1213555662	32.4206
1013	1026169	1039039169	31.8275	10.0672	1068	1140624	1216831843	32.4282
1014	1028196	1042042196	31.8432	10.0735	1069	1142761	1220108024	32.4358
1015	1030225	1045045225	31.8589	10.0798	1070	1144900	1223384205	32.4434
1016	1032256	1048048256	31.8745	10.0861	1071	1147041	1226660386	32.4510
1017	1034289	1051051289	31.8901	10.0924	1072	1149184	1229936567	32.4586
1018	1036324	1054054324	31.9057	10.0987	1073	1151329	1233212748	32.4662
1019	1038361	1057057361	31.9213	10.1050	1074	1153476	1236488929	32.4738
1020	1040400	1060060400	31.9370	10.1113	1075	1155625	1239765110	32.4814
1021	1042441	1063063441	31.9526	10.1176	1076	1157776	1243041291	32.4890
1022	1044484	1066066484	31.9682	10.1239	1077	1159929	1246317472	32.4966
1023	1046529	1069069529	31.9838	10.1302	1078	1162084	1249593653	32.5042
1024	1048576	1072072576	32.0000	10.1365	1079	1164241	1252869834	32.5118
1025	1050625	1075075625	32.0156	10.1428	1080	1166400	1256146015	32.5194
1026	1052676	1078078676	32.0312	10.1491	1081	1168561	1259422196	32.5270
1027	1054729	1081081729	32.0468	10.1554	1082	1170724	1262698377	32.5346
1028	1056784	1084084784	32.0624	10.1617	1083	1172889	1265974558	32.5422
1029	1058841	1087087841	32.0780	10.1680	1084	1175056	1269250739	32.5498
1030	1060900	1090090900	32.0936	10.1743	1085	1177225	1272526920	32.5574
1031	1062961	1093093961	32.1092	10.1806	1086	1179396	1275803101	32.5650
1032	1065024	1096096024	32.1248	10.1869	1087	1181569	1279079282	32.5726
1033	1067089	1099099089	32.1404	10.1932	1088	1183744	1282355463	32.5802
1034	1069156	1102102156	32.1560	10.1995	1089	1185921	1285631644	32.5878

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE AND CUBE ROOTS. 101

Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
384000	3581577000	39.1152	11.5290	1565	2449225	38939837125	39.5601	11.6102
384300	358604291	39.1280	11.5255	1566	2452356	3900389490	39.5725	11.6126
384600	359050882	39.1408	11.5280	1567	2455489	3907714269	39.5854	11.6151
384900	359497473	39.1535	11.5305	1568	2458624	3915039048	39.5980	11.6176
385200	359944064	39.1663	11.5330	1569	2461761	3922363827	39.6106	11.6200
385500	360390655	39.1791	11.5355	1570	2464900	3929688606	39.6232	11.6225
385800	360837246	39.1919	11.5380	1571	2468041	3937013385	39.6358	11.6250
386100	361283837	39.2046	11.5405	1572	2471184	3944338164	39.6485	11.6274
386400	361730428	39.2173	11.5430	1573	2474329	3951662943	39.6611	11.6299
386700	362177019	39.2301	11.5455	1574	2477476	3958987722	39.6737	11.6324
387000	362623610	39.2428	11.5480	1575	2480625	3966312501	39.6863	11.6348
387300	363070201	39.2556	11.5505	1576	2483776	3973637280	39.6989	11.6373
387600	363516792	39.2683	11.5530	1577	2486929	3980962059	39.7115	11.6398
387900	363963383	39.2810	11.5555	1578	2490084	3988286838	39.7241	11.6422
388200	364409974	39.2938	11.5580	1579	2493241	3995611617	39.7366	11.6447
388500	364856565	39.3065	11.5605	1580	2496400	4002936396	39.7492	11.6471
388800	365303156	39.3192	11.5630	1581	2499561	4010261175	39.7618	11.6496
389100	365749747	39.3319	11.5655	1582	2502724	4017585954	39.7744	11.6520
389400	366196338	39.3446	11.5680	1583	2505889	4024910733	39.7869	11.6545
389700	366642929	39.3573	11.5705	1584	2509056	4032235512	39.7995	11.6570
390000	367089520	39.3700	11.5730	1585	2512225	4039560291	39.8121	11.6594
390300	367536111	39.3827	11.5755	1586	2515396	4046885070	39.8246	11.6619
390600	367982702	39.3954	11.5780	1587	2518569	4054209849	39.8372	11.6643
390900	368429293	39.4081	11.5805	1588	2521744	4061534628	39.8497	11.6668
391200	368875884	39.4208	11.5830	1589	2524921	4068859407	39.8623	11.6692
391500	369322475	39.4335	11.5855	1590	2528100	4076184186	39.8748	11.6717
391800	369769066	39.4462	11.5880	1591	2531281	4083508965	39.8873	11.6741
392100	370215657	39.4589	11.5905	1592	2534464	4090833744	39.8998	11.6765
392400	370662248	39.4715	11.5930	1593	2537649	4098158523	39.9124	11.6790
392700	371108839	39.4842	11.5955	1594	2540836	4105483302	39.9249	11.6814
393000	371555430	39.4969	11.5980	1595	2544025	4112808081	39.9375	11.6839
393300	372002021	39.5095	11.6005	1596	2547216	4120132860	39.9500	11.6863
393600	372448612	39.5222	11.6030	1597	2550409	4127457639	39.9625	11.6888
393900	372895203	39.5349	11.6055	1598	2553604	4134782418	39.9750	11.6912
394200	373341794	39.5475	11.6080	1599	2556801	4142107197	39.9875	11.6936
394500	373788385	39.5602	11.6105	1600	2560000	4149431976	40.0000	11.6961

SQUARES AND CUBES OF DECIMALS.

No.	Square.	Cube.	No.	Square.	Cube.	No.	Square.	Cube.
1	.01	.001	.01	.0001	.000 001	.001	.00 00 01	.000 000 001
2	.04	.008	.02	.0004	.000 008	.002	.00 00 04	.000 000 008
3	.09	.027	.03	.0009	.000 027	.003	.00 00 09	.000 000 027
4	.16	.064	.04	.0016	.000 064	.004	.00 00 16	.000 000 064
5	.25	.125	.05	.0025	.000 125	.005	.00 00 25	.000 000 125
6	.36	.216	.06	.0036	.000 216	.006	.00 00 36	.000 000 216
7	.49	.343	.07	.0049	.000 343	.007	.00 00 49	.000 000 343
8	.64	.512	.08	.0064	.000 512	.008	.00 00 64	.000 000 512
9	.81	.729	.09	.0081	.000 729	.009	.00 00 81	.000 000 729
10	1.00	1.000	.10	.0100	.001 000	.010	.00 01 00	.000 001 000
11	1.21	1.728	.12	.0144	.001 728	.012	.00 01 44	.000 001 728

that the square has twice as many decimal places, and the cube three times as many decimal places, as the root.

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
1200	1440000	1728000000	34.6410	10.6266	1255	1575025	1976656375	35.4260	10.6266
1201	1442401	1732329601	34.6554	10.6265	1256	1577536	1981385216	35.4401	10.6265
1202	1444804	1736654408	34.6699	10.6265	1257	1580049	1986121593	35.4542	10.6265
1203	1447209	1740979247	34.6843	10.6265	1258	1582564	1990865512	35.4683	10.6265
1204	1449616	1745304064	34.6987	10.6264	1259	1585081	1995616979	35.4824	10.6264
1205	1452025	1749628915	34.7131	10.6413	1260	1587600	2000375000	35.4965	10.6413
1206	1454436	1753953760	34.7275	10.6413	1261	1590121	2005135281	35.5106	10.6413
1207	1456849	1758278609	34.7419	10.6472	1262	1592644	2009901678	35.5247	10.6472
1208	1459264	1762603462	34.7563	10.6501	1263	1595169	2014675417	35.5387	10.6501
1209	1461681	1766928319	34.7707	10.6530	1264	1597696	2019457744	35.5528	10.6530
1210	1464100	1771253180	34.7851	10.6560	1265	1600225	2024248625	35.5668	10.6560
1211	1466521	1775578041	34.7994	10.6590	1266	1602756	2029048066	35.5809	10.6590
1212	1468944	1779902904	34.8138	10.6619	1267	1605289	2033856069	35.5949	10.6619
1213	1471369	1784227769	34.8281	10.6648	1268	1607824	2038672632	35.6089	10.6648
1214	1473796	1788552636	34.8425	10.6678	1269	1610361	2043497761	35.6229	10.6678
1215	1476225	1792877505	34.8569	10.6707	1270	1612900	2048331000	35.6369	10.6707
1216	1478656	1797202376	34.8712	10.6736	1271	1615441	2053172551	35.6509	10.6736
1217	1481089	1801527249	34.8855	10.6765	1272	1617984	2058022804	35.6649	10.6765
1218	1483524	1805852124	34.8999	10.6795	1273	1620529	2062881769	35.6789	10.6795
1219	1485951	1810177001	34.9142	10.6824	1274	1623076	2067749844	35.6929	10.6824
1220	1488380	1814501880	34.9285	10.6853	1275	1625625	2072627125	35.7069	10.6853
1221	1490811	1818826761	34.9428	10.6882	1276	1628176	2077512606	35.7209	10.6882
1222	1493244	1823151644	34.9571	10.6911	1277	1630729	2082406289	35.7349	10.6911
1223	1495679	1827476529	34.9714	10.6940	1278	1633284	2087308176	35.7489	10.6940
1224	1498116	1831801416	34.9857	10.6970	1279	1635841	2092218261	35.7629	10.6970
1225	1500545	1836126305	35.0000	10.6999	1280	1638400	2097136500	35.7769	10.6999
1226	1502976	1840451196	35.0143	10.7028	1281	1640961	2102062941	35.7909	10.7028
1227	1505409	1844776089	35.0286	10.7057	1282	1643524	2107000000	35.8049	10.7057
1228	1507844	1849100984	35.0429	10.7086	1283	1646089	2111937681	35.8189	10.7086
1229	1510281	1853425881	35.0571	10.7115	1284	1648656	2116885004	35.8329	10.7115
1230	1512716	1857750780	35.0714	10.7144	1285	1651225	2121842925	35.8469	10.7144
1231	1515153	1862075681	35.0856	10.7173	1286	1653796	2126810466	35.8609	10.7173
1232	1517584	1866400584	35.0999	10.7202	1287	1656369	2131787729	35.8749	10.7202
1233	1520019	1870725489	35.1141	10.7231	1288	1658944	2136774704	35.8889	10.7231
1234	1522456	1875050396	35.1283	10.7260	1289	1661521	2141771401	35.9029	10.7260
1235	1524885	1879375305	35.1426	10.7289	1290	1664100	2146778800	35.9169	10.7289
1236	1527316	1883700216	35.1569	10.7318	1291	1666681	2151796901	35.9309	10.7318
1237	1529749	1888025129	35.1710	10.7347	1292	1669264	2156825704	35.9449	10.7347
1238	1532184	1892350044	35.1852	10.7376	1293	1671849	2161865209	35.9589	10.7376
1239	1534611	1896674961	35.1994	10.7405	1294	1674436	2166915416	35.9729	10.7405
1240	1537040	1901000000	35.2136	10.7434	1295	1677025	2171976325	35.9869	10.7434
1241	1539471	1905325041	35.2278	10.7463	1296	1679616	2177047936	35.9999	10.7463
1242	1541904	1909650084	35.2420	10.7491	1297	1682209	2182130249	36.0139	10.7491
1243	1544339	1913975129	35.2562	10.7520	1298	1684804	2187223364	36.0279	10.7520
1244	1546776	1918300176	35.2704	10.7549	1299	1687401	2192327281	36.0419	10.7549
1245	1549205	1922625225	35.2846	10.7578	1300	1690000	2197442000	36.0559	10.7578
1246	1551636	1926950276	35.2987	10.7607	1301	1692601	2202567521	36.0699	10.7607
1247	1554069	1931275329	35.3129	10.7635	1302	1695204	2207703844	36.0839	10.7635
1248	1556504	1935600384	35.3270	10.7664	1303	1697809	2212850969	36.0979	10.7664
1249	1558931	1939925441	35.3412	10.7693	1304	1700416	2218008904	36.1119	10.7693
1250	1561360	1944250500	35.3553	10.7722	1305	1703025	2223177625	36.1259	10.7722
1251	1563791	1948575561	35.3695	10.7750	1306	1705636	2228357156	36.1399	10.7750
1252	1566224	1952900624	35.3837	10.7779	1307	1708249	2233547509	36.1539	10.7779
1253	1568659	1957225689	35.3979	10.7808	1308	1710864	2238748664	36.1679	10.7808
1254	1571086	1961550756	35.4120	10.7837	1309	1713481	2243960601	36.1819	10.7837

REFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES.

	Diam.	Circum.	Area.		Diam.	Circum.	Area.
654	65	204.20	3318.31	129	405.27	12960.81	
655	66	207.34	3431.19	130	408.41	13273.25	
656	67	210.49	3545.05	131	411.55	13488.22	
657	68	213.63	3660.08	132	414.69	13705.78	
658	69	216.77	3776.28	133	417.83	13925.01	
659	70	219.91	3893.65	134	420.97	14146.61	
660	71	223.05	3999.19	135	424.12	14370.88	
661	72	226.19	4077.50	136	427.26	14598.22	
662	73	229.34	4155.39	137	430.40	14828.14	
663	74	232.48	4233.84	138	433.54	15060.25	
664	75	235.62	4317.86	139	436.68	15294.98	
665	76	238.76	4396.40	140	439.82	15533.80	
666	77	241.90	4475.63	141	442.96	15775.40	
667	78	245.04	4555.38	142	446.11	15919.37	
668	79	248.18	4635.67	143	449.25	16066.01	
669	80	251.33	4716.55	144	452.39	16215.82	
670	81	254.47	4798.00	145	455.53	16368.40	
671	82	257.61	4879.92	146	458.67	16523.35	
672	83	260.75	4962.41	147	461.81	16680.36	
673	84	263.89	5045.47	148	464.96	16839.96	
674	85	267.04	5129.10	149	468.10	17002.62	
675	86	270.18	5213.30	150	471.24	17167.90	
676	87	273.32	5298.08	151	474.38	17335.56	
677	88	276.46	5383.44	152	477.52	17505.33	
678	89	279.60	5469.38	153	480.66	17677.85	
679	90	282.74	5555.90	154	483.81	17852.65	
680	91	285.88	5643.00	155	486.95	18029.39	
681	92	289.03	5730.68	156	490.09	18208.71	
682	93	292.17	5818.94	157	493.23	18390.25	
683	94	295.31	5907.78	158	496.37	18573.56	
684	95	298.45	5997.20	159	499.51	18759.25	
685	96	301.59	6087.20	160	502.65	18946.90	
686	97	304.73	6177.78	161	505.80	19137.31	
687	98	307.88	6268.94	162	508.94	19330.11	
688	99	311.02	6360.68	163	512.08	19525.05	
689	100	314.16	6453.00	164	515.22	19722.67	
690	101	317.30	6545.89	165	518.36	19922.61	
691	102	320.44	6639.36	166	521.50	20124.43	
692	103	323.58	6733.40	167	524.65	20328.67	
693	104	326.73	6828.01	168	527.79	20535.88	
694	105	329.87	6923.19	169	530.93	20745.61	
695	106	333.01	7018.94	170	534.07	20957.50	
696	107	336.15	7115.26	171	537.21	21171.39	
697	108	339.29	7212.15	172	540.35	21387.82	
698	109	342.43	7309.61	173	543.50	21606.44	
699	110	345.58	7407.64	174	546.64	21827.71	
700	111	348.72	7506.24	175	549.78	22051.28	
701	112	351.86	7605.41	176	552.92	22277.69	
702	113	355.00	7705.15	177	556.06	22506.50	
703	114	358.14	7805.46	178	559.20	22738.35	
704	115	361.28	7906.34	179	562.35	22972.80	
705	116	364.42	8007.78	180	565.49	23210.40	
706	117	367.57	8109.79	181	568.63	23450.70	
707	118	370.71	8212.36	182	571.77	23693.45	
708	119	373.85	8315.50	183	574.91	23938.30	
709	120	376.99	8419.21	184	578.05	24185.80	
710	121	380.13	8523.49	185	581.19	24435.50	
711	122	383.27	8628.34	186	584.33	24687.95	
712	123	386.42	8733.76	187	587.48	24942.70	
713	124	389.56	8839.75	188	590.62	25199.40	
714	125	392.70	8946.31	189	593.76	25458.60	
715	126	395.84	9053.44	190	596.90	25720.85	
716	127	398.98	9161.14	191	600.04	25985.70	
717	128	402.12	9269.41	192	603.19	26253.60	

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.
1420	2016400	296328000	37.6820	11.2999	1475	2175625	3209046875	38.4037
1421	2019241	2968031461	37.6962	11.2925	1476	2178576	3215578176	38.4187
1422	2022084	2972804148	37.7094	11.2852	1477	2181539	3222151833	38.4339
1423	2024929	2977598739	37.7227	11.2778	1478	2184504	3228766732	38.4491
1424	2027776	2982415304	37.7359	11.2705	1479	2187481	3235413939	38.4643
1425	2030625	2987253965	37.7492	11.2631	1480	2190460	3242103200	38.4796
1426	2033476	2992114732	37.7624	11.2557	1481	2193451	3248834613	38.4948
1427	2036329	2996997605	37.7757	11.2483	1482	2196454	3255607284	38.5101
1428	2039184	3001902584	37.7889	11.2410	1483	2199469	3262421313	38.5254
1429	2042041	3006829669	37.8021	11.2336	1484	2202496	3269276800	38.5407
1430	2044900	3011778860	37.8153	11.2262	1485	2205535	3276173795	38.5560
1431	2047761	3016750159	37.8285	11.2188	1486	2208586	3283113296	38.5713
1432	2050624	3021743568	37.8418	11.2115	1487	2211649	3290105403	38.5866
1433	2053489	3026759987	37.8550	11.2041	1488	2214724	3297150116	38.6019
1434	2056356	3031799516	37.8682	11.2067	1489	2217811	3304247435	38.6172
1435	2059225	3036862155	37.8814	11.2093	1490	2220910	3311397460	38.6325
1436	2062096	3041947904	37.8946	11.2019	1491	2224021	3318599291	38.6478
1437	2064969	3047056763	37.9078	11.2045	1492	2227144	3325852916	38.6631
1438	2067844	3052188732	37.9210	11.2071	1493	2230279	3333168335	38.6784
1439	2070721	3057343811	37.9342	11.2098	1494	2233426	3340536400	38.6937
1440	2073600	3062521900	37.9473	11.2024	1495	2236585	3347957125	38.7090
1441	2076481	3067723001	37.9605	11.2050	1496	2239756	3355430504	38.7243
1442	2079364	3072947112	37.9737	11.2075	1497	2242939	3362956643	38.7396
1443	2082249	3078194233	37.9868	11.2001	1498	2246134	3370535544	38.7549
1444	2085136	3083464364	38.0000	11.2027	1499	2249341	3378167305	38.7702
1445	2088025	3088757505	38.0132	11.2053	1500	2252560	3385852016	38.7855
1446	2090916	3094073656	38.0263	11.2079	1501	2255791	3393599683	38.8008
1447	2093809	3099412817	38.0395	11.2105	1502	2259034	3401409304	38.8161
1448	2096704	3104774988	38.0526	11.2131	1503	2262289	3409281885	38.8314
1449	2099601	3110160169	38.0657	11.2157	1504	2265556	3417217426	38.8467
1450	2102500	3115568360	38.0789	11.2183	1505	2268835	3425216925	38.8620
1451	2105401	3121000561	38.0920	11.2209	1506	2272126	3433280384	38.8773
1452	2108304	3126456762	38.1051	11.2235	1507	2275429	3441407803	38.8926
1453	2111209	3131936963	38.1182	11.2261	1508	2278744	3449599184	38.9079
1454	2114116	3137441164	38.1314	11.2287	1509	2282071	3457854525	38.9232
1455	2117025	3142969365	38.1445	11.2313	1510	2285410	3466173826	38.9385
1456	2119936	3148521566	38.1576	11.2339	1511	2288761	3474557087	38.9538
1457	2122849	3154097767	38.1707	11.2365	1512	2292124	3483004308	38.9691
1458	2125764	3159697968	38.1838	11.2391	1513	2295499	3491525489	38.9844
1459	2128681	3165322169	38.1969	11.2417	1514	2298886	3500120630	38.9997
1460	2131600	3170970370	38.2099	11.2443	1515	2302285	3508790735	39.0150
1461	2134521	3176642571	38.2230	11.2469	1516	2305696	3517525796	39.0303
1462	2137444	3182338772	38.2361	11.2495	1517	2309119	3526335813	39.0456
1463	2140369	3188058973	38.2492	11.2521	1518	2312554	3535219784	39.0609
1464	2143296	3193803174	38.2623	11.2547	1519	2316001	3544177705	39.0762
1465	2146225	3199571375	38.2753	11.2573	1520	2319460	3553219576	39.0915
1466	2149156	3205363576	38.2884	11.2600	1521	2322931	3562345403	39.1068
1467	2152089	3211179777	38.3014	11.2626	1522	2326414	3571545284	39.1221
1468	2155024	3217020978	38.3145	11.2652	1523	2329909	3580829215	39.1374
1469	2157961	3222887179	38.3275	11.2677	1524	2333416	3590187196	39.1527
1470	2160900	3228778380	38.3406	11.2703	1525	2336935	3600629217	39.1680
1471	2163841	3234694581	38.3536	11.2729	1526	2340466	3611155284	39.1833
1472	2166784	3240635782	38.3667	11.2755	1527	2344009	3621765405	39.1986
1473	2169729	3246601983	38.3797	11.2781	1528	2347564	3632459576	39.2139
1474	2172676	3252593184	38.3928	11.2807	1529	2351131	3643237703	39.2292

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES. 105

Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	
11	1207.79	121921.07	461	1448.37	166913.60	598	1658.70	218056.44
12	1302.33	12941.75	462	1451.42	167038.53	599	1661.90	219786.61
13	1404.67	12763.00	463	1454.56	168163.02	600	1665.01	220518.34
14	1513.31	12576.82	464	1457.70	169288.08	601	1668.19	221251.65
15	1628.64	12383.17	465	1460.84	170412.72	602	1671.34	221986.68
16	1750.97	12192.00	466	1463.98	171537.92	603	1674.47	222723.43
17	1880.51	11992.31	467	1467.12	172662.70	604	1677.61	223461.90
18	2017.46	11794.00	468	1470.27	173787.05	605	1680.75	224202.10
19	2162.03	11597.18	469	1473.41	174911.97	606	1683.89	224944.13
20	2314.54	11401.83	470	1476.55	176037.45	607	1687.04	225687.88
21	2475.31	11208.05	471	1479.69	177162.50	608	1690.18	226433.35
22	2644.66	11015.83	472	1482.83	178287.14	609	1693.32	227180.55
23	2822.91	10825.16	473	1485.97	179412.35	610	1696.46	227929.48
24	3010.38	10636.03	474	1489.11	180537.14	611	1699.60	228680.12
25	3207.39	10448.45	475	1492.26	181662.50	612	1702.74	229432.57
26	3414.26	10262.42	476	1495.40	182787.43	613	1705.88	230186.83
27	3631.31	10077.94	477	1498.54	183912.94	614	1709.02	230942.90
28	3858.86	9895.00	478	1501.68	185038.04	615	1712.17	231699.79
29	4096.33	9713.61	479	1504.82	186162.72	616	1715.31	232458.50
30	4344.04	9533.77	480	1507.96	187287.97	617	1718.45	233219.03
31	4602.31	9355.48	481	1511.11	188412.79	618	1721.59	233981.38
32	4871.46	9178.75	482	1514.25	189537.18	619	1724.73	234745.55
33	5151.81	8993.57	483	1517.39	190662.14	620	1727.88	235511.54
34	5443.68	8810.04	484	1520.53	191787.67	621	1731.02	236279.35
35	5747.39	8628.16	485	1523.67	192912.77	622	1734.16	237048.98
36	6063.26	8447.93	486	1526.81	194037.44	623	1737.30	237820.43
37	6391.61	8269.35	487	1529.96	195162.68	624	1740.44	238593.70
38	6732.76	8092.42	488	1533.10	196287.39	625	1743.58	239368.79
39	7086.93	7917.14	489	1536.24	197412.58	626	1746.73	240145.70
40	7454.44	7743.51	490	1539.38	198537.34	627	1749.87	240924.43
41	7835.61	7571.53	491	1542.52	199662.67	628	1753.01	241704.98
42	8230.76	7401.20	492	1545.66	200787.97	629	1756.15	242487.35
43	8640.31	7232.52	493	1548.81	201912.94	630	1759.29	243271.54
44	9064.68	7065.49	494	1551.95	203037.68	631	1762.43	244057.55
45	9503.29	6900.11	495	1555.09	204162.19	632	1765.58	244845.38
46	9956.46	6736.48	496	1558.23	205287.48	633	1768.72	245634.93
47	10424.51	6574.60	497	1561.37	206412.54	634	1771.86	246426.20
48	10907.86	6414.47	498	1564.51	207537.38	635	1775.00	247219.29
49	11406.83	6256.09	499	1567.65	208662.99	636	1778.14	248014.10
50	11921.84	6100.46	500	1570.80	209787.54	637	1781.28	248810.63
51	12453.21	5947.58	501	1573.94	210912.14	638	1784.42	249608.88
52	13001.36	5797.45	502	1577.08	212037.80	639	1787.57	250408.95
53	13566.61	5649.07	503	1580.22	213162.95	640	1790.71	251210.84
54	14149.38	5502.44	504	1583.36	214287.27	641	1793.85	252014.55
55	14749.09	5357.56	505	1586.50	215412.08	642	1796.99	252820.08
56	15366.16	5214.43	506	1589.65	216537.94	643	1800.13	253627.43
57	16000.01	5073.05	507	1592.79	217662.95	644	1803.27	254436.60
58	16651.06	4933.42	508	1595.93	218787.11	645	1806.42	255247.59
59	17319.83	4795.54	509	1599.07	219912.42	646	1809.56	256060.40
60	18006.74	4659.41	510	1602.21	221037.88	647	1812.70	256875.03
61	18712.21	4525.03	511	1605.35	222162.49	648	1815.84	257691.48
62	19436.76	4392.40	512	1608.50	223287.25	649	1818.98	258509.75
63	20180.81	4261.52	513	1611.64	224412.16	650	1822.12	259329.84
64	20943.78	4132.39	514	1614.78	225537.22	651	1825.27	260151.79
65	21726.09	4005.01	515	1617.92	226662.43	652	1828.41	260975.48
66	22528.16	3879.38	516	1621.06	227787.79	653	1831.55	261801.03
67	23350.41	3755.50	517	1624.20	228912.30	654	1834.69	262628.40
68	24193.26	3633.37	518	1627.34	230037.96	655	1837.83	263457.61
69	25057.13	3512.99	519	1630.49	231162.77	656	1840.97	264288.66
70	25942.44	3394.36	520	1633.63	232287.74	657	1844.11	265121.45
71	26849.61	3277.48	521	1636.77	233412.96	658	1847.26	265955.98
72	27779.06	3162.35	522	1639.91	234537.43	659	1850.40	266792.35
73	28731.21	3048.97	523	1643.05	235662.15	660	1853.54	267630.56
74	29706.48	2937.34	524	1646.19	236787.12	661	1856.68	268470.61
75	30705.29	2827.46	525	1649.34	237912.34	662	1859.82	269312.50
76	31728.06	2719.33	526	1652.48	239037.81	663	1862.96	270156.23
77	32775.21	2612.95	527	1655.62	240162.53	664	1866.11	271001.80

FIFTH ROOTS AND FIFTH POWER

(Abridged from TRAUTWINE.)

No. or Root.	Power.	No. or Root.	Power.	No. or Root.	Power.	No. or Root.	Power.
10	.000010	3.7	693.440	9.9	90392	21.8	4923597
15	.000075	3.8	792.352	9.0	95009	22.0	5153632
20	.000120	3.9	902.242	10.0	100000	22.2	5392146
25	.000197	4.0	1024.00	10.2	110408	22.4	5639493
30	.002490	4.1	1158.56	10.4	121605	22.6	5895793
35	.005252	4.2	1306.01	10.6	133823	22.8	6161327
40	.010240	4.3	1470.08	10.8	146093	23.0	6436343
45	.018453	4.4	1649.16	11.0	161051	23.2	6721093
50	.031250	4.5	1845.28	11.2	176294	23.4	7015894
55	.050328	4.6	2059.63	11.4	192541	23.6	7320825
60	.077700	4.7	2293.45	11.6	210884	23.8	7636332
65	.110929	4.8	2548.04	11.8	229576	24.0	7963034
70	.160470	4.9	2824.75	12.0	248862	24.2	8299076
75	.225305	5.0	3125.00	12.2	270271	24.4	8645666
80	.327680	5.1	3450.25	12.4	293163	24.6	9003079
85	.448705	5.2	3802.04	12.6	317580	24.8	9381200
90	.590490	5.3	4181.95	12.8	343597	25.0	9765625
95	.773781	5.4	4591.65	13.0	371293	25.2	10167250
1.00	1.000000	5.5	5002.84	13.2	400746	25.4	10595278
1.05	1.27628	5.6	5507.32	13.4	432040	25.6	10955110
1.10	1.61051	5.7	6016.92	13.6	465259	25.8	11347377
1.15	2.01125	5.8	6563.57	13.8	500490	26.0	11781376
1.20	2.48932	5.9	7149.24	14.0	537824	26.2	12245497
1.25	3.05176	6.0	7776.00	14.2	577353	26.4	12838866
1.30	3.71293	6.1	8445.96	14.4	619174	26.6	13467055
1.35	4.48403	6.2	9161.33	14.6	663383	26.8	14132281
1.40	5.37824	6.3	9924.37	14.8	710082	27.0	14838907
1.45	6.40973	6.4	10737	15.0	759975	27.2	14888280
1.50	7.50975	6.5	11693	15.2	811908	27.4	15413752
1.55	8.74661	6.6	12523	15.4	866971	27.6	16016381
1.60	10.1258	6.7	13501	15.6	925090	27.8	16694430
1.65	12.2298	6.8	14539	15.8	986658	28.0	17450968
1.70	14.1986	6.9	15640	16.0	1048576	28.2	17737008
1.75	16.4131	7.0	16807	16.2	1115771	28.4	18455609
1.80	18.8957	7.1	18042	16.4	1186967	28.6	19125075
1.85	21.6700	7.2	19349	16.6	1262493	28.8	19835567
1.90	24.7610	7.3	20731	16.8	1339578	29.0	20581140
1.95	28.1951	7.4	22190	17.0	1419667	29.2	21282353
2.00	32.0000	7.5	23730	17.2	1503566	29.4	21950575
2.05	36.2051	7.6	25355	17.4	1591447	29.6	22727028
2.10	40.8410	7.7	27068	17.6	1683742	29.8	23544628
2.15	45.9101	7.8	28872	17.8	1780809	30.0	24398400
2.20	51.5363	7.9	30771	18.0	1883023	30.2	25293934
2.25	57.6650	8.0	32768	18.2	1990603	31.0	28669151
2.30	64.3634	8.1	34868	18.4	2103861	31.5	310136912
2.35	71.6703	8.2	37074	18.6	2222923	32.0	33554432
2.40	79.6202	8.3	39390	18.8	2348403	32.5	36250602
2.45	88.2562	8.4	41821	19.0	2479900	33.0	39135003
2.50	97.6595	8.5	44371	19.2	2608193	33.5	42191410
2.55	107.830	8.6	47043	19.4	2743949	34.0	45435424
2.60	118.814	8.7	49842	19.6	2887647	34.5	48870980
2.70	143.489	8.8	52773	19.8	3039613	35.0	52521575
2.80	172.104	8.9	55841	20.0	3200000	35.5	56382167
2.90	205.171	9.0	59040	20.2	3269232	36.0	60466176
3.00	243.000	9.1	62403	20.4	3338053	36.5	64783487
3.10	286.292	9.2	65938	20.6	3406677	37.0	69343967
3.20	335.544	9.3	69660	20.8	3476299	37.5	74157715
	391.354	9.4	73580	21.0	3548101	38.0	79255168
	454.354	9.5	77773	21.2	3622322	38.5	84657005
	524			21.4	3699166	39.0	90381503
	602			21.6	3778850	39.5	9635012

DIFFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES.

Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
0.7854	66	204.20	3318.31	120	405.27	13060.81
8.1416	66	207.34	3421.19	120	408.41	13273.33
7.0686	67	210.49	3525.65	121	411.55	13478.22
12.5904	68	213.63	3631.68	122	414.69	13684.78
19.4365	69	216.77	3739.28	123	417.83	13892.91
28.274	70	219.91	3848.45	124	420.97	14102.61
38.985	71	223.05	3959.19	125	424.12	14313.88
50.206	72	226.19	4071.50	126	427.26	14526.72
63.617	73	229.34	4185.39	127	430.40	14741.14
78.540	74	232.48	4300.84	128	433.54	14957.12
95.033	75	235.62	4417.86	129	436.68	15174.68
113.10	76	238.76	4536.46	130	439.82	15393.89
132.73	77	241.90	4656.63	131	442.96	15614.50
153.94	78	245.04	4778.36	132	446.11	15836.77
176.71	79	248.19	4901.67	133	449.25	16060.61
201.06	80	251.33	5026.55	134	452.39	16286.02
226.98	81	254.47	5153.00	135	455.53	16513.00
254.47	82	257.61	5281.02	136	458.67	16741.55
283.53	83	260.75	5410.61	137	461.81	16971.67
314.16	84	263.89	5541.77	138	464.96	17203.36
346.36	85	267.04	5674.50	139	468.10	17436.62
380.13	86	270.19	5808.80	140	471.24	17671.46
415.48	87	273.32	5944.68	141	474.38	17907.86
452.39	88	276.46	6082.12	142	477.52	18145.84
490.87	89	279.60	6221.14	143	480.66	18385.39
530.93	90	282.74	6361.73	144	483.81	18626.50
572.66	91	285.88	6503.88	145	486.95	18869.19
615.75	92	289.03	6647.61	146	490.09	19113.43
660.32	93	292.17	6792.91	147	493.23	19359.25
706.46	94	295.31	6939.78	148	496.37	19606.68
754.17	95	298.45	7088.22	149	499.51	19855.65
803.45	96	301.59	7238.23	150	502.65	20106.19
854.30	97	304.73	7389.81	151	505.80	20358.31
906.72	98	307.88	7542.96	152	508.94	20611.99
961.11	99	311.02	7697.69	153	512.08	20867.24
1017.48	100	314.16	7853.98	154	515.22	21124.07
1075.21	101	317.30	8011.85	155	518.36	21382.46
1134.11	102	320.44	8171.28	156	521.50	21642.43
1194.50	103	323.58	8332.29	157	524.65	21903.97
1256.64	104	326.73	8494.87	158	527.79	22167.08
1320.25	105	329.87	8659.01	159	530.93	22431.76
1385.44	106	333.01	8824.73	160	534.07	22698.01
1452.20	107	336.15	8992.02	161	537.21	22965.83
1520.53	108	339.29	9160.88	162	540.35	23235.22
1590.43	109	342.43	9331.32	163	543.50	23506.18
1661.96	110	345.58	9503.32	164	546.64	23778.71
1734.94	111	348.72	9676.89	165	549.78	24052.82
1809.50	112	351.86	9852.03	166	552.92	24328.49
1885.74	113	355.00	10028.75	167	556.06	24605.74
1963.50	114	358.14	10207.03	168	559.20	24884.56
2042.82	115	361.28	10386.89	169	562.35	25164.94
2123.72	116	364.42	10568.32	170	565.49	25446.90
2206.18	117	367.57	10751.32	181	568.63	25730.43
2290.22	118	370.71	10935.88	182	571.77	26015.58
2375.89	119	373.85	11122.02	183	574.91	26302.20
2463.01	120	376.99	11309.73	184	578.05	26590.44
2551.76	121	380.13	11499.01	185	581.19	26880.25
2642.08	122	383.27	11689.87	186	584.34	27171.63
2733.97	123	386.42	11882.29	187	587.48	27464.64
2827.43	124	389.56	12076.28	188	590.62	27759.31
2922.47	125	392.70	12271.85	189	593.76	28055.72
3019.07	126	395.84	12468.98	190	596.90	28353.97
3117.25	127	398.98	12667.69	191	600.04	28653.98
3216.99	128	402.12	12867.96	192	603.19	28955.72

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
103	606.33	29255.30	260	816.81	53092.92	327	1027.7
104	609.47	29559.25	261	819.96	53502.11	328	1030.7
105	612.61	29864.77	262	823.10	53912.87	329	1033.7
106	615.75	30171.86	263	826.24	54325.21	330	1036.7
107	618.89	30480.52	264	829.38	54739.11	331	1039.7
108	622.04	30790.75	265	832.52	55154.69	332	1042.7
109	625.18	31102.56	266	835.66	55571.08	333	1045.7
200	628.32	31415.95	267	838.81	55989.25	334	1048.7
201	631.46	31730.87	268	841.95	56409.44	335	1051.7
202	634.60	32047.39	269	845.09	56832.20	336	1054.7
203	637.74	32365.47	270	848.23	57255.53	337	1057.7
204	640.88	32685.13	271	851.37	57680.43	338	1060.7
205	644.03	33006.36	272	854.51	58106.90	339	1063.7
206	647.17	33329.16	273	857.65	58534.94	340	1066.7
207	650.31	33653.53	274	860.80	58964.55	341	1069.7
208	653.45	33979.47	275	863.94	59395.74	342	1072.7
209	656.59	34306.98	276	867.08	59828.49	343	1075.7
210	659.73	34636.06	277	870.22	60262.82	344	1078.7
211	662.88	34966.71	278	873.36	60698.71	345	1081.7
212	666.02	35298.94	279	876.50	61136.18	346	1084.7
213	669.16	35632.73	280	879.65	61575.23	347	1087.7
214	672.30	35968.09	281	882.79	62015.82	348	1090.7
215	675.44	36305.03	282	885.93	62458.00	349	1093.7
216	678.58	36643.54	283	889.07	62901.75	350	1096.7
217	681.73	36983.61	284	892.21	63347.07	351	1100.7
218	684.87	37325.26	285	895.35	63793.97	352	1103.7
219	688.01	37668.48	286	898.50	64242.43	353	1106.7
220	691.15	38013.27	287	901.64	64692.46	354	1110.7
221	694.29	38359.63	288	904.78	65144.07	355	1113.7
222	697.43	38707.56	289	907.92	65597.24	356	1116.7
223	700.58	39057.07	290	911.06	66051.99	357	1119.7
224	703.72	39408.14	291	914.20	66508.30	358	1122.7
225	706.86	39760.78	292	917.35	66966.19	359	1125.7
226	710.00	40115.00	293	920.49	67425.65	360	1128.7
227	713.14	40471.78	294	923.63	67886.68	361	1131.7
228	716.28	40830.14	295	926.77	68349.28	362	1134.7
229	719.42	41189.07	296	929.91	68813.45	363	1137.7
230	722.57	41549.56	297	933.05	69279.19	364	1140.7
231	725.71	41911.69	298	936.19	69746.50	365	1143.7
232	728.85	42275.37	299	939.34	70215.38	366	1146.7
233	731.99	42640.68	300	942.48	70685.83	367	1149.7
234	735.13	43007.62	301	945.62	71157.96	368	1152.7
235	738.27	43376.19	302	948.76	71631.45	369	1155.7
236	741.42	43746.34	303	951.90	72106.62	370	1158.7
237	744.56	44118.03	304	955.04	72583.36	371	1161.7
238	747.70	44491.29	305	958.19	73061.66	372	1164.7
239	750.84	44866.13	306	961.33	73541.54	373	1167.7
240	753.98	45242.56	307	964.47	74022.99	374	1170.7
241	757.12	45620.67	308	967.61	74506.00	375	1173.7
242	760.27	45999.46	309	970.75	74990.60	376	1176.7
243	763.41	46379.95	310	973.89	75476.77	377	1179.7
244	766.55	46762.15	311	977.04	75964.50	378	1182.7
245	769.69	47146.05	312	980.18	76453.80	379	1185.7
246	772.83	47531.65	313	983.32	76944.67	380	1188.7
247	775.97	47918.96	314	986.46	77437.13	381	1191.7
248	779.11	48308.08	315	989.60	77931.13	382	1194.7
249	782.25	48698.92	316	992.74	78426.72	383	1197.7
250	785.40	49091.59	317	995.88	78923.98	384	1200.7
251	788.54	49486.07	318	999.03	79422.80	385	1203.7
252	791.68	49882.35	319	1002.17	79923.20	386	1206.7
253	794.82	50280.55	320	1005.31	80425.27	387	1209.7
254	797.96	50680.75	321	1008.45	80928.91	388	1212.7
255	801.11	51082.92	322	1011.59	81433.22	389	1215.7
256	804.25	51487.15	323	1014.73	81939.20	390	1218.7
257	807.39	51893.45	324	1017.88	82447.86	391	1221.7
258	810.53	52301.82	325	1021.02	82958.18	392	1224.7
259	813.67	52712.26	326	1024.16	83469.98	393	1227.7

Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
42.804	145.80	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	48.722	375.88	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	94.640	712.76
43.137	144.49	22	49.115	380.13	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	95.083	718.69
43.509	151.20	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	49.508	384.46	32	95.426	724.64
43.922	153.94	23	49.900	388.82	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	95.819	730.62
44.375	156.70	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	50.293	393.20	33	96.211	736.62
44.768	159.48	24	50.686	397.61	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	96.604	742.64
45.160	162.30	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	51.079	402.04	34	96.997	748.69
45.553	165.13	25	51.471	406.49	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	97.390	754.77
45.946	167.99	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	51.864	410.97	35	97.782	760.87
46.338	170.87	26	52.257	415.48	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	98.175	766.99
46.731	173.78	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	52.649	420.00	36	98.567	773.14
47.124	176.71	27	53.042	424.56	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	98.960	779.31
47.517	179.67	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	53.435	429.13	37	99.353	785.51
47.910	182.65	28	53.827	433.74	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	99.746	791.73
48.302	185.66	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	54.220	438.39	38	100.139	797.94
48.695	188.69	29	54.613	443.01	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	100.531	804.25
49.087	191.75	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	55.006	447.69	39	100.924	810.54
49.480	194.83	30	55.398	452.39	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	101.316	816.86
49.873	197.93	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	55.791	457.11	40	101.709	823.21
50.265	201.06	31	56.184	461.86	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	102.102	829.58
50.658	204.22	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	56.576	466.64	41	102.494	835.97
51.051	207.39	32	56.969	471.44	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	102.887	842.39
51.444	210.60	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	57.362	476.26	42	103.280	848.84
51.836	213.82	33	57.754	481.11	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	103.673	855.30
52.229	217.08	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	58.147	485.98	43	104.065	861.79
52.622	220.35	34	58.540	490.87	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	104.458	868.31
53.014	223.65	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	58.933	495.79	44	104.851	874.85
53.407	226.98	35	59.325	500.74	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	105.243	881.41
53.800	230.33	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	59.718	505.71	45	105.636	888.00
54.192	233.71	36	60.111	510.71	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	106.029	894.62
54.585	237.10	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	60.503	515.73	46	106.421	901.26
54.978	240.53	37	60.896	520.77	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	106.814	907.92
55.371	243.98	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	61.289	525.84	47	107.207	914.61
55.764	247.45	38	61.681	530.93	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	107.600	921.32
56.156	250.95	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	62.074	536.05	48	107.992	928.06
56.549	254.47	39	62.467	541.19	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	108.385	934.83
56.941	258.02	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	62.860	546.35	49	108.778	941.61
57.334	261.59	40	63.252	551.55	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	109.170	948.42
57.727	265.18	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	63.645	556.76	50	109.563	955.25
58.119	268.80	41	64.038	562.00	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	109.956	962.11
58.512	272.45	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	64.430	567.27	51	110.348	969.00
58.905	276.13	42	64.823	572.56	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	110.741	975.91
59.298	279.84	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	65.216	577.87	52	111.134	982.84
59.690	283.59	43	65.608	583.21	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	111.527	989.80
60.083	287.35	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	66.001	588.57	53	111.919	996.78
60.476	291.14	44	66.394	593.96	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	112.312	1003.8
60.869	294.93	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	66.786	599.37	54	112.705	1010.8
61.261	298.75	45	67.179	604.81	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	113.097	1017.9
61.654	302.59	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	67.572	610.27	55	113.490	1025.0
62.047	306.35	46	67.965	615.75	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	113.883	1032.1
62.440	310.24	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	68.357	621.25	56	114.275	1039.2
62.832	314.16	47	68.750	626.80	56 $\frac{1}{2}$	114.668	1046.3
63.225	318.10	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	69.143	632.36	57	115.061	1053.5
63.617	322.06	48	69.535	637.94	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	115.454	1060.7
64.010	326.05	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	69.928	643.55	58	115.846	1068.0
64.403	330.06	49	70.321	649.18	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	116.239	1075.2
64.795	334.10	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	70.713	654.81	59	116.632	1082.5
65.188	338.16	50	71.106	660.42	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	117.024	1089.8
65.581	342.25	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	71.499	666.05	60	117.417	1097.1
65.973	346.36	51	71.892	671.70	60 $\frac{1}{2}$	117.810	1104.5
66.366	350.50	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	72.284	677.37	61	118.202	1111.8
66.758	354.66	52	72.677	683.09	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	118.595	1119.2
67.151	358.84	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	73.070	688.80	62	118.988	1126.7
67.544	363.05	53	73.462	694.53	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	119.381	1134.1
67.937	367.28	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	73.855	700.28	63	119.773	1141.7
68.330	371.54	54	74.248	706.05	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	120.166	1149.

Diam.	Circum.	Ares.	Diam.	Circum.	Ares.	Diam.	Circum.
595	1869.25	278050.58	662	2082.88	345396.69	731	2296.51
596	1872.39	278985.99	663	2086.02	346278.91	732	2299.65
597	1875.53	279922.97	664	2089.16	347162.70	733	2302.79
598	1878.67	280861.52	665	2092.30	348048.07	734	2305.93
599	1881.81	281801.65	666	2095.44	348935.00	735	2309.07
600	1884.96	282743.34	667	2098.58	349823.51	736	2312.21
601	1888.10	283686.60	668	2101.73	350713.59	737	2315.35
602	1891.24	284631.44	669	2104.87	351605.25	738	2318.49
603	1894.38	285577.84	670	2108.01	352508.45	739	2321.63
604	1897.52	286525.82	671	2111.15	353413.24	740	2324.77
605	1900.66	287475.36	672	2114.29	354319.60	741	2327.91
606	1903.81	288426.48	673	2117.43	355227.54	742	2331.05
607	1906.95	289379.17	674	2120.58	356137.04	743	2334.19
608	1910.09	290333.43	675	2123.72	357048.11	744	2337.33
609	1913.23	291289.26	676	2126.86	357960.75	745	2340.47
610	1916.37	292246.66	677	2130.00	358875.00	746	2343.61
611	1919.51	293205.63	678	2133.14	359790.75	747	2346.75
612	1922.65	294166.17	679	2136.28	360708.11	748	2349.89
613	1925.80	295128.28	680	2139.42	361627.04	749	2353.03
614	1928.94	296091.97	681	2142.57	362547.54	750	2356.17
615	1932.08	297057.22	682	2145.71	363469.60	751	2359.31
616	1935.22	298024.05	683	2148.85	364393.24	752	2362.45
617	1938.36	298992.44	684	2151.99	365318.45	753	2365.59
618	1941.50	299962.41	685	2155.13	366245.25	754	2368.73
619	1944.65	300933.97	686	2158.27	367173.61	755	2371.87
620	1947.79	301907.05	687	2161.42	368103.51	756	2375.01
621	1950.93	302881.73	688	2164.56	369034.90	757	2378.15
622	1954.07	303857.06	689	2167.70	370007.87	758	2381.29
623	1957.21	304833.97	690	2170.84	370982.40	759	2384.43
624	1960.35	305812.50	691	2173.98	371958.51	760	2387.57
625	1963.50	306792.66	692	2177.12	372936.11	761	2390.71
626	1966.64	307774.46	693	2180.27	373915.25	762	2393.85
627	1969.78	308757.92	694	2183.41	374896.95	763	2396.99
628	1972.92	309743.06	695	2186.55	375880.25	764	2399.13
629	1976.06	310729.77	696	2189.69	376865.11	765	2402.27
630	1979.20	311718.06	697	2192.83	377851.54	766	2405.41
631	1982.35	312707.92	698	2195.97	378839.54	767	2408.55
632	1985.49	313700.38	699	2199.11	379829.11	768	2411.69
633	1988.63	314694.40	700	2202.25	380820.25	769	2414.83
634	1991.77	315690.00	701	2205.39	381812.95	770	2417.97
635	1994.91	316687.17	702	2208.53	382807.25	771	2421.11
636	1998.05	317685.92	703	2211.67	383803.11	772	2424.25
637	2001.19	318686.23	704	2214.81	384800.54	773	2427.39
638	2004.33	319688.11	705	2217.95	385799.54	774	2430.53
639	2007.48	320691.56	706	2221.09	386799.11	775	2433.67
640	2010.62	321696.60	707	2224.23	387800.25	776	2436.81
641	2013.76	322703.21	708	2227.37	388802.95	777	2439.95
642	2016.90	323711.40	709	2230.51	389807.25	778	2443.09
643	2020.04	324721.17	710	2233.65	390813.11	779	2446.23
644	2023.18	325732.52	711	2236.79	391820.54	780	2449.37
645	2026.33	326745.45	712	2239.93	392829.54	781	2452.51
646	2029.47	327759.92	713	2243.07	393840.11	782	2455.65
647	2032.61	328775.97	714	2246.21	394852.25	783	2458.79
648	2035.75	329793.61	715	2249.35	395865.95	784	2461.93
649	2038.89	330812.80	716	2252.49	396881.25	785	2465.07
650	2042.03	331833.52	717	2255.63	397898.11	786	2468.21
651	2045.18	332855.78	718	2258.77	398916.54	787	2471.35
652	2048.32	333879.59	719	2261.91	399936.54	788	2474.49
653	2051.46	334904.95	720	2265.05	400958.11	789	2477.63
654	2054.60	335931.86	721	2268.19	401981.25	790	2480.77
655	2057.74	336960.35	722	2271.33	403006.95	791	2483.91
656	2060.88	337990.40	723	2274.47	404034.11	792	2487.05
657	2064.03	339022.00	724	2277.61	405062.80	793	2490.19
658	2067.17	340055.17	725	2280.75	406092.11	794	2493.33
659	2070.31	341089.92	726	2283.89	407123.00	795	2496.47
660	2073.45	342126.25	727	2287.03	408155.00	796	2499.61
661	2076.59	343164.17	728	2290.17	409188.11	797	2502.75
662	2079.73	344203.68	729	2293.31	410223.33	798	2505.89
663	2082.87	345244.78	730	2296.45	411260.11	799	2509.03
664	2086.01	346287.48	731	2299.59	412298.45	800	2512.17

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
71 $\frac{36}{100}$	224.231	4001.1	70 $\frac{54}{100}$	250.149	4970.5
71 $\frac{34}{100}$	221.624	4015.2	70 $\frac{52}{100}$	250.542	4985.2
71 $\frac{32}{100}$	225.017	4029.2	70 $\frac{50}{100}$	250.935	5000.0
71 $\frac{30}{100}$	225.409	4043.3	70 $\frac{48}{100}$	251.327	5000.5
72 $\frac{34}{100}$	225.802	4057.4	70 $\frac{46}{100}$	251.720	5012.3
72 $\frac{32}{100}$	226.195	4071.5	70 $\frac{44}{100}$	252.113	5024.0
72 $\frac{30}{100}$	226.587	4085.7	70 $\frac{42}{100}$	252.506	5035.8
72 $\frac{28}{100}$	226.980	4099.8	70 $\frac{40}{100}$	252.898	5047.6
72 $\frac{26}{100}$	227.373	4114.0	70 $\frac{38}{100}$	253.291	5059.4
72 $\frac{24}{100}$	227.765	4128.2	70 $\frac{36}{100}$	253.684	5071.2
72 $\frac{22}{100}$	228.158	4142.3	70 $\frac{34}{100}$	254.076	5083.1
72 $\frac{20}{100}$	228.551	4156.8	70 $\frac{32}{100}$	254.469	5095.0
72 $\frac{18}{100}$	228.944	4171.1	70 $\frac{30}{100}$	254.862	5106.9
72 $\frac{16}{100}$	229.336	4185.4	70 $\frac{28}{100}$	255.254	5118.8
72 $\frac{14}{100}$	229.729	4199.7	70 $\frac{26}{100}$	255.647	5130.7
72 $\frac{12}{100}$	230.122	4214.1	70 $\frac{24}{100}$	256.040	5142.6
72 $\frac{10}{100}$	230.514	4228.5	70 $\frac{22}{100}$	256.433	5154.5
72 $\frac{8}{100}$	230.907	4242.9	70 $\frac{20}{100}$	256.825	5166.4
72 $\frac{6}{100}$	231.300	4257.4	70 $\frac{18}{100}$	257.218	5178.3
72 $\frac{4}{100}$	231.692	4271.8	70 $\frac{16}{100}$	257.611	5190.2
72 $\frac{2}{100}$	232.085	4286.3	70 $\frac{14}{100}$	258.003	5202.1
73 $\frac{34}{100}$	232.478	4300.8	70 $\frac{12}{100}$	258.396	5214.0
73 $\frac{32}{100}$	232.871	4315.4	70 $\frac{10}{100}$	258.789	5225.9
73 $\frac{30}{100}$	233.263	4329.9	70 $\frac{8}{100}$	259.181	5237.8
73 $\frac{28}{100}$	233.656	4344.5	70 $\frac{6}{100}$	259.574	5249.7
73 $\frac{26}{100}$	234.049	4359.2	70 $\frac{4}{100}$	259.967	5261.6
73 $\frac{24}{100}$	234.441	4373.8	70 $\frac{2}{100}$	260.359	5273.5
73 $\frac{22}{100}$	234.834	4388.5	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	260.752	5285.4
73 $\frac{20}{100}$	235.227	4403.1	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	261.145	5297.3
73 $\frac{18}{100}$	235.619	4417.9	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	261.538	5309.2
73 $\frac{16}{100}$	236.012	4432.6	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	261.930	5321.1
73 $\frac{14}{100}$	236.405	4447.4	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	262.323	5333.0
73 $\frac{12}{100}$	236.798	4462.2	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	262.716	5344.9
73 $\frac{10}{100}$	237.190	4477.0	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	263.108	5356.8
73 $\frac{8}{100}$	237.583	4491.8	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	263.501	5368.7
73 $\frac{6}{100}$	237.976	4506.7	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	263.894	5380.6
73 $\frac{4}{100}$	238.368	4521.5	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	264.286	5392.5
73 $\frac{2}{100}$	238.761	4536.3	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	264.679	5404.4
74 $\frac{34}{100}$	239.154	4551.4	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	265.072	5416.3
74 $\frac{32}{100}$	239.546	4566.4	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	265.465	5428.2
74 $\frac{30}{100}$	239.939	4581.3	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	265.857	5440.1
74 $\frac{28}{100}$	240.332	4596.3	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	266.250	5452.0
74 $\frac{26}{100}$	240.725	4611.4	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	266.643	5463.9
74 $\frac{24}{100}$	241.117	4626.4	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	267.035	5475.8
74 $\frac{22}{100}$	241.510	4641.5	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	267.428	5487.7
74 $\frac{20}{100}$	241.903	4656.6	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	267.821	5499.6
74 $\frac{18}{100}$	242.295	4671.8	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	268.213	5511.5
74 $\frac{16}{100}$	242.688	4686.9	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	268.606	5523.4
74 $\frac{14}{100}$	243.081	4702.1	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	268.999	5535.3
74 $\frac{12}{100}$	243.473	4717.3	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	269.392	5547.2
74 $\frac{10}{100}$	243.866	4732.5	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	269.784	5559.1
74 $\frac{8}{100}$	244.259	4747.8	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	270.177	5571.0
74 $\frac{6}{100}$	244.652	4763.1	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	270.570	5582.9
74 $\frac{4}{100}$	245.044	4778.4	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	270.962	5594.8
74 $\frac{2}{100}$	245.437	4793.7	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	271.355	5606.7
75 $\frac{34}{100}$	245.830	4809.0	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	271.748	5618.6
75 $\frac{32}{100}$	246.222	4824.3	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	272.140	5630.5
75 $\frac{30}{100}$	246.615	4839.8	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	272.533	5642.4
75 $\frac{28}{100}$	247.008	4855.2	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	272.926	5654.3
75 $\frac{26}{100}$	247.400	4870.7	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	273.319	5666.2
75 $\frac{24}{100}$	247.793	4886.2	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	273.711	5678.1
75 $\frac{22}{100}$	248.186	4901.7	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	274.104	5690.0
75 $\frac{20}{100}$	248.579	4917.2	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	274.497	5701.9
75 $\frac{18}{100}$	248.971	4932.7	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	274.890	5713.8
75 $\frac{16}{100}$	249.364	4948.3	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	275.282	5725.7
75 $\frac{14}{100}$	249.757	4963.9	70 $\frac{0}{100}$	275.675	5737.6
75 $\frac{12}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
75 $\frac{10}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
75 $\frac{8}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
75 $\frac{6}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
75 $\frac{4}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
75 $\frac{2}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{34}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{32}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{30}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{28}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{26}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{24}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{22}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{20}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{18}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{16}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{14}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{12}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{10}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{8}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{6}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{4}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		
76 $\frac{2}{100}$			70 $\frac{0}{100}$		

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES
Advancing by Eighths.

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
1/4	.04909	.00019	2 3/4	7.4613	4.4301	6 1/4	19.792
1/2	.09818	.00077	7/16	7.6576	4.5964	6 1/2	19.968
3/4	.14726	.00173	1 1/4	7.8540	4.7687	6 3/4	20.144
1	.19635	.00307	9/16	8.0503	5.1552	6 7/8	20.320
5/8	.24543	.00690	5/8	8.2467	5.4119	7	20.496
3/4	.29452	.01227	11/16	8.4430	5.6727	7 1/8	20.672
7/8	.34360	.01917	3/4	8.6394	5.9396	7 1/4	20.848
1 1/8	.39269	.02761	13/16	8.8357	6.2126	7 1/2	21.024
1 1/4	.44178	.03758	1 1/4	9.0321	6.4918	7 3/4	21.200
1 1/2	.49087	.04909	15/16	9.2284	6.7771	7 7/8	21.376
1 3/4	.53996	.06226	8	9.4248	7.0686	8	21.552
2	.58905	.07709	1/16	9.6211	7.3662	8 1/4	21.728
2 1/4	.63814	.09358	1/8	9.8175	7.6699	8 1/2	21.904
2 1/2	.68723	.11173	3/16	10.014	7.9798	8 3/4	22.080
2 3/4	.73632	.13154	1/4	10.210	8.2958	8 7/8	22.256
3	.78541	.15301	5/16	10.407	8.6179	9	22.432
3 1/4	.83450	.17614	3/8	10.603	8.9462	9 1/4	22.608
3 1/2	.88359	.20093	7/16	10.799	9.2806	9 1/2	22.784
3 3/4	.93268	.22738	1/2	10.996	9.6211	9 3/4	22.960
4	.98177	.25549	5/8	11.192	9.9678	10	23.136
4 1/4	1.03086	.28526	9/16	11.389	10.321	10 1/4	23.312
4 1/2	1.07995	.31669	5/8	11.585	10.680	10 1/2	23.488
4 3/4	1.12904	.34980	11/16	11.781	11.045	10 3/4	23.664
5	1.17813	.38459	3/4	11.977	11.416	10 7/8	23.840
5 1/4	1.22722	.42104	13/16	12.174	11.793	11	24.016
5 1/2	1.27631	.45915	7/8	12.370	12.177	11 1/4	24.192
5 3/4	1.32540	.49892	15/16	12.567	12.568	11 1/2	24.368
6	1.37449	.54035	1	12.763	12.964	11 3/4	24.544
6 1/4	1.42358	.58346	1 1/16	12.959	13.364	11 7/8	24.720
6 1/2	1.47267	.62823	1 1/8	13.155	13.772	12	24.896
6 3/4	1.52176	.67466	1 1/4	13.352	14.186	12 1/4	25.072
6 7/8	1.57085	.72277	3/8	13.548	14.607	12 1/2	25.248
7	1.61994	.77254	5/8	13.744	15.034	12 3/4	25.424
7 1/4	1.66903	.82397	7/8	13.941	15.466	12 7/8	25.600
7 1/2	1.71812	.87656	15/16	14.137	15.904	13	25.776
7 3/4	1.76721	.93031	1	14.334	16.349	13 1/4	25.952
8	1.81630	.98522	1 1/16	14.530	16.800	13 1/2	26.128
8 1/4	1.86539	1.04129	1 1/8	14.726	17.257	13 3/4	26.304
8 1/2	1.91448	1.09852	3/4	14.923	17.720	13 7/8	26.480
8 3/4	1.96357	1.15691	13/16	15.119	18.189	14	26.656
9	2.01266	1.21646	7/8	15.315	18.663	14 1/4	26.832
9 1/4	2.06175	1.27717	15/16	15.512	19.147	14 1/2	27.008
9 1/2	2.11084	1.33904	1	15.708	19.635	14 3/4	27.184
9 3/4	2.15993	1.40207	1 1/16	15.904	20.129	14 7/8	27.360
10	2.20902	1.46626	1 1/8	16.101	20.629	14 7/4	27.536
10 1/4	2.25811	1.53161	3/8	16.297	21.135	15	27.712
10 1/2	2.30720	1.59812	5/8	16.493	21.648	15 1/4	27.888
10 3/4	2.35629	1.66579	7/8	16.690	22.164	15 1/2	28.064
11	2.40538	1.73462	15/16	16.886	22.691	15 3/4	28.240
11 1/4	2.45447	1.80461	1	17.082	23.221	15 7/8	28.416
11 1/2	2.50356	1.87576	1 1/16	17.278	23.758	16	28.592
11 3/4	2.55265	1.94807	1 1/8	17.475	24.301	16 1/4	28.768
12	2.60174	2.02154	3/8	17.671	24.850	16 1/2	28.944
12 1/4	2.65083	2.09617	5/8	17.868	25.405	16 3/4	29.120
12 1/2	2.70000	2.17196	7/8	18.064	25.967	16 7/8	29.296
12 3/4	2.74917	2.24891	13/16	18.261	26.535	17	29.472
13	2.79834	2.32602	7/8	18.457	27.109	17 1/4	29.648
13 1/4	2.84751	2.40429	15/16	18.653	27.689	17 1/2	29.824
13 1/2	2.89668	2.48372	1	18.850	28.274	17 3/4	30.000

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES. 109

Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
42.804	145.80	21 $\frac{3}{4}$	68.722	775.83	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	94.040	712.76
43.197	148.40	22	69.115	780.13	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	95.033	718.69
43.590	151.20	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	69.508	784.46	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	96.026	724.64
43.982	153.94	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	69.900	788.82	31	97.019	730.62
44.375	156.70	23	70.293	793.20	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	98.011	736.62
44.768	159.48	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	70.686	797.61	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	99.004	742.64
45.160	162.30	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	71.079	802.04	31 $\frac{3}{4}$	100.007	748.69
45.553	165.13	24	71.471	806.49	32	101.009	754.77
45.946	167.99	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	71.864	810.97	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	102.011	760.87
46.338	170.87	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	72.257	815.48	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	103.013	766.99
46.731	173.78	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	72.649	820.00	32 $\frac{3}{4}$	104.015	773.14
47.124	176.71	25	73.042	824.56	33	105.017	779.31
47.517	179.67	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	73.435	829.13	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	106.019	785.51
47.910	182.65	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	73.827	833.74	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	107.021	791.73
48.302	185.66	25 $\frac{3}{4}$	74.220	838.36	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	108.023	797.98
48.695	188.69	26	74.613	843.01	34	109.025	804.25
49.087	191.75	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	75.006	847.69	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	110.027	810.54
49.480	194.83	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	75.398	852.39	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	111.029	816.86
49.872	197.93	26 $\frac{3}{4}$	75.791	857.11	34 $\frac{3}{4}$	112.031	823.21
50.265	201.06	27	76.184	861.86	35	113.033	829.58
50.658	204.22	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	76.576	866.64	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	114.035	835.97
51.051	207.39	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	76.969	871.44	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	115.037	842.39
51.444	210.60	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	77.362	876.26	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	116.039	848.83
51.836	213.82	28	77.754	881.11	36	117.041	855.30
52.229	217.08	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	78.147	885.98	36 $\frac{1}{4}$	118.043	861.79
52.622	220.35	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	78.540	890.87	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	119.045	868.31
53.014	223.65	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	78.933	895.79	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	120.047	874.85
53.407	226.98	29	79.325	900.74	37	121.049	881.41
53.800	230.33	29 $\frac{1}{4}$	79.718	905.71	37 $\frac{1}{4}$	122.051	888.00
54.192	233.71	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	80.111	910.71	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	123.053	894.62
54.585	237.10	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	80.503	915.72	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	124.055	901.26
54.978	240.53	30	80.896	920.77	38	125.057	907.92
55.371	243.98	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	81.289	925.84	38 $\frac{1}{4}$	126.059	914.61
55.763	247.45	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	81.681	930.93	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	127.061	921.32
56.156	250.95	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	82.074	936.05	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	128.063	928.06
56.549	254.47	31	82.467	941.19	39	129.065	934.82
56.941	258.02	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	82.860	946.35	39 $\frac{1}{4}$	130.067	941.61
57.334	261.59	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	83.252	951.55	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	131.069	948.42
57.727	265.18	31 $\frac{3}{4}$	83.645	956.77	39 $\frac{3}{4}$	132.071	955.25
58.119	268.80	32	84.038	962.00	40	133.073	962.11
58.512	272.45	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	84.430	967.25	40 $\frac{1}{4}$	134.075	969.00
58.905	276.12	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	84.823	972.56	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	135.077	975.91
59.298	279.81	32 $\frac{3}{4}$	85.216	977.87	40 $\frac{3}{4}$	136.079	982.84
59.690	283.53	33	85.608	983.21	41	137.081	989.80
60.083	287.27	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	86.001	988.57	41 $\frac{1}{4}$	138.083	996.78
60.475	291.04	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	86.394	993.96	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	139.085	1003.8
60.868	294.83	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	86.786	999.37	41 $\frac{3}{4}$	140.087	1010.8
61.261	298.65	34	87.179	1004.81	42	141.089	1017.9
61.654	302.49	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	87.572	1010.27	42 $\frac{1}{4}$	142.091	1025.0
62.046	306.35	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	87.965	1015.75	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	143.093	1032.1
62.439	310.24	34 $\frac{3}{4}$	88.357	1021.26	42 $\frac{3}{4}$	144.095	1039.2
62.832	314.16	35	88.750	1026.80	43	145.097	1046.3
63.225	318.10	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	89.143	1032.36	43 $\frac{1}{4}$	146.099	1053.5
63.617	322.06	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	89.535	1037.94	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	147.101	1060.7
64.010	326.05	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	89.928	1043.55	43 $\frac{3}{4}$	148.103	1068.0
64.403	330.06	36	90.321	1049.18	44	149.105	1075.2
64.796	334.10	36 $\frac{1}{4}$	90.713	1054.84	44 $\frac{1}{4}$	150.107	1082.5
65.188	338.16	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	91.106	1060.52	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	151.109	1089.8
65.581	342.25	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	91.499	1066.23	44 $\frac{3}{4}$	152.111	1097.1
65.973	346.36	37	91.892	1071.96	45	153.113	1104.5
66.366	350.50	37 $\frac{1}{4}$	92.284	1077.71	45 $\frac{1}{4}$	154.115	1111.8
66.758	354.66	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	92.677	1083.49	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	155.117	1119.2
67.151	358.84	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	93.070	1089.30	45 $\frac{3}{4}$	156.119	1126.7
67.543	363.05	38	93.462	1095.13	46	157.121	1134.2
67.936	367.28	38 $\frac{1}{4}$	93.855	1100.98	46 $\frac{1}{4}$	158.123	1141.7
68.328	371.54	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	94.248	1106.86	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	159.125	1149.3

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circ.
38 1/2	120.509	1158.6	46 1/2	146.477	1707.4	54 1/2	172.1
38 3/4	120.951	1161.2	46 3/4	146.869	1716.5	54 3/4	172.2
39 1/4	121.844	1171.7	47 1/4	147.262	1725.7	55 1/4	172.3
39 1/2	121.737	1170.3	47 1/2	147.655	1734.9	55 1/2	172.4
39 3/4	122.129	1166.9	47 3/4	148.048	1744.2	55 3/4	172.5
40 1/4	122.522	1161.6	48 1/4	148.440	1753.5	56 1/4	172.6
40 1/2	122.915	1202.3	48 1/2	148.833	1762.7	56 1/2	172.7
40 3/4	123.308	1210.0	48 3/4	149.226	1772.1	56 3/4	172.8
41 1/4	123.700	1217.7	49 1/4	149.618	1781.4	57 1/4	172.9
41 1/2	124.093	1225.4	49 1/2	150.011	1790.8	57 1/2	173.0
41 3/4	124.486	1233.2	49 3/4	150.404	1800.1	57 3/4	173.1
42 1/4	124.878	1241.0	50 1/4	150.796	1809.6	58 1/4	173.2
42 1/2	125.271	1248.8	50 1/2	151.189	1819.0	58 1/2	173.3
42 3/4	125.664	1256.6	50 3/4	151.582	1828.5	58 3/4	173.4
43 1/4	126.056	1264.5	51 1/4	151.975	1837.9	59 1/4	173.5
43 1/2	126.449	1272.4	51 1/2	152.367	1847.5	59 1/2	173.6
43 3/4	126.842	1280.3	51 3/4	152.760	1857.0	59 3/4	173.7
44 1/4	127.235	1288.2	52 1/4	153.153	1866.5	60 1/4	173.8
44 1/2	127.627	1296.2	52 1/2	153.545	1876.1	60 1/2	173.9
44 3/4	128.020	1304.2	52 3/4	153.938	1885.7	60 3/4	174.0
45 1/4	128.413	1312.2	53 1/4	154.331	1895.4	61 1/4	174.1
45 1/2	128.805	1320.3	53 1/2	154.723	1905.0	61 1/2	174.2
45 3/4	129.198	1328.3	53 3/4	155.116	1914.7	61 3/4	174.3
46 1/4	129.591	1336.4	54 1/4	155.509	1924.4	62 1/4	174.4
46 1/2	129.983	1344.5	54 1/2	155.902	1934.2	62 1/2	174.5
46 3/4	130.376	1352.7	54 3/4	156.294	1943.9	62 3/4	174.6
47 1/4	130.769	1360.8	55 1/4	156.687	1953.7	63 1/4	174.7
47 1/2	131.161	1369.0	55 1/2	157.080	1963.5	63 1/2	174.8
47 3/4	131.554	1377.2	55 3/4	157.472	1973.3	63 3/4	174.9
48 1/4	131.947	1385.4	56 1/4	157.865	1983.2	64 1/4	175.0
48 1/2	132.340	1393.7	56 1/2	158.258	1993.1	64 1/2	175.1
48 3/4	132.732	1402.0	56 3/4	158.650	2003.0	64 3/4	175.2
49 1/4	133.125	1410.3	57 1/4	159.043	2012.9	65 1/4	175.3
49 1/2	133.518	1418.6	57 1/2	159.436	2022.8	65 1/2	175.4
49 3/4	133.910	1427.0	57 3/4	159.829	2032.8	65 3/4	175.5
50 1/4	134.303	1435.3	58 1/4	160.221	2042.8	66 1/4	175.6
50 1/2	134.696	1443.8	58 1/2	160.614	2052.8	66 1/2	175.7
50 3/4	135.088	1452.2	58 3/4	161.007	2062.9	66 3/4	175.8
51 1/4	135.481	1460.7	59 1/4	161.399	2073.0	67 1/4	175.9
51 1/2	135.874	1469.1	59 1/2	161.792	2083.1	67 1/2	176.0
51 3/4	136.267	1477.6	59 3/4	162.185	2093.2	67 3/4	176.1
52 1/4	136.659	1486.2	60 1/4	162.577	2103.3	68 1/4	176.2
52 1/2	137.052	1494.7	60 1/2	162.970	2113.5	68 1/2	176.3
52 3/4	137.445	1503.3	60 3/4	163.363	2123.7	68 3/4	176.4
53 1/4	137.837	1511.9	61 1/4	163.756	2133.9	69 1/4	176.5
53 1/2	138.230	1520.5	61 1/2	164.148	2144.2	69 1/2	176.6
53 3/4	138.623	1529.2	61 3/4	164.541	2154.5	69 3/4	176.7
54 1/4	139.015	1537.9	62 1/4	164.934	2164.8	70 1/4	176.8
54 1/2	139.408	1546.6	62 1/2	165.326	2175.1	70 1/2	176.9
54 3/4	139.801	1555.3	62 3/4	165.719	2185.4	70 3/4	177.0
55 1/4	140.194	1564.0	63 1/4	166.112	2195.8	71 1/4	177.1
55 1/2	140.586	1572.8	63 1/2	166.504	2206.2	71 1/2	177.2
55 3/4	140.979	1581.6	63 3/4	166.897	2216.6	71 3/4	177.3
56 1/4	141.372	1590.4	64 1/4	167.290	2227.0	72 1/4	177.4
56 1/2	141.764	1599.3	64 1/2	167.683	2237.5	72 1/2	177.5
56 3/4	142.157	1608.2	64 3/4	168.075	2248.0	72 3/4	177.6
57 1/4	142.550	1617.0	65 1/4	168.468	2258.5	73 1/4	177.7
57 1/2	142.942	1625.9	65 1/2	168.861	2269.1	73 1/2	177.8
57 3/4	143.335	1634.9	65 3/4	169.253	2279.6	73 3/4	177.9
58 1/4	143.728	1643.9	66 1/4	169.646	2290.2	74 1/4	178.0
58 1/2	144.121	1652.9	66 1/2	170.039	2300.8	74 1/2	178.1
58 3/4	144.513	1661.9	66 3/4	170.431	2311.5	74 3/4	178.2
59 1/4	144.906	1670.9	67 1/4	170.824	2322.1	75 1/4	178.3
59 1/2	145.299	1679.9	67 1/2	171.217	2332.8	75 1/2	178.4
59 3/4	145.692	1688.9	67 3/4	171.609	2343.5	75 3/4	178.5
60 1/4	146.085	1697.9	68 1/4	172.002	2354.3	76 1/4	178.6

Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
109.6	71 $\frac{3}{4}$	224.331	4001.1	79 $\frac{5}{8}$	250.149	4079.5
112.0	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	224.644	4015.2	79 $\frac{1}{2}$	250.542	4085.2
114.5	71 $\frac{1}{4}$	225.017	4029.2	79 $\frac{3}{8}$	250.935	4090.9
116.9	71 $\frac{1}{8}$	225.400	4043.3	80	251.327	4096.5
119.4	72	225.802	4057.4	80 $\frac{1}{8}$	251.720	4102.3
121.9	72 $\frac{1}{8}$	226.195	4071.5	80 $\frac{1}{4}$	252.112	4108.0
124.4	72 $\frac{1}{4}$	226.587	4085.5	80 $\frac{3}{8}$	252.505	4113.8
126.9	72 $\frac{1}{2}$	226.980	4099.6	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	252.898	4119.6
129.4	72 $\frac{3}{4}$	227.373	4114.0	80 $\frac{5}{8}$	253.291	4125.4
131.9	73	227.765	4128.2	80 $\frac{3}{4}$	253.684	4131.2
134.4	73 $\frac{1}{8}$	228.158	4142.3	81	254.076	4137.1
136.9	73 $\frac{1}{4}$	228.551	4156.8	81 $\frac{1}{8}$	254.469	4143.0
139.4	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	228.944	4171.1	81 $\frac{1}{4}$	254.862	4148.9
141.9	73 $\frac{3}{4}$	229.336	4185.4	81 $\frac{1}{2}$	255.254	4154.9
144.4	74	229.729	4199.7	81 $\frac{3}{8}$	255.647	4160.8
146.9	74 $\frac{1}{8}$	230.122	4214.1	81 $\frac{1}{4}$	256.040	4166.8
149.4	74 $\frac{1}{4}$	230.514	4228.5	81 $\frac{3}{8}$	256.433	4172.8
151.9	74 $\frac{1}{2}$	230.907	4242.9	81 $\frac{1}{2}$	256.825	4178.8
154.4	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	231.290	4257.4	82	257.218	4184.9
156.9	75	231.682	4271.8	82 $\frac{1}{8}$	257.611	4191.0
159.4	75 $\frac{1}{8}$	232.065	4286.3	82 $\frac{1}{4}$	258.003	4197.1
161.9	75 $\frac{1}{4}$	232.478	4300.8	82 $\frac{3}{8}$	258.396	4203.3
164.4	75 $\frac{1}{2}$	232.871	4315.4	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	258.789	4209.4
166.9	75 $\frac{3}{4}$	233.263	4329.9	83	259.181	4215.6
169.4	76	233.656	4344.5	83 $\frac{1}{8}$	259.574	4221.8
171.9	76 $\frac{1}{8}$	234.049	4359.2	83 $\frac{1}{4}$	259.967	4228.1
174.4	76 $\frac{1}{4}$	234.441	4373.8	83 $\frac{3}{8}$	260.359	4234.3
176.9	76 $\frac{1}{2}$	234.834	4388.5	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	260.752	4240.6
179.4	76 $\frac{3}{4}$	235.227	4403.1	84	261.145	4246.9
181.9	77	235.619	4417.9	84 $\frac{1}{8}$	261.538	4253.3
184.4	77 $\frac{1}{8}$	236.012	4432.6	84 $\frac{1}{4}$	261.930	4259.6
186.9	77 $\frac{1}{4}$	236.405	4447.4	84 $\frac{3}{8}$	262.323	4266.0
189.4	77 $\frac{1}{2}$	236.798	4462.2	84 $\frac{1}{2}$	262.716	4272.4
191.9	77 $\frac{3}{4}$	237.190	4477.0	85	263.108	4278.8
194.4	78	237.583	4491.8	85 $\frac{1}{8}$	263.501	4285.3
196.9	78 $\frac{1}{8}$	237.976	4506.7	85 $\frac{1}{4}$	263.894	4291.8
199.4	78 $\frac{1}{4}$	238.368	4521.5	85 $\frac{3}{8}$	264.286	4298.3
201.9	78 $\frac{1}{2}$	238.761	4536.5	85 $\frac{1}{2}$	264.679	4304.8
204.4	78 $\frac{3}{4}$	239.154	4551.4	86	265.072	4311.4
206.9	79	239.546	4566.4	86 $\frac{1}{8}$	265.465	4317.9
209.4	79 $\frac{1}{8}$	239.939	4581.3	86 $\frac{1}{4}$	265.857	4324.5
211.9	79 $\frac{1}{4}$	240.332	4596.3	86 $\frac{3}{8}$	266.250	4331.2
214.4	79 $\frac{1}{2}$	240.725	4611.4	86 $\frac{1}{2}$	266.643	4337.8
216.9	79 $\frac{3}{4}$	241.117	4626.4	87	267.035	4344.5
219.4	80	241.510	4641.5	87 $\frac{1}{8}$	267.428	4351.2
221.9	80 $\frac{1}{8}$	241.903	4656.6	87 $\frac{1}{4}$	267.821	4357.9
224.4	80 $\frac{1}{4}$	242.295	4671.8	87 $\frac{3}{8}$	268.213	4364.7
226.9	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	242.688	4686.9	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	268.606	4371.5
229.4	80 $\frac{3}{4}$	243.081	4702.1	88	268.999	4378.3
231.9	81	243.473	4717.3	88 $\frac{1}{8}$	269.392	4385.1
234.4	81 $\frac{1}{8}$	243.866	4732.5	88 $\frac{1}{4}$	269.784	4391.9
236.9	81 $\frac{1}{4}$	244.259	4747.8	88 $\frac{3}{8}$	270.177	4398.8
239.4	81 $\frac{1}{2}$	244.652	4763.1	89	270.570	4405.7
241.9	81 $\frac{3}{4}$	245.044	4778.4	89 $\frac{1}{8}$	270.962	4412.6
244.4	82	245.437	4793.7	89 $\frac{1}{4}$	271.355	4419.6
246.9	82 $\frac{1}{8}$	245.830	4809.0	89 $\frac{1}{2}$	271.748	4426.5
249.4	82 $\frac{1}{4}$	246.222	4824.1	89 $\frac{3}{8}$	272.140	4433.5
251.9	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	246.615	4839.8	89 $\frac{1}{2}$	272.533	4440.6
254.4	82 $\frac{3}{4}$	247.008	4855.2	90	272.926	4447.7
256.9	83	247.400	4870.7	90 $\frac{1}{8}$	273.319	4454.7
259.4	83 $\frac{1}{8}$	247.793	4886.2	90 $\frac{1}{4}$	273.711	4461.8
261.9	83 $\frac{1}{4}$	248.186	4901.7	90 $\frac{3}{8}$	274.104	4468.9
264.4	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	248.579	4917.2	91	274.497	4476.0
266.9	83 $\frac{3}{4}$	248.971	4932.7	91 $\frac{1}{8}$	274.890	4483.2
269.4	84	249.364	4948.3	91 $\frac{1}{4}$	275.283	4490.4
271.9	84 $\frac{1}{8}$	249.757	4963.9	91 $\frac{1}{2}$	275.676	4497.6

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circ.
87 $\frac{7}{8}$	276.067	6064.9	92.	289.027	6547.4	96 $\frac{1}{2}$	907.
88.	276.460	6082.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	289.419	6565.7	$\frac{3}{4}$	908.
$\frac{1}{8}$	276.853	6099.4	$\frac{1}{4}$	289.812	6583.8	$\frac{1}{2}$	909.
$\frac{1}{4}$	277.246	6116.7	$\frac{3}{8}$	290.205	6601.9	$\frac{1}{4}$	910.
$\frac{3}{8}$	277.638	6134.1	$\frac{1}{2}$	290.597	6620.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	911.
$\frac{1}{2}$	278.031	6151.4	$\frac{3}{4}$	290.990	6638.2	$\frac{1}{4}$	912.
$\frac{3}{4}$	278.424	6168.8	$\frac{1}{2}$	291.383	6656.4	$\frac{1}{8}$	913.
$\frac{7}{8}$	278.816	6186.2	$\frac{1}{2}$	291.775	6674.7	97.	914.
89.	279.209	6203.7	93.	292.168	6693.0	$\frac{1}{8}$	915.
$\frac{1}{8}$	279.602	6221.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	292.561	6711.2	$\frac{1}{4}$	916.
$\frac{1}{4}$	279.994	6238.6	$\frac{1}{4}$	292.954	6729.5	$\frac{1}{8}$	917.
$\frac{3}{8}$	280.387	6256.1	$\frac{3}{8}$	293.346	6747.8	$\frac{1}{4}$	918.
$\frac{1}{2}$	280.780	6273.7	$\frac{1}{2}$	293.739	6766.1	$\frac{3}{8}$	919.
$\frac{3}{4}$	281.173	6291.2	$\frac{3}{4}$	294.132	6784.5	$\frac{1}{2}$	920.
$\frac{7}{8}$	281.565	6308.8	$\frac{1}{2}$	294.524	6802.9	$\frac{1}{8}$	921.
90.	281.958	6326.4	94.	294.917	6821.3	98.	922.
$\frac{1}{8}$	282.351	6344.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	295.310	6839.8	$\frac{1}{4}$	923.
$\frac{1}{4}$	282.743	6361.7	$\frac{1}{4}$	295.702	6858.2	$\frac{1}{8}$	924.
$\frac{3}{8}$	283.136	6379.4	$\frac{3}{8}$	296.095	6876.7	$\frac{1}{4}$	925.
$\frac{1}{2}$	283.529	6397.1	$\frac{1}{2}$	296.488	6895.3	$\frac{3}{8}$	926.
$\frac{3}{4}$	283.921	6414.9	$\frac{3}{4}$	296.881	6913.8	$\frac{1}{2}$	927.
$\frac{7}{8}$	284.314	6432.6	$\frac{1}{2}$	297.273	6932.4	$\frac{1}{8}$	928.
91.	284.707	6450.4	$\frac{1}{8}$	297.665	6951.0	$\frac{1}{4}$	929.
$\frac{1}{8}$	285.100	6468.2	$\frac{1}{4}$	298.059	6969.6	$\frac{1}{8}$	930.
$\frac{1}{4}$	285.492	6486.0	$\frac{3}{8}$	298.451	6988.2	$\frac{1}{4}$	931.
$\frac{3}{8}$	285.885	6503.9	$\frac{1}{2}$	298.844	7006.9	$\frac{3}{8}$	932.
$\frac{1}{2}$	286.278	6521.8	$\frac{1}{2}$	299.237	7025.6	$\frac{1}{2}$	933.
$\frac{3}{4}$	286.670	6539.7	$\frac{3}{4}$	299.629	7044.3	$\frac{1}{4}$	934.
$\frac{7}{8}$	287.063	6557.6	$\frac{1}{2}$	300.022	7063.0	$\frac{1}{8}$	935.
92.	287.456	6575.5	$\frac{1}{8}$	300.415	7081.8	$\frac{1}{4}$	936.
$\frac{1}{8}$	287.848	6593.5	$\frac{1}{4}$	300.807	7100.6	$\frac{1}{8}$	937.
$\frac{1}{4}$	288.241	6611.5	$\frac{3}{8}$	301.200	7119.4	$\frac{1}{4}$	938.
$\frac{3}{8}$	288.634	6629.6	96.	301.593	7138.2	100.	939.

DECIMALS OF A FOOT EQUIVALENT TO
AND FRACTIONS OF AN INCH.

Inches.	$\frac{0}{1}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$
0	0	.01042	.02083	.03125	.04166	.05208	.06250
1	.0633	.0937	.1042	.1146	.1250	.1354	.1458
2	.1067	.1771	.1875	.1979	.2083	.2188	.2292
3	.2500	.2604	.2708	.2813	.2917	.3021	.3125
4	.3333	.3437	.3542	.3646	.3750	.3854	.3958
5	.4167	.4271	.4375	.4479	.4583	.4688	.4792
6	.5000	.5104	.5208	.5313	.5417	.5521	.5625
7	.5833	.5937	.6042	.6146	.6250	.6354	.6458
8	.6667	.6771	.6875	.6979	.7083	.7188	.7292
9	.7500	.7604	.7708	.7813	.7917	.8021	.8125
10	.8333	.8437	.8542	.8646	.8750	.8854	.8958
11	.9167	.9271	.9375	.9479	.9583	.9688	.9792

versed Sine.	Area.	versed Sine.	Area.	versed Sine.	Area.	versed Sine.	Area.
313	.21015	.36	.25455	407	.30024	.454	.34676
314	.21108	.361	.25551	408	.30122	.455	.34770
315	.21201	.362	.25647	409	.30220	.456	.34865
316	.21293	.363	.25743	41	.30319	.457	.34965
317	.21387	.364	.25839	411	.30417	.458	.35065
318	.21480	.365	.25935	412	.30516	.459	.35175
319	.21573	.366	.26032	413	.30614	.46	.35274
32	.21667	.367	.26128	414	.30712	.461	.35374
321	.21760	.368	.26225	415	.30811	.462	.35474
322	.21853	.369	.26321	416	.30909	.463	.35573
323	.21947	.37	.26418	417	.31008	.464	.35673
324	.22040	.371	.26514	418	.31107	.465	.35773
325	.22134	.372	.26611	419	.31205	.466	.35873
326	.22228	.373	.26708	42	.31304	.467	.35972
327	.22322	.374	.26805	421	.31403	.468	.36072
328	.22415	.375	.26901	422	.31502	.469	.36172
329	.22509	.376	.27008	423	.31600	.47	.36272
33	.22603	.377	.27095	424	.31699	.471	.36372
331	.22697	.378	.27192	425	.31798	.472	.36471
332	.22792	.379	.27289	426	.31897	.473	.36571
333	.22886	.38	.27386	427	.31996	.474	.36671
334	.22980	.381	.27483	428	.32095	.475	.36771
335	.23074	.382	.27580	429	.32194	.476	.36871
336	.23169	.383	.27678	43	.32293	.477	.36971
337	.23263	.384	.27775	431	.32392	.478	.37071
338	.23358	.385	.27871	432	.32491	.479	.37171
339	.23453	.386	.27969	433	.32590	.48	.37270
34	.23547	.387	.28067	434	.32689	.481	.37370
341	.23642	.388	.28164	435	.32788	.482	.37470
342	.23737	.389	.28262	436	.32887	.483	.37570
343	.23832	.39	.28359	437	.32987	.484	.37670
344	.23927	.391	.28457	438	.33086	.485	.37770
345	.24022	.392	.28554	439	.33185	.486	.37870
346	.24117	.393	.28652	44	.33284	.487	.37970
347	.24212	.394	.28750	441	.33383	.488	.38070
348	.24307	.395	.28848	442	.33483	.489	.38170
349	.24403	.396	.28945	443	.33582	.49	.38270
35	.24498	.397	.29043	444	.33682	.491	.38370
351	.24593	.398	.29141	445	.33781	.492	.38470
352	.24688	.399	.29239	446	.33880	.493	.38570
353	.24784	.4	.29337	447	.33980	.494	.38670
354	.24880	.401	.29435	448	.34079	.495	.38770
355	.24976	.402	.29533	449	.34179	.496	.38870
356	.25071	.403	.29631	45	.34278	.497	.38970
357	.25167	.404	.29729	451	.34377	.498	.39070
358	.25263	.405	.29827	452	.34477	.499	.39170
359	.25359	.406	.29926	453	.34577	.5	.39270

inding the area of a segment see Mensuration, page 59.

AREAS OF THE SEGMENTS OF A CIRCLE.

(Diameter = 1; Rise or Versed Sine in parts of Diameter being given.)

RULE FOR USE OF THE TABLE.—Divide the rise or height of the segment by the diameter to obtain the versed sine. Multiply the area in the table corresponding to this versed sine by the square of the diameter.

If the segment exceeds a semicircle its area is area of circle—area of segment whose rise is (diam. of circle—rise of given segment).

Given chord and rise, to find diameter, Diam. = (square of half chord rise) + rise. The half chord is a mean proportional between the two into which the chord divides the diameter which is perpendicular to it.

Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.
.001	.00004	.054	.01640	.107	.04514	.16	.08111	.213	.07111
.002	.00012	.055	.01691	.108	.04576	.161	.08185	.214	.07185
.003	.00032	.056	.01737	.109	.04638	.162	.08258	.215	.07258
.004	.00054	.057	.01783	.11	.04701	.163	.08332	.216	.07332
.005	.00077	.058	.01830	.111	.04763	.164	.08406	.217	.07406
.006	.00102	.059	.01877	.112	.04826	.165	.08480	.218	.07480
.007	.00127	.06	.01924	.113	.04889	.166	.08554	.219	.07554
.008	.00153	.061	.01972	.114	.04953	.167	.08629	.22	.07629
.009	.00178	.062	.02020	.115	.05016	.168	.08704	.221	.07704
.01	.00203	.063	.02068	.116	.05080	.169	.08779	.222	.07779
.011	.00229	.064	.02117	.117	.05145	.17	.08854	.223	.07854
.012	.00255	.065	.02166	.118	.05209	.171	.08929	.224	.07929
.013	.00281	.066	.02215	.119	.05274	.172	.09004	.225	.08004
.014	.00307	.067	.02265	.12	.05338	.173	.09080	.226	.08080
.015	.00334	.068	.02315	.121	.05403	.174	.09155	.227	.08155
.016	.00360	.069	.02366	.122	.05469	.175	.09231	.228	.08231
.017	.00387	.07	.02417	.123	.05535	.176	.09307	.229	.08307
.018	.00413	.071	.02468	.124	.05600	.177	.09384	.23	.08384
.019	.00440	.072	.02520	.125	.05666	.178	.09460	.231	.08460
.02	.00467	.073	.02571	.126	.05733	.179	.09537	.232	.08537
.021	.00493	.074	.02624	.127	.05799	.18	.09613	.233	.08613
.022	.00520	.075	.02676	.128	.05866	.181	.09690	.234	.08690
.023	.00547	.076	.02729	.129	.05933	.182	.09767	.235	.08767
.024	.00573	.077	.02782	.13	.06000	.183	.09845	.236	.08845
.025	.00600	.078	.02836	.131	.06067	.184	.09922	.237	.08922
.026	.00627	.079	.02889	.132	.06135	.185	.10000	.238	.09000
.027	.00654	.08	.02943	.133	.06203	.186	.10077	.239	.09077
.028	.00681	.081	.02998	.134	.06271	.187	.10155	.24	.09155
.029	.00708	.082	.03053	.135	.06339	.188	.10233	.241	.09233
.03	.00735	.083	.03108	.136	.06407	.189	.10312	.242	.09312
.031	.00762	.084	.03163	.137	.06476	.19	.10390	.243	.09390
.032	.00789	.085	.03219	.138	.06545	.191	.10469	.244	.09469
.033	.00816	.086	.03275	.139	.06614	.192	.10547	.245	.09547
.034	.00843	.087	.03331	.14	.06683	.193	.10626	.246	.09626
.035	.00870	.088	.03387	.141	.06753	.194	.10705	.247	.09705
.036	.00897	.089	.03444	.142	.06822	.195	.10784	.248	.09784
.037	.00924	.09	.03501	.143	.06892	.196	.10864	.249	.09864
.038	.00951	.091	.03559	.144	.06963	.197	.10943	.25	.09943
.039	.00978	.092	.03616	.145	.07033	.198	.11023	.251	.10023
.04	.01005	.093	.03674	.146	.07103	.199	.11102	.252	.10102
.041	.01032	.094	.03732	.147	.07174	.2	.11182	.253	.10182
.042	.01059	.095	.03791	.148	.07245	.201	.11262	.254	.10262
.043	.01086	.096	.03850	.149	.07316	.202	.11343	.255	.10343
.044	.01113	.097	.03909	.15	.07387	.203	.11423	.256	.10423
.045	.01140	.098	.03968	.151	.07459	.204	.11504	.257	.10504
.046	.01167	.099	.04028	.152	.07531	.205	.11584	.258	.10584
.047	.01194	.1	.04087	.153	.07603	.206	.11665	.259	.10665
.048	.01221	.101	.04148	.154	.07675	.207	.11746	.26	.10746
.049	.01248	.102	.04208	.155	.07747	.208	.11827	.261	.10827
.05	.01275	.103	.04269	.156	.07819	.209	.11908	.262	.10908
.051	.01302	.104	.04330	.157	.07892	.21	.11990	.263	.10990
.052	.01329	.105	.04391	.158	.07965	.211	.12071	.264	.11071
.053	.01356	.106	.04452	.159	.08038	.212	.12153	.265	.11153

SPHERES—(Continued.)

Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.
39 1/2	1500.4	5964.1	40 1/2	1515.1	6178.1	70 1/2	15615	183471
39 3/4	1626.0	6185.2	41 1/2	1528.1	6308.7	71 1/2	15867	187402
40	1761.9	6370.6	42 1/2	1541.0	6443.3	72 1/2	16081	191329
40 1/4	1898.2	6580.6	43 1/2	1554.9	6582.9	73 1/2	16266	195135
40 1/2	1733.0	6795.2	44 1/2	1567.5	6727.5	74 1/2	16513	198932
40 3/4	1772.1	7014.3	45 1/2	1580.8	6876.8	75 1/2	16742	202689
41	1813.6	7238.2	46 1/2	1594.7	7029.9	76 1/2	16972	206408
41 1/4	1847.5	7466.7	47 1/2	1608.2	7186.2	77 1/2	17204	210175
41 1/2	1882.8	7700.1	48 1/2	1622.2	7346.1	78 1/2	17437	213905
41 3/4	1919.5	7938.3	49 1/2	1636.7	7509.7	79 1/2	17672	217604
42	1957.4	8181.3	50 1/2	1650.9	7676.9	80 1/2	17908	221281
42 1/4	1996.6	8429.2	51 1/2	1664.6	7847.6	81 1/2	18146	224928
42 1/2	2037.0	8682.0	52 1/2	1678.3	8021.3	82 1/2	18386	228544
42 3/4	2078.6	8939.9	53 1/2	1692.0	8198.0	83 1/2	18626	232121
43	2121.3	9202.8	54 1/2	1705.7	8378.7	84 1/2	18869	235658
43 1/4	2165.1	9470.8	55 1/2	1719.4	8562.4	85 1/2	19114	239155
43 1/2	2210.0	9744.0	56 1/2	1733.1	8749.1	86 1/2	19360	242612
43 3/4	2256.0	10022	57 1/2	1746.8	8938.8	87 1/2	19607	246029
44	2303.0	10306	58 1/2	1760.5	9130.5	88 1/2	19856	249406
44 1/4	2351.0	10595	59 1/2	1774.2	9324.2	89 1/2	20106	252743
44 1/2	2399.9	10889	60 1/2	1787.9	9520.9	90 1/2	20358	256039
44 3/4	2449.8	11189	61 1/2	1801.6	9719.6	91 1/2	20611	259295
45	2500.7	11494	62 1/2	1815.3	9920.3	92 1/2	20866	262512
45 1/4	2552.6	11805	63 1/2	1829.0	10123.0	93 1/2	21122	265689
45 1/2	2605.5	12121	64 1/2	1842.7	10327.7	94 1/2	21380	268826
45 3/4	2659.4	12443	65 1/2	1856.4	10534.4	95 1/2	21638	271923
46	2714.3	12770	66 1/2	1870.1	10743.1	96 1/2	21898	274980
46 1/4	2769.2	13103	67 1/2	1883.8	10953.8	97 1/2	22159	277997
46 1/2	2825.1	13442	68 1/2	1897.5	11166.5	98 1/2	22421	280974
46 3/4	2882.0	13787	69 1/2	1911.2	11381.2	99 1/2	22684	283911
47	2939.9	14137	70 1/2	1924.9	11597.9	100	22948	286808
47 1/4	2998.8	14494						
47 1/2	3058.7	14856						
47 3/4	3119.6	15224						
48	3181.5	15599						
48 1/4	3244.4	15979						
48 1/2	3308.3	16366						
48 3/4	3373.2	16758						
49	3439.1	17157						
49 1/4	3505.0	17563						
49 1/2	3571.9	17974						
49 3/4	3639.8	18392						
50	3708.7	18817						
50 1/4	3778.6	19248						
50 1/2	3849.5	19685						
50 3/4	3921.4	20129						
51	3994.3	20580						
51 1/4	4068.2	21037						
51 1/2	4143.1	21501						
51 3/4	4219.0	21972						
52	4295.9	22449						
52 1/4	4373.8	22932						
52 1/2	4452.7	23421						
52 3/4	4532.6	23916						
53	4613.5	24417						
53 1/4	4695.4	24924						
53 1/2	4778.3	25437						
53 3/4	4862.2	25956						
54	4947.1	26481						
54 1/4	5033.0	27012						
54 1/2	5119.9	27549						
54 3/4	5207.8	28092						
55	5296.7	28641						
55 1/4	5386.6	29196						
55 1/2	5477.5	29757						
55 3/4	5569.4	30324						
56	5662.3	30897						
56 1/4	5756.2	31476						
56 1/2	5851.1	32061						
56 3/4	5947.0	32652						
57	6043.9	33249						
57 1/4	6141.8	33852						
57 1/2	6240.7	34461						
57 3/4	6340.6	35076						
58	6441.5	35697						
58 1/4	6543.4	36324						
58 1/2	6646.3	36957						
58 3/4	6750.2	37596						
59	6855.1	38241						
59 1/4	6961.0	38892						
59 1/2	7067.9	39549						
59 3/4	7175.8	40212						
60	7284.7	40881						
60 1/4	7394.6	41556						
60 1/2	7505.5	42237						
60 3/4	7617.4	42924						
61	7730.3	43617						
61 1/4	7844.2	44316						
61 1/2	7959.1	45021						
61 3/4	8075.0	45732						
62	8191.9	46449						
62 1/4	8309.8	47172						
62 1/2	8428.7	47901						
62 3/4	8548.6	48636						
63	8669.5	49377						
63 1/4	8791.4	50124						
63 1/2	8914.3	50877						
63 3/4	9038.2	51636						
64	9163.1	52401						
64 1/4	9289.0	53172						
64 1/2	9415.9	53949						
64 3/4	9543.8	54732						
65	9672.7	55521						
65 1/4	9802.6	56316						
65 1/2	9933.5	57117						
65 3/4	10065.4	57924						
66	10198.3	58737						
66 1/4	10332.2	59556						
66 1/2	10467.1	60381						
66 3/4	10603.0	61212						
67	10739.9	62049						
67 1/4	10877.8	62892						
67 1/2	11016.7	63741						
67 3/4	11156.6	64596						
68	11297.5	65457						
68 1/4	11439.4	66324						
68 1/2	11582.3	67197						
68 3/4	11726.2	68076						
69	11871.1	68961						
69 1/4	12017.0	69852						
69 1/2	12163.9	70749						
69 3/4	12311.8	71652						
70	12460.7	72561						

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

SPHERES.

Some errors of 1 in the last figure only. From TRAUTWINE.)

Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.
00307	00002	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	33.183	17.974	9 $\frac{7}{8}$	306.38	504.21
01227	00018	5-10	34.472	19.031	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	314.16	524.60
02761	00048	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	35.784	20.124	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	322.06	537.68
04009	00102	7-16	37.132	21.268	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	330.06	553.46
07070	00300	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	38.484	22.449	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	338.16	569.74
11045	00845	9-16	39.872	23.674	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	346.30	586.51
15033	00548	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	41.288	24.942	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	354.66	603.71
19635	00818	11-16	42.719	26.254	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	363.05	620.44
24851	01165	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	44.179	27.611	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	371.54	637.69
30690	01599	13-16	45.664	29.016	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	380.13	655.41
37123	02127	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	47.173	30.466	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	388.83	673.62
44179	02761	15-16	48.708	31.965	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	397.61	692.31
51849	03511	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	50.265	33.510	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	406.49	711.49
60132	04385	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	53.456	36.751	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	415.48	731.25
69028	05303	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	56.745	40.195	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	424.50	751.59
78540	06345	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	60.130	43.847	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	433.73	772.49
99103	06819	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	63.617	47.713	14 $\frac{3}{4}$	443.01	793.97
12272	12783	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	67.301	51.801	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	452.30	815.77
14849	17014	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	70.884	56.116	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	461.74	838.12
17671	22089	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	74.663	60.663	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	471.34	861.12
20739	28084	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	78.540	65.450	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	481.01	884.77
24053	35077	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	82.510	70.482	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	490.87	909.11
27611	43143	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	86.581	75.767	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	500.81	934.14
31416	52360	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	90.763	81.308	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	510.85	959.85
35466	62801	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	95.033	87.113	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	521.07	986.24
39761	74551	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	99.404	93.189	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	531.47	1013.31
44301	87681	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	103.87	99.541	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	542.05	1041.07
49048	10247	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	108.44	106.18	20 $\frac{1}{4}$	552.82	1069.51
54119	11839	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	113.10	113.10	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	563.79	1098.74
59406	13611	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	117.87	120.31	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	574.97	1128.74
64919	15558	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	122.72	127.83	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	586.36	1159.51
70699	17671	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	127.68	135.66	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	597.97	1191.07
76699	19974	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	132.73	143.79	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	609.79	1223.41
82967	22468	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	137.89	152.25	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	621.82	1256.51
89461	25161	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	143.14	161.03	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	634.07	1290.37
96211	28062	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	148.49	170.14	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	646.54	1325.01
10321	31177	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	153.94	179.59	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	659.24	1360.41
11044	34514	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	159.48	189.29	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	672.17	1396.57
11793	38363	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	165.13	199.32	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	685.33	1433.51
12566	42888	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	170.87	210.03	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	698.72	1471.24
13364	48099	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	176.71	220.89	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	712.34	1509.74
14186	53243	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	182.65	232.13	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	726.19	1549.01
15033	58909	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	188.69	243.73	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	740.27	1589.07
15904	65041	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	194.83	255.72	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	754.59	1629.91
16800	71751	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	201.06	268.08	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	769.14	1671.51
17721	79144	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	207.49	280.85	29 $\frac{1}{4}$	783.93	1713.87
18666	87289	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	214.02	294.01	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	798.97	1757.01
19635	96183	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	220.67	307.58	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	814.27	1800.91
20629	106103	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	226.48	321.56	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	829.82	1845.57
21648	117088	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	232.41	335.95	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	845.62	1891.01
22691	129164	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	238.45	350.77	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	861.67	1937.24
23758	142492	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	244.67	366.02	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	877.97	1984.27
24850	156999	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	251.07	381.70	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	894.52	2032.11
25967	172743	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	257.69	397.83	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	911.33	2080.77
27109	189772	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	264.53	414.41	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	928.40	2130.17
28274	208147	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	271.59	431.44	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	945.74	2180.31
29463	227939	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	278.93	448.92	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	963.35	2231.21
		3 $\frac{3}{4}$	286.65	466.87	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	981.23	2282.87
				485.31			

CYLINDRICAL VESSELS, TANKS, CISTERNS, ETC.

Diameter in Feet and Inches, Area in Square Feet, and U. S. Gallons Capacity for One Foot in Depth.

$$1 \text{ gallon} = 231 \text{ cubic inches} = \frac{1 \text{ cubic foot}}{7.4805} = 0.13368 \text{ cubic feet.}$$

Diam.	Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.
In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.
5.785	5.87	5.87	5 11	25.22	188.60	19	283.53	2120.9
5.822	6.89	6.89	5 9	25.97	191.25	19 3	291.04	2177.1
5.860	8.00	8.00	5 10	26.73	199.92	19 6	298.65	2234.0
5.897	9.18	9.18	5 11	27.40	205.87	19 9	306.35	2291.7
5.936	10.44	10.44	6 3	28.27	211.51	20	314.16	2350.1
5.976	11.79	11.79	6 3	30.68	229.50	20 3	322.06	2409.2
5.976	13.22	13.22	6 3	33.18	248.23	20 6	330.06	2469.1
5.969	14.73	14.73	6 9	35.78	267.69	20 9	338.16	2529.6
5.962	16.32	16.32	7 3	38.48	287.88	21	346.36	2591.0
5.955	17.99	17.99	7 3	41.28	308.81	21 3	354.66	2653.8
5.948	19.75	19.75	7 6	44.18	330.49	21 6	363.05	2717.8
5.941	21.58	21.58	7 9	47.17	352.88	21 9	371.54	2783.9
5.934	23.50	23.50	8 3	50.27	376.01	22	380.13	2843.6
5.927	25.50	25.50	8 3	53.46	399.88	22 3	388.82	2905.6
5.920	27.58	27.58	8 6	56.75	424.49	22 6	397.61	2969.3
5.913	29.74	29.74	8 9	60.13	449.82	22 9	406.49	3034.8
5.906	31.99	31.99	9 3	63.62	475.89	23	415.48	3102.0
5.899	34.31	34.31	9 3	67.20	502.70	23 3	424.56	3171.9
5.892	36.72	36.72	9 6	70.88	530.24	23 6	433.74	3244.6
5.885	39.21	39.21	9 9	74.66	558.51	23 9	443.01	3319.0
5.878	41.78	41.78	10	78.54	587.52	24	452.39	3394.1
5.871	44.43	44.43	10 3	82.62	617.26	24 3	461.86	3470.0
5.864	47.16	47.16	10 6	86.77	647.74	24 6	471.44	3547.6
5.857	49.98	49.98	10 9	90.76	678.95	24 9	481.11	3626.9
5.850	52.88	52.88	11 3	95.03	710.90	25	490.87	3707.9
5.843	55.86	55.86	11 3	99.40	743.68	25 3	500.74	3790.8
5.836	58.92	58.92	11 6	103.87	776.99	25 6	510.71	3875.3
5.829	62.06	62.06	11 9	108.43	811.14	25 9	520.77	3961.6
5.822	65.28	65.28	12	113.10	846.09	26	530.93	4049.6
5.815	68.58	68.58	12 3	117.86	881.85	26 3	541.19	4139.4
5.808	71.97	71.97	12 6	122.72	918.00	26 6	551.55	4231.9
5.801	75.44	75.44	12 9	127.68	955.09	26 9	562.00	4326.1
5.794	78.99	78.99	13	132.73	993.91	27	572.56	4423.0
5.787	82.62	82.62	13 3	137.89	1033.5	27 3	583.21	4522.7
5.780	86.33	86.33	13 6	143.14	1073.8	27 6	593.96	4624.1
5.773	90.13	90.13	13 9	148.49	1113.8	27 9	604.81	4727.3
5.766	94.00	94.00	14	153.94	1153.5	28	615.75	4832.2
5.759	97.96	97.96	14 3	159.48	1193.0	28 3	626.80	4938.8
5.752	102.00	102.00	14 6	165.13	1233.4	28 6	637.94	5047.2
5.745	106.12	106.12	14 9	170.87	1273.8	28 9	649.18	5157.6
5.738	110.32	110.32	15	176.71	1324.0	29	660.52	5269.0
5.731	114.61	114.61	15 3	182.65	1366.4	29 3	671.96	5382.6
5.724	118.97	118.97	15 6	188.69	1411.5	29 6	683.49	5497.0
5.717	123.42	123.42	15 9	194.83	1457.4	29 9	695.13	5613.9
5.710	127.95	127.95	16	201.06	1504.1	30	706.86	5732.7
5.703	132.56	132.56	16 3	207.39	1551.4	30 3	718.69	5853.6
5.696	137.25	137.25	16 6	213.82	1599.5	30 6	730.62	5976.4
5.689	142.02	142.02	16 9	220.35	1648.4	30 9	742.64	6101.0
5.682	146.88	146.88	17	226.98	1697.9	31	754.77	6227.6
5.675	151.82	151.82	17 3	233.71	1748.2	31 3	766.99	6355.5
5.668	156.83	156.83	17 6	240.53	1799.3	31 6	779.31	6485.7
5.661	161.93	161.93	17 9	247.45	1851.1	31 9	791.73	6618.3
5.654	167.12	167.12	18	254.47	1903.6	32	804.25	6753.2
5.647	172.38	172.38	18 3	261.59	1956.8	32 3	816.86	6890.6
5.640	177.72	177.72	18 6	268.80	2010.8	32 6	829.58	7030.5
5.633	183.15	183.15	18 9	276.12	2065.5	32 9	842.20	7172.9

**CONTENTS IN CUBIC FEET AND U. S. GALLONS
PIPES AND CYLINDERS OF VARIOUS DIAMETERS
AND ONE FOOT IN LENGTH.**

1 gallon = 231 cubic inches. 1 cubic foot = 7.4805 gallons.

Diameter in Inches.	For 1 Foot in Length.		Diameter in Inches.	For 1 Foot in Length.		Diameter in Inches.	For 1 Foot in Length.	
	Cubic Ft. also Area in Sq. Ft.	U. S. Gals., 231 Cu. In.		Cubic Ft. also Area in Sq. Ft.	U. S. Gals., 231 Cu. In.		Cubic Ft. also Area in Sq. Ft.	U. S. Gals., 231 Cu. In.
$\frac{1}{8}$.0003	.0025	6 $\frac{3}{4}$.2485	1.859	19	1.009	7.4805
$\frac{1}{4}$.0006	.004	7	.2673	1.999	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.074	7.924
$\frac{3}{8}$.0009	.0057	7 $\frac{1}{4}$.2867	2.145	20	1.142	8.374
$\frac{1}{2}$.001	.0073	7 $\frac{1}{2}$.3068	2.295	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.212	8.829
$\frac{5}{8}$.0014	.0102	7 $\frac{3}{4}$.3276	2.45	21	1.284	9.294
$\frac{3}{4}$.0017	.0129	8	.3491	2.611	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.358	9.764
$\frac{7}{8}$.0021	.0159	8 $\frac{1}{4}$.3712	2.777	22	1.434	10.24
1	.0026	.0188	8 $\frac{1}{2}$.3941	2.948	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.511	10.724
1 $\frac{1}{8}$.0031	.0229	8 $\frac{3}{4}$.4176	3.125	23	1.59	11.21
1 $\frac{1}{4}$.0036	.0269	9	.4418	3.305	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.67	11.704
1 $\frac{3}{8}$.0042	.0312	9 $\frac{1}{4}$.4667	3.491	24	1.75	12.204
1 $\frac{1}{2}$.0048	.0359	9 $\frac{1}{2}$.4922	3.682	25	1.83	12.714
1 $\frac{3}{4}$.0055	.0408	9 $\frac{3}{4}$.5185	3.879	26	1.91	13.234
2	.0065	.0468	10	.5454	4.08	27	1.99	13.754
2 $\frac{1}{8}$.0123	.0918	10 $\frac{1}{4}$.5730	4.286	28	2.07	14.274
2 $\frac{1}{4}$.0167	.1249	10 $\frac{1}{2}$.6013	4.498	29	2.15	14.794
2 $\frac{3}{8}$.0218	.1632	10 $\frac{3}{4}$.6303	4.715	30	2.23	15.314
2 $\frac{1}{2}$.0276	.2066	11	.66	4.937	31	2.31	15.834
2 $\frac{5}{8}$.0341	.2550	11 $\frac{1}{4}$.6909	5.164	32	2.39	16.354
2 $\frac{3}{4}$.0412	.3085	11 $\frac{1}{2}$.7213	5.396	33	2.47	16.874
3	.0491	.3672	11 $\frac{3}{4}$.7530	5.633	34	2.55	17.394
3 $\frac{1}{8}$.0576	.4309	12	.7854	5.875	35	2.63	17.914
3 $\frac{1}{4}$.0668	.4998	12 $\frac{1}{4}$.8192	6.375	36	2.71	18.434
3 $\frac{3}{8}$.0767	.5738	12 $\frac{1}{2}$.8544	6.885	37	2.79	18.954
3 $\frac{1}{2}$.0873	.6528	12 $\frac{3}{4}$.891	7.196	38	2.87	19.474
4	.0985	.7369	14	1.060	7.997	39	2.95	20.004
4 $\frac{1}{8}$.1134	.8263	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.147	8.578	40	3.03	20.524
4 $\frac{1}{4}$.1231	.9206	15	1.227	9.180	41	3.11	21.044
4 $\frac{3}{8}$.1364	1.020	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.310	9.801	42	3.19	21.564
4 $\frac{1}{2}$.1503	1.125	16	1.396	10.44	43	3.27	22.084
5	.1650	1.234	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.485	11.11	44	3.35	22.604
5 $\frac{1}{8}$.1803	1.349	17	1.576	11.79	45	3.43	23.124
5 $\frac{1}{4}$.1963	1.469	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.670	12.49	46	3.51	23.644
5 $\frac{3}{8}$.2131	1.594	18	1.768	13.22	47	3.59	24.164
5 $\frac{1}{2}$.2304	1.724	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.867	13.96	48	3.67	24.684

To find the capacity of pipes greater than the largest given in look in the table for a pipe of one half the given size, and multiply it by 4; or one of one third its size, and multiply its capacity by 9.

To find the weight of water in any of the given sizes multiply the in cubic feet by 62 $\frac{1}{2}$, or the gallons by 8 $\frac{1}{3}$, or, if a closer approach required, by the weight of a cubic foot of water at the actual temperature of the pipe.

Given the dimensions of a cylinder in inches, to find its capacity in gallons: Square the diameter, multiply by the length and by .0044.

$$\text{gallons} = \frac{d^2 \times l \times 7.4805}{231} = .0044 d^2 l.$$

CYLINDRICAL VESSELS, TANKS, CISTERNS, ETC.

in Feet and Inches, Area in Square Feet, and Gallons Capacity for One Foot in Depth.

$$\text{Gals.} = 231 \text{ cubic inches} = \frac{1 \text{ cubic foot}}{7.4805} = 0.13368 \text{ cubic feet.}$$

Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.
1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.
785	5 8	25.22	188 66	19	289.53	2120.9
822	5 9	25.97	191.25	19 3	291.04	2177.1
860	5 10	26.73	193.92	19 6	292.65	2234.0
897	5 11	27.50	196.67	19 9	294.35	2291.7
936	6	28.27	211.51	20	314.16	2350.1
975	6 3	30.68	220.50	20 3	322.06	2409.2
1017	6 6	33.18	228.23	20 6	330.00	2469.1
1059	6 9	35.78	237.00	20 9	338.10	2529.6
1102	6 12	38.48	247.88	21	346.35	2591.0
1145	7 3	41.28	258.81	21 3	354.68	2653.0
1188	7 6	44.18	270.49	21 6	363.05	2715.8
1231	7 9	47.17	282.88	21 9	371.54	2779.3
1274	8	50.27	276.01	22	380.13	2843.6
1317	8 3	53.46	289.88	22 3	388.82	2908.6
1360	8 6	56.75	294.48	22 6	397.61	2974.3
1403	8 9	60.13	309.82	22 9	406.49	3040.8
1446	9	63.62	275.80	23	415.48	3108.0
1489	9 3	67.20	302.50	23 3	424.56	3175.9
1532	9 6	70.88	310.24	23 6	433.74	3244.6
1575	9 9	74.66	318.01	23 9	443.01	3314.0
1618	10	78.54	327.52	24	452.39	3384.1
1661	10 3	82.52	317.26	24 3	461.86	3455.0
1704	10 6	86.59	327.74	24 6	471.44	3526.6
1747	10 9	90.75	338.95	24 9	481.11	3598.9
1790	11	95.03	310.90	25	490.87	3672.0
1833	11 3	99.40	323.58	25 3	500.74	3745.8
1876	11 6	103.87	336.99	25 6	510.71	3820.3
1919	11 9	108.43	311.14	25 9	520.77	3895.6
1962	12	113.10	324.63	26	530.93	3971.6
2005	12 3	117.86	338.65	26 3	541.19	4048.4
2048	12 6	122.72	318.00	26 6	551.55	4125.9
2091	12 9	127.68	325.00	26 9	562.00	4204.1
2134	13	132.73	332.91	27	572.56	4283.0
2177	13 3	137.89	1031.5	27 3	583.21	4362.7
2220	13 6	143.14	1070.8	27 6	593.96	4443.1
2263	13 9	148.49	1110.8	27 9	604.81	4524.3
2306	14	153.94	1151.5	28	615.75	4606.2
2349	14 3	159.48	1193.0	28 3	626.80	4688.6
2392	14 6	165.13	1235.3	28 6	637.94	4772.1
2435	14 9	170.87	1278.2	28 9	649.18	4856.2
2478	15	176.71	1321.9	29	660.52	4941.0
2521	15 3	182.65	1366.4	29 3	671.96	5026.6
2564	15 6	188.69	1411.5	29 6	683.49	5112.9
2607	15 9	194.83	1457.4	29 9	695.13	5199.9
2650	16	201.06	1504.1	30	706.86	5287.7
2693	16 3	207.39	1551.4	30 3	718.69	5376.2
2736	16 6	213.82	1599.5	30 6	730.62	5465.4
2779	16 9	220.35	1648.4	30 9	742.64	5555.4
2822	17	226.98	1697.3	31	754.77	5646.1
2865	17 3	233.71	1748.2	31 3	766.99	5737.5
2908	17 6	240.53	1799.3	31 6	779.31	5829.7
2951	17 9	247.45	1851.1	31 9	791.73	5922.6
2994	18	254.47	1803.6	32	804.25	6016.2
3037	18 3	261.59	1956.8	32 3	816.86	6110.6
3080	18 6	268.80	2010.8	32 6	829.58	6205.7
3123	18 9	276.12	2065.5	32 9	842.30	6301.5

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

GALLONS AND CUBIC FEET.

ates Gallons in a given Number of Cubic Feet.

= 7.480519 U. S. gallons; 1 gallon = 231 cu. in. = .13368056 cu. ft.

Gallons.	Cubic Ft.	Gallons.	Cubic Ft.	Gallons.
0.75	50	374.0	8,000	59,544.2
1.50	60	448.8	9,000	67,323.7
2.25	70	523.6	10,000	74,805.2
2.99	80	598.4	20,000	149,609.4
3.74	90	673.2	30,000	224,413.6
4.49	100	748.0	40,000	299,217.8
5.24	200	1,496.1	50,000	374,021.9
5.98	300	2,244.2	60,000	448,826.1
6.73	400	2,992.3	70,000	523,630.3
7.48	500	3,740.3	80,000	598,434.5
14.96	600	4,488.3	90,000	673,238.7
22.44	700	5,236.4	100,000	748,042.9
29.92	800	5,984.4	200,000	1,496,102.8
37.40	900	6,732.5	300,000	2,244,155.7
44.88	1,000	7,480.5	400,000	2,992,207.6
52.36	2,000	14,961.0	500,000	3,740,259.5
59.84	3,000	22,441.6	600,000	4,488,311.4
67.32	4,000	29,922.1	700,000	5,236,363.3
74.80	5,000	37,402.6	800,000	5,984,415.2
149.6	6,000	44,883.1	900,000	6,732,467.1
224.4	7,000	52,363.6	1,000,000	7,480,519.0
299.2				

ubic Feet in a given Number of Gallons.

Cubic Ft.	Gallons.	Cubic Ft.	Gallons.	Cubic Ft.
.134	1,000	133.681	1,000,000	138,680.6
.267	2,000	267.361	2,000,000	267,361.1
.401	3,000	401.042	3,000,000	401,041.7
.535	4,000	534.722	4,000,000	534,722.2
.668	5,000	668.403	5,000,000	668,402.8
.802	6,000	802.083	6,000,000	802,083.3
.936	7,000	935.764	7,000,000	935,763.9
1.069	8,000	1,069.444	8,000,000	1,069,444.4
1.203	9,000	1,203.125	9,000,000	1,203,125.0
1.337	10,000	1,336.806	10,000,000	1,336,805.6

CAPACITIES OF RECTANGULAR TANKS IN U. S.
GALLONS, FOR EACH FOOT IN DEPTH.

1 cubic foot = 7.4805 U. S. gallons.

[illegible][illegible]

SQUARE FEET IN PLATES—(Continued.)

Ft. and Ins. Long.	Ins. Long.	Square Feet.	Ft. and Ins. Long.	Ins. Long.	Square Feet.	Ft. and Ins. Long.	Ins. Long.
17. 0	210	1.458	22. 5	269	1.863	27. 4	328
7	211	1.465	6	270	1.875	5	329
8	212	1.472	7	271	1.882	6	330
9	213	1.479	8	272	1.889	7	331
10	214	1.486	9	273	1.896	8	332
11	215	1.493	10	274	1.903	9	333
18. 0	216	1.5	11	275	1.91	10	334
1	217	1.507	25. 0	276	1.917	11	335
2	218	1.514	1	277	1.924	28. 0	336
3	219	1.521	2	278	1.931	1	337
4	220	1.528	3	279	1.938	2	338
5	221	1.535	4	280	1.944	3	339
6	222	1.542	5	281	1.951	4	340
7	223	1.549	6	282	1.958	5	341
8	224	1.556	7	283	1.965	6	342
9	225	1.563	8	284	1.972	7	343
0	226	1.569	9	285	1.979	8	344
11	227	1.576	10	286	1.986	9	345
19. 0	228	1.583	11	287	1.993	10	346
1	229	1.59	24. 0	288	2.	11	347
2	230	1.597	1	289	2.007	29. 0	348
3	231	1.604	2	290	2.014	1	349
4	232	1.611	3	291	2.021	2	350
5	233	1.618	4	292	2.028	3	351
6	234	1.625	5	293	2.035	4	352
7	235	1.632	6	294	2.042	5	353
8	236	1.639	7	295	2.049	6	354
9	237	1.645	8	296	2.056	7	355
10	238	1.653	9	297	2.063	8	356
11	239	1.659	10	298	2.069	9	357
20. 0	240	1.667	11	299	2.076	10	358
1	241	1.674	25. 0	300	2.083	11	359
2	242	1.681	1	301	2.09	30. 0	360
3	243	1.688	2	302	2.097	1	361
4	244	1.694	3	303	2.104	2	362
5	245	1.701	4	304	2.111	3	363
6	246	1.708	5	305	2.118	4	364
7	247	1.715	6	306	2.125	5	365
8	248	1.722	7	307	2.132	6	366
9	249	1.729	8	308	2.139	7	367
10	250	1.736	9	309	2.146	8	368
11	251	1.743	10	310	2.153	9	369
21. 0	252	1.75	11	311	2.16	10	370
1	253	1.757	26. 0	312	2.167	11	371
2	254	1.764	1	313	2.174	31. 0	372
3	255	1.771	2	314	2.181	1	373
4	256	1.778	3	315	2.188	2	374
5	257	1.785	4	316	2.194	3	375
6	258	1.792	5	317	2.201	4	376
7	259	1.799	6	318	2.208	5	377
8	260	1.806	7	319	2.215	6	378
9	261	1.813	8	320	2.222	7	379
10	262	1.819	9	321	2.229	8	380
11	263	1.826	10	322	2.236	9	381
22. 0	264	1.833	11	323	2.243	10	382
1	265	1.84	27. 0	324	2.25	11	383
2	266	1.847	1	325	2.257	32. 0	384
3	267	1.854	2	326	2.264	1	385
4	268	1.861	3	327	2.271	2	386

**NUMBER OF BARRELS (31 1-2 GALLONS) IN
CISTERNS AND TANKS.—Continued.**

Depth in Feet.	Diameter in Feet.							
	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1	98.666	107.432	116.571	126.088	135.968	146.226	157.858	169.868
2	493.3	537.2	582.9	630.4	679.8	731.1	784.3	839.3
3	332.0	614.6	689.4	756.5	815.8	877.4	941.1	1007.2
4	690.7	752.0	816.0	882.5	951.6	1023.6	1098.0	1175.0
5	759.3	859.5	932.6	1008.7	1087.7	1169.8	1254.9	1342.9
6	898.0	997.3	1049.1	1134.7	1229.7	1316.0	1411.7	1510.8
7	966.7	1074.3	1165.7	1260.8	1359.7	1462.2	1568.6	1678.6
8	1085.3	1181.8	1282.3	1386.9	1485.6	1587.5	1725.4	1846.5
9	1184.0	1289.2	1394.3	1513.0	1631.6	1754.7	1882.3	2014.4
10	1282.7	1395.1	1515.4	1639.1	1767.6	1891.0	2029.2	2182.2
11	1381.2	1504.0	1632.0	1765.2	1903.6	2047.2	2196.0	2350.1
12	1479.0	1611.5	1748.6	1891.2	2039.5	2193.4	2352.0	2517.9
13	1578.7	1718.9	1865.1	2017.3	2175.5	2339.6	2509.7	2685.8
14	1677.3	1826.7	1981.7	2143.4	2311.5	2485.8	2660.6	2843.7
15	1776.0	1935.1	2098.3	2269.5	2447.4	2632.0	2823.4	3021.5
16	1874.7	2041.2	2214.8	2385.6	2583.4	2778.3	2960.3	3180.4
17	1973.3	2148.6	2321.4	2521.7	2719.4	2934.5	3137.2	3357.3

LOGARITHMS.

Logarithms (abbreviation *log*).—The log of a number is the exponent of the power to which it is necessary to raise a fixed number to produce the given number. The fixed number is called the *base*. Thus if the base is 10, the log of 1000 is 3, for $10^3 = 1000$. There are two systems of logs in general use, the *common*, in which the base is 10, and the *Naperian*, or *hyperbolic*, in which the base is 2.718281828.... The Naperian base is commonly designated by *e*, as in the equation $e^y = x$, in which *y* is the Nap. log of *x*.

In any system of logs, the log of 1 is 0; the log of the base, taken in that system, is 1. In any system the base of which is greater than 1, the logs of all numbers greater than 1 are positive and the logs of all numbers less than 1 are negative.

The modulus of any system is equal to the reciprocal of the Naperian log of the base of that system. The modulus of the Naperian system is 1, that of the common system is .4343945.

The log of a number in any system equals the modulus of that system \times the Naperian log of the number.

The *hyperbolic* or *Naperian* log of any number equals the common log \times 2.302585.

Every log consists of two parts, an entire part called the *characteristic*, or *index*, and the decimal part, or *mantissa*. The mantissa only is given in the usual tables of common logs, with the decimal point omitted. The characteristic is found by a simple rule, viz. it is one less than the number of figures to the left of the decimal point in the number whose log is to be found. Thus the characteristic of numbers from 1 to 9.99 + is 0, from 10 to 99.9 + is 1, from 100 to 999 + is 2, from .1 to .99 + is -1, from .01 to .999 + is -2, etc. Thus

log of 3000 is 3.30103;	log of .2 is -1.30103;
" " 200 " 2.30103;	" " .02 " -2.30103;
" " 20 " 1.30103;	" " .002 " -3.30103;
" " 2 " 0.30103;	" " .0002 " -4.30103.

The minus sign is frequently written above the characteristic of a log. .002 = $\bar{3}.30103$. The characteristic only is negative, the decimal part, or mantissa, being always positive.

When a log consists of a negative index and a positive mantissa, it is usual to write the negative sign over the index, or else to add 10 to the index, to indicate the subtraction of 10 from the resulting logarithm.

Thus log .3 = $\bar{1}.30103$, and this may be written $9.30103 - 10$.

In tables of logarithmic sines, etc., the -10 is generally omitted, as being understood.

Rules for use of the table of Logarithms.—To find the log of any whole number.—For 1 to 100 inclusive the log is given complete in the small table on page 129.

For 100 to 999 inclusive the decimal part of the log is given opposite the given number in the column headed 0 in the table (including the two figures to the left, making six figures). Prefix the characteristic, or index.

For 1000 to 9999 inclusive: The last four figures of the log are opposite the first three figures of the given number and in the column headed with the fourth figure of the given number; prefix the three figures under column 0, and the index, which is 3.

For numbers over 10,000 having five or more digits: Find the decimal part of the log for the first four digits as above, multiply the difference between the last column by the remaining digit or digits, and divide by 10 if there be only one digit more, by 100 if there be two more, and so on; annex the quotient to the log of the first four digits and prefix the index, which will be 4 if there are five digits, 5 if there are six digits, and so on. The table of proportional parts may be used, as shown below.

To find the log of a decimal fraction or of a whole number and a decimal.—First find the log of the quantity as if there were no decimal point, then prefix the index according to rule; the index will be one less than the number of figures to the left of the decimal point.

Required log of 8.141593.

log of	8.141	=	0.907068	Diff. = 138
From proportional parts	5	=	690	
"	09	=	1242	
"	003	=	041	
<hr/>				
log	8.141593		0.9071498	

To find the number corresponding to a given log.—Find in the table the log nearest to the decimal part of the given log and take the first four digits of the required number from the column N and the foot of the column containing the log which is the next less than the given log. To find the 5th and 6th digits subtract the log in the table from the given log, multiply the difference by 100, and divide by the figure in the Diff. column opposite the log; annex the quotient to the four digits first found, and place the decimal point according to the rule; the number of figures to the left of the decimal point is one greater than the index.

Find number corresponding to the log 0.907150
Next lowest log in table corresponds to 8141..... .907068

Diff. = 82

Tabular diff. = 138; $82 \div 138 = .59 +$

The index being 0, the number is therefore 8.14159+.

To multiply two numbers by the use of logarithms.—Add together the logs of the two numbers, and find the number whose log is the sum.

To divide two numbers.—Subtract the log of the less from the log of the greater, and find the number whose log is the difference.

To raise a number to any given power.—Multiply the log of the number by the exponent of the power, and find the number whose log is the product.

To find any root of a given number.—Divide the log of the number by the index of the root. The quotient is the log of the root.

To find the reciprocal of a number.—Subtract the log of the number from 0, add 1 to the index and change the sign of the index; the result is the log of the reciprocal.

Required the reciprocal of 3.141593.

Log of 3.141593, as found above..... 0.4971498
 Subtract decimal part from 0 gives..... 0.5028502
 Add 1 to the index, and changing sign of the index gives... 1.5028502

which is the log of 0.31831.

To find the fourth term of a proportion by logarithms.

Take the logarithms of the second and third terms, and from their sum subtract the logarithm of the first term.

When one logarithm is to be subtracted from another, it may be more convenient to convert the subtraction into an addition, which may be done by subtracting the given logarithm from 10, adding the difference to the logarithm, and afterwards rejecting the 10.

The difference between a given logarithm and 10 is called its *arithmetical complement*, or *cologarithm*.

To subtract one logarithm from another is the same as to add its complement, and then reject 10 from the result. For $a - b = 10 - b + a - 10$.

To work a proportion, then, by logarithms, add the complement of the logarithm of the first term to the logarithms of the second and third terms. The characteristic must afterwards be diminished by 10.

Example in logarithms with a negative index.—Solve by logarithms $\left(\frac{526}{1011}\right)^{2.45}$, which means divide 526 by 1011 and raise the quotient to the 2.45 power.

log 526 = 2.720086
 log 1011 = 3.004751
 log of quotient = - 1.716235
 Multiply by 2.45
 — 2.581755
 — 2.664940
 — 1.432470
 — 1.30477575 = .90173, Ans.

In multiplying - 1.7 by 5, we say: $5 \times 7 = 35$, 3 to carry; $5 \times -1 = -5$ less carried = - 2. In adding - 2 + 8 + 3 + 1 carried from previous column, we: $1 + 3 + 8 = 12$, minus 2 = 10, set down 0 and carry 1; $1 + 4 - 2 = 3$.

LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS FROM 1 TO 100.

Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.
0.000000	21	1.322210	41	1.612784	61	1.786360	81	1.908495
0.000120	22	1.343333	42	1.632349	62	1.799302	82	1.918941
0.000240	23	1.361728	43	1.651688	63	1.796441	83	1.929076
0.000360	24	1.379211	44	1.670453	64	1.800180	84	1.934270
0.000480	25	1.397040	45	1.688213	65	1.812913	85	1.939419
0.000600	26	1.414973	46	1.702758	66	1.819544	86	1.934499
0.000720	27	1.431904	47	1.717208	67	1.826075	87	1.939549
0.000840	28	1.447158	48	1.731241	68	1.832509	88	1.944483
0.000960	29	1.462308	49	1.745006	69	1.838849	89	1.949300
0.001080	30	1.477121	50	1.758970	70	1.845098	90	1.954023
0.001200	31	1.491902	51	1.773750	71	1.851258	91	1.958641
0.001320	32	1.506550	52	1.788303	72	1.857332	92	1.963199
0.001440	33	1.521051	53	1.792776	73	1.863323	93	1.967698
0.001560	34	1.535379	54	1.797204	74	1.869232	94	1.972129
0.001680	35	1.549608	55	1.797039	75	1.875061	95	1.977724
0.001800	36	1.563693	56	1.791888	76	1.880811	96	1.982271
0.001920	37	1.578302	57	1.755875	77	1.886491	97	1.986772
0.002040	38	1.592744	58	1.759426	78	1.892105	98	1.991223
0.002160	39	1.607035	59	1.770852	79	1.897657	99	1.995627
0.002280	40	1.622200	60	1.778151	80	1.903000	100	

No. 100 L. 000.]

[No. 100 L.

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
100	000000	0434	0868	1301	1734	2166	2598	3029	3461	3891
1	4321	4751	5181	5609	6038	6466	6894	7321	7748	8171
2	8600	9026	9451	9876						
3					0300	0724	1147	1570	1993	2415
4	012887	3259	3680	4100	4521	4940	5360	5779	6197	6616
	7033	7451	7868	8284	8700	9116	9532	9947		
5	021189	1603	2016	2428	2841	3252	3664	4075	4485	4893
6	5306	5715	6125	6533	6942	7350	7757	8164	8571	8978
7	9384	9789								
8			0105	0500	1004	1408	1812	2216	2619	3021
9	033424	3820	4227	4628	5029	5430	5830	6230	6629	7028
0	7426	7825	8223	8620	9017	9414	9811			
04								0307	0703	0098

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
434	45.4	86.8	130.2	173.6	217.0	260.4	303.8	347.2
433	43.3	86.6	129.9	173.2	216.5	259.8	303.1	346.4
432	43.2	86.4	129.8	172.8	216.0	259.2	302.4	345.6
431	43.1	86.2	129.8	172.4	215.5	258.6	301.7	344.8
430	43.0	86.0	129.0	172.0	215.0	258.0	301.0	344.0
429	42.9	85.8	128.7	171.6	214.5	257.4	300.3	343.2
428	42.8	85.6	128.4	171.2	214.0	256.8	300.0	342.4
427	42.7	85.4	128.1	170.8	213.5	256.2	299.3	341.6
426	42.6	85.3	127.8	170.4	213.0	255.6	298.6	340.8
425	42.5	85.0	127.5	170.0	212.5	255.0	297.9	340.0
424	42.4	84.8	127.2	169.6	212.0	254.4	296.8	339.2
423	42.3	84.6	126.9	169.2	211.5	253.8	296.1	338.4
422	42.2	84.4	126.6	168.8	211.0	253.2	295.4	337.6
421	42.1	84.2	126.3	168.4	210.5	252.6	294.7	336.8
420	42.0	84.0	126.0	168.0	210.0	252.0	294.0	336.0
419	41.9	83.8	125.7	167.6	209.5	251.4	293.3	335.2
418	41.8	83.6	125.4	167.2	209.0	250.8	292.6	334.4
417	41.7	83.4	125.1	166.8	208.5	250.2	291.9	333.6
416	41.6	83.2	124.8	166.4	208.0	249.6	291.2	332.8
415	41.5	83.0	124.5	166.0	207.5	249.0	290.5	332.0
414	41.4	82.8	124.2	165.6	207.0	248.4	289.8	331.2
413	41.3	82.6	123.9	165.2	206.5	247.8	289.1	330.4
412	41.2	82.4	123.6	164.8	206.0	247.2	288.4	329.6
411	41.1	82.2	123.3	164.4	205.5	246.6	287.7	328.8
410	41.0	82.0	123.0	164.0	205.0	246.0	287.0	328.0
409	40.9	81.8	122.7	163.6	204.5	245.4	286.3	327.2
408	40.8	81.6	122.4	163.2	204.0	244.8	285.6	326.4
407	40.7	81.4	122.1	162.8	203.5	244.2	284.9	325.6
406	40.6	81.2	121.8	162.4	203.0	243.6	284.2	324.8
405	40.5	81.0	121.5	162.0	202.5	243.0	283.5	324.0
404	40.4	80.8	121.2	161.6	202.0	242.4	282.8	323.2
403	40.3	80.6	120.9	161.2	201.5	241.8	282.1	322.4
402	40.2	80.4	120.6	160.8	201.0	241.2	281.4	321.6
401	40.1	80.2	120.3	160.4	200.5	240.6	280.7	320.8
400	40.0	80.0	120.0	160.0	200.0	240.0	280.0	320.0
399	39.9	79.8	119.7	159.6	199.5	239.4	279.3	319.2
398	39.8	79.6	119.4	159.2	199.0	238.8	278.6	318.4
397			119.1	158.8	198.5	238.2	277.9	317.6
396			118.8	158.4	198.0	237.6	277.2	316.8
395			118.5	158.0	197.5	237.0	276.5	316.0

[No. 119 L. 078.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
187	3182	2576	2060	3302	3755	4148	4540	4932	308
574	9165	6405	6885	7375	7864	8353	8842	9330	300
960	1403								
		0340	0766	1153	1538	1924	2300	2684	386
193	3846	4230	4613	4996	5378	5760	6142	6524	388
586	766	8046	8426	8805	9185	9563	9942		
								0320	379
1075	1452	1829	2206	2582	2958	3333	3709	4083	
432	594	5540	5953	6326	6690	7071	7443	7815	373
857	8828	9203	9668						
				0038	0407	0776	1145	1514	370
215	3017	3045	3332	3718	4085	4451	4810	5182	366
602	6270	6640	7004	7368	7731	8094	8457	8819	363

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
110.0	118.5	158.0	197.5	237.0	276.5	316.0	355.5	
110.1	118.2	157.6	197.0	236.4	275.8	315.2	354.6	
110.2	117.9	157.2	196.5	235.8	275.1	314.4	353.7	
110.3	117.6	156.8	196.0	235.2	274.4	313.6	352.6	
110.4	117.3	156.4	195.5	234.6	273.7	312.8	351.9	
110.5	117.0	156.0	195.0	234.0	273.0	312.0	351.0	
110.6	116.7	155.6	194.5	233.4	272.3	311.2	350.1	
110.7	116.4	155.2	194.0	232.8	271.6	310.4	349.2	
110.8	116.1	154.8	193.5	232.2	270.9	309.6	348.3	
110.9	115.8	154.4	193.0	231.6	270.2	308.8	347.4	
111.0	115.5	154.0	192.5	231.0	269.5	308.0	346.5	
111.1	115.2	153.6	192.0	230.4	268.8	307.2	345.6	
111.2	114.9	153.2	191.5	229.8	268.1	306.4	344.7	
111.3	114.6	152.8	191.0	229.2	267.4	305.6	343.8	
111.4	114.3	152.4	190.5	228.6	266.7	304.8	342.9	
111.5	114.0	152.0	190.0	228.0	266.0	304.0	342.0	
111.6	113.7	151.6	189.5	227.4	265.3	303.2	341.1	
111.7	113.4	151.2	189.0	226.8	264.6	302.4	340.2	
111.8	113.1	150.8	188.5	226.2	263.9	301.6	339.3	
111.9	112.8	150.4	188.0	225.6	263.2	300.8	338.4	
112.0	112.5	150.0	187.5	225.0	262.5	300.0	337.5	
112.1	112.2	149.6	187.0	224.4	261.8	299.2	336.6	
112.2	111.9	149.2	186.5	223.8	261.1	298.4	335.7	
112.3	111.6	148.8	186.0	223.2	260.4	297.6	334.8	
112.4	111.3	148.4	185.5	222.6	259.7	296.8	333.9	
112.5	111.0	148.0	185.0	222.0	259.0	296.0	333.0	
112.6	110.7	147.6	184.5	221.4	258.3	295.2	332.1	
112.7	110.4	147.2	184.0	220.8	257.6	294.4	331.2	
112.8	110.1	146.8	183.5	220.2	256.9	293.6	330.3	
112.9	109.8	146.4	183.0	219.6	256.2	292.8	329.4	
113.0	109.5	146.0	182.5	219.0	255.7	292.0	328.5	
113.1	109.2	145.6	182.0	218.4	254.8	291.2	327.6	
113.2	108.9	145.2	181.5	217.8	254.1	290.4	326.7	
113.3	108.6	144.8	181.0	217.2	253.4	289.6	325.8	
113.4	108.3	144.4	180.5	216.6	252.7	288.8	324.9	
113.5	108.0	144.0	180.0	216.0	252.0	288.0	324.0	
113.6	107.7	143.6	179.5	215.4	251.3	287.2	323.1	
113.7	107.4	143.2	179.0	214.8	250.6	286.4	322.2	
113.8	107.1	142.8	178.5	214.2	249.9	285.6	321.3	
113.9	106.8	142.4	178.0	213.6	249.2	284.8	320.4	

No. 130 L. 079.]

[No. 134 L. 10]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
130	079181	9542	9904	0206	0525	0867	1347	1707	2067	2420	35
1	082785	3144	3503	3861	4219	4576	4934	5291	5647	6004	35
2	6360	0716	7071	7426	7781	8136	8490	8845	9198	9552	35
3	9905										
4	063402	0234	0611	0983	1315	1667	2018	2370	2721	3071	35
5	0910	3772	4122	4471	4820	5169	5518	5866	6215	6562	35
6		7257	7604	7951	8298	8644	8990	9335	9681		35
7	100371	0715	1059	1403	1747	2091	2434	2777	3119	3462	35
8	3844	4146	4487	4828	5169	5510	5851	6191	6531	6871	35
9	7210	7549	7888	8227	8565	8903	9241	9579	9916		35
130	110500	0926	1263	1599	1934	2270	2605	2940	3275	3609	35
1	3943	4277	4611	4944	5278	5611	5943	6276	6608	6940	35
2	7271	7603	7934	8265	8595	8926	9256	9586	9915		35
3	120573	0903	1231	1560	1888	2216	2544	2871	3198	3525	35
4	3852	4178	4504	4830	5156	5481	5806	6131	6456	6781	35
5	7105	7429	7753	8077	8399	8722	9045	9368	9690		35
130										0012	35

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
355	35.5	71.0	106.5	142.0	177.5	213.0	248.5	284.0	319.5
354	35.4	70.8	106.2	141.6	177.0	212.4	247.8	283.2	318.7
353	35.3	70.6	105.9	141.2	176.5	211.8	247.1	282.5	318.2
352	35.2	70.4	105.6	140.8	176.0	211.2	246.4	281.9	317.7
351	35.1	70.2	105.3	140.4	175.5	210.6	245.7	281.2	317.2
350	35.0	70.0	105.0	140.0	175.0	210.0	245.0	280.0	316.7
349	34.9	69.8	104.7	139.6	174.5	209.4	244.3	279.2	316.2
348	34.8	69.6	104.4	139.2	174.0	208.8	243.6	278.4	315.7
347	34.7	69.4	104.1	138.8	173.5	208.2	242.9	277.6	315.2
346	34.6	69.2	103.8	138.4	173.0	207.6	242.2	276.8	314.7
345	34.5	69.0	103.5	138.0	172.5	207.0	241.5	276.0	314.2
344	34.4	68.8	103.2	137.6	172.0	206.4	240.8	275.2	313.7
343	34.3	68.6	102.9	137.2	171.5	205.8	240.1	274.4	313.2
342	34.2	68.4	102.6	136.8	171.0	205.2	239.4	273.6	312.7
341	34.1	68.2	102.3	136.4	170.5	204.6	238.7	272.8	312.2
340	34.0	68.0	102.0	136.0	170.0	204.0	238.0	272.0	311.7
339	33.9	67.8	101.7	135.6	169.5	203.4	237.3	271.2	311.2
338	33.8	67.6	101.4	135.2	169.0	202.8	236.6	270.4	310.7
337	33.7	67.4	101.1	134.8	168.5	202.2	235.9	269.6	310.2
336	33.6	67.2	100.8	134.4	168.0	201.6	235.2	268.8	309.7
335	33.5	67.0	100.5	134.0	167.5	201.0	234.5	268.0	309.2
334	33.4	66.8	100.2	133.6	167.0	200.4	233.8	267.2	308.7
333	33.3	66.6	99.9	133.2	166.5	199.8	233.1	266.4	308.2
332	33.2	66.4	99.6	132.8	166.0	199.2	232.4	265.6	307.7
331	33.1	66.2	99.3	132.4	165.5	198.6	231.7	264.8	307.2
330	33.0	66.0	99.0	132.0	165.0	198.0	231.0	264.0	306.7
329	32.9	65.8	98.7	131.6	164.5	197.4	230.3	263.2	306.2
328	32.8	65.6	98.4	131.2	164.0	196.8	229.6	262.4	305.7
327	32.7	65.4	98.1	130.8	163.5	196.2	228.9	261.6	305.2
326	32.6	65.2	97.8	130.4	163.0	195.6	228.2	260.8	304.7
325	32.5	65.0	97.5	130.0	162.5	195.0	227.5	260.0	304.2
324	32.4	64.8	97.2	129.6	162.0	194.4	226.8	259.2	303.7
323	32.3	64.6	96.9	129.2	161.5	193.8	226.1	258.4	303.2
322	32.2	64.4	96.6	128.8	161.0	193.2	225.4	257.6	302.7

[20.]

[No. 149 L. 175.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
0035	0077	12983	16119	1939	2260	2580	2900	3219	321
3638	4177	4496	4814	5133	5451	5769	6086	6403	318
7037	7354	7671	7987	8303	8618	8934	9249	9564	316
0194	0308	0822	1136	1450	1763	2076	2389	2702	314
3327	3939	3951	4263	4574	4885	5196	5507	5818	311
6439	6748	7058	7367	7670	7985	8294	8603	8911	309
9227	9836	0143	0449	0756	1063	1370	1678	1982	307
2594	2900	3215	3510	3815	4120	4424	4728	5032	305
5630	5948	6246	6549	6852	7154	7457	7759	8061	303
8904	9205	9507	9808	0109	0409	0709	1009	1301	301
1607	1907	2208	2504	2803	3101	3400	3758	4055	299
4350	4647	4944	5241	5538	5834	6130	6426	6722	297
7013	7308	7603	7897	8192	8486	8780	9074	9368	295
9655	9848	1141	1434	1726	2019	2311	2603	2895	293
3178	3769	4060	4351	4641	4932	5222	5513	5803	291

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	11	4	5	6	7	8	9
04.2	95.3	128.4	180.5	192.6	224.7	256.8	288.9
04.0	95.0	128.0	180.0	192.0	224.0	256.0	288.0
03.8	95.7	127.0	159.5	191.4	223.8	255.2	287.1
03.6	95.4	127.2	159.0	190.8	222.6	254.4	286.2
03.4	95.1	126.8	158.5	190.2	221.9	253.6	285.3
03.2	94.8	126.4	158.0	189.6	221.2	252.8	284.4
03.0	94.5	126.0	157.5	189.0	220.5	252.0	283.5
02.8	94.2	125.6	157.0	188.4	219.8	251.2	282.6
02.6	93.9	125.2	156.5	187.8	219.1	250.4	281.7
02.4	93.6	124.8	156.0	187.2	218.4	249.6	280.8
02.2	93.3	124.4	155.5	186.6	217.7	248.8	279.9
02.0	93.0	124.0	155.0	186.0	217.0	248.0	279.0
01.8	92.7	123.6	154.5	185.4	216.3	247.2	278.1
01.6	92.4	123.2	154.0	184.8	215.6	246.4	277.2
01.4	92.1	122.8	153.5	184.2	214.9	245.6	276.3
01.2	91.8	122.4	153.0	183.6	214.2	244.8	275.4
01.0	91.5	122.0	152.5	183.0	213.5	244.0	274.5
00.8	91.2	121.6	152.0	182.4	212.8	243.2	273.6
00.6	90.9	121.2	151.5	181.8	212.1	242.4	272.7
00.4	90.6	120.8	151.0	181.2	211.4	241.6	271.8
00.2	90.3	120.4	150.5	180.6	210.7	240.8	270.9
00.0	90.0	120.0	150.0	180.0	210.0	240.0	270.0
00.8	90.7	119.6	149.5	179.3	209.3	239.2	269.1
00.6	90.4	119.2	149.0	178.6	208.6	238.4	268.2
00.4	90.1	118.8	148.5	178.2	207.9	237.6	267.3
00.2	89.8	118.4	148.0	177.6	207.2	236.8	266.4
00.0	89.5	118.0	147.5	177.0	206.5	236.0	265.5
00.8	89.2	117.6	147.0	176.4	205.8	235.2	264.6
00.6	88.9	117.2	146.5	175.8	205.1	234.4	263.7
00.4	88.6	116.8	146.0	175.2	204.4	233.6	262.8
00.2	88.3	116.4	145.5	174.6	203.7	232.8	261.9
00.0	88.0	116.0	145.0	174.0	203.0	232.0	261.0
00.8	87.7	115.6	144.5	173.4	202.3	231.2	260.1
00.6	87.4	115.2	144.0	172.8	201.6	230.4	259.2
00.4	87.1	114.8	143.5	172.2	200.9	229.6	258.3
00.2	86.8	114.4	143.0	171.6	200.2	228.8	257.4

No. 150 L. 176.]

[N.]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
150	176091	6361	6670	6959	7248	7536	7825	8113	8401
1	8977	9264	9552	9839					
2	181844	2120	2415	2700	2985	3270	3555	3839	4123
3	4401	4675	4959	5242	5525	5808	6091	6374	6656
4	7521	7803	8084	8366	8647	8928	9209	9490	9771
5	190382	0612	0892	1171	1451	1730	2010	2290	2567
6	3125	3403	3681	3959	4237	4514	4792	5069	5346
7	5621	6176	6458	6729	7005	7281	7556	7832	8107
8	8657	8932	9206	9481	9755				
9	201397	1670	1943	2216	2488	2761	3033	3305	3577
160	4120	4391	4663	4934	5204	5475	5746	6016	6286
1	6526	7096	7365	7634	7904	8173	8441	8710	8979
2	9515	9783							
3	212188	2454	2720	2986	3252	3518	3783	4049	4314
4	4844	5109	5373	5638	5902	6166	6430	6694	6957
5	7484	7747	8010	8273	8536	8798	9060	9323	9585
6	220108	0370	0631	0892	1153	1414	1675	1936	2196
7	2716	2976	3239	3496	3755	4015	4274	4533	4792
8	5309	5568	5826	6084	6342	6600	6858	7115	7372
9	7887	8144	8400	8657	8913	9170	9426	9682	9938
33									

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

DIFF.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
265	28.5	57.0	85.5	114.0	142.5	171.0	199.5
264	28.4	56.8	85.2	113.6	142.0	170.4	199.0
263	28.3	56.6	84.9	113.2	141.5	169.8	198.1
262	28.2	56.4	84.6	112.8	141.0	169.2	197.4
261	28.1	56.2	84.3	112.4	140.5	168.6	196.7
260	28.0	56.0	84.0	112.0	140.0	168.0	196.0
259	27.9	55.8	83.7	111.6	139.5	167.4	195.3
258	27.8	55.6	83.4	111.2	139.0	166.8	194.6
257	27.7	55.4	83.1	110.8	138.5	166.2	193.9
256	27.6	55.2	82.8	110.4	138.0	165.6	193.2
255	27.5	55.0	82.5	110.0	137.5	165.0	192.5
254	27.4	54.8	82.2	109.6	137.0	164.4	191.8
253	27.3	54.6	81.9	109.2	136.5	163.8	191.1
252	27.2	54.4	81.6	108.8	136.0	163.2	190.4
251	27.1	54.2	81.3	108.4	135.5	162.6	189.7
250	27.0	54.0	81.0	108.0	135.0	162.0	189.0
249	26.9	53.8	80.7	107.6	134.5	161.4	188.3
248	26.8	53.6	80.4	107.2	134.0	160.8	187.6
247	26.7	53.4	80.1	106.8	133.5	160.2	186.9
246	26.6	53.2	79.8	106.4	133.0	159.6	186.2
245	26.5	53.0	79.5	106.0	132.5	159.0	185.5
244	26.4	52.8	79.2	105.6	132.0	158.4	184.8
243	26.3	52.6	78.9	105.2	131.5	157.8	184.1
242	26.2	52.4	78.6	104.8	131.0	157.2	183.4
241	26.1	52.2	78.3	104.4	130.5	156.6	182.7
240	26.0	52.0	78.0	104.0	130.0	156.0	182.0
239	25.9	51.8	77.7	103.6	129.5	155.4	181.3
238	25.8	51.6	77.4	103.2	129.0	154.8	180.6
237	25.7	51.4	77.1	102.8	128.5	154.2	179.9
236	25.6	51.2	76.8	102.4	128.0	153.6	179.2
235	25.5	51.0	76.5	102.0	127.5	153.0	178.5

[No.]

[No. 180 L. 378.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
0704	0360	1215	1470	1734	1979	2234	2488	2742	255
0250	3504	3757	4011	4264	4517	4770	5023	5276	258
0701	0363	6245	6537	6789	7041	7292	7544	7795	252
0257	3548	8709	9049	9299	9550	9800			
							0050	0300	250
0709	1048	1297	1546	1795	2044	2293	2541	2790	249
0256	3594	3782	4030	4277	4525	4772	5019	5266	248
0703	6005	0252	6499	6745	6991	7237	7482	7728	246
0210	8464	8709	8954	9196	9443	9687	9932		
								0178	245
0004	0008	1151	1395	1638	1881	2125	2368	2610	243
0006	3338	8580	9323	4064	4806	4548	4790	5031	242
0514	5755	5996	6237	6477	6718	6958	7198	7439	241
7018	8158	8398	8637	8877	9116	9355	9594	9833	239
0310	0648	0787	1025	1263	1501	1739	1978	2214	238
0088	2925	3162	3399	3636	3873	4109	4346	4582	237
0054	6290	5525	5761	5996	6232	6467	6702	6937	235
0068	7641	7875	8110	8344	8578	8812	9046	9279	234
0746	0280								
		0213	0446	0679	0912	1144	1377	1609	233
0074	2306	2538	2770	3001	3233	3464	3696	3927	232
0089	4620	4850	5081	5311	5542	5772	6002	6232	230
0082	6021	7151	7380	7609	7838	8067	8296	8525	229

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
76.5	102.0	127.5	153.0	178.5	204.0	229.5	
76.2	101.6	127.0	152.4	177.8	203.2	228.6	
75.9	101.2	126.5	151.8	177.1	202.4	227.7	
75.6	100.8	126.0	151.2	176.4	201.6	226.8	
75.3	100.4	125.5	150.6	175.7	200.8	225.9	
75.0	100.0	125.0	150.0	175.0	200.0	225.0	
74.7	99.6	124.5	149.4	174.3	199.2	224.1	
74.4	99.2	124.0	148.8	173.6	198.4	223.2	
74.1	98.8	123.5	148.2	172.9	197.6	222.3	
73.8	98.4	123.0	147.6	172.2	196.8	221.4	
73.5	98.0	122.5	147.0	171.5	196.0	220.5	
73.2	97.6	122.0	146.4	170.8	195.2	219.6	
72.9	97.2	121.5	145.8	170.1	194.4	218.7	
72.6	96.8	121.0	145.2	169.4	193.6	217.8	
72.3	96.4	120.5	144.6	168.7	192.8	216.9	
72.0	96.0	120.0	144.0	168.0	192.0	216.0	
71.7	95.6	119.5	143.4	167.3	191.2	215.1	
71.4	95.2	119.0	142.8	166.6	190.4	214.2	
71.1	94.8	118.5	142.2	165.9	189.6	213.3	
70.8	94.4	118.0	141.6	165.2	188.8	212.4	
70.5	94.0	117.5	141.0	164.5	188.0	211.5	
70.2	93.6	117.0	140.4	163.8	187.2	210.6	
69.9	93.2	116.5	139.8	163.1	186.4	209.7	
69.6	92.8	116.0	139.2	162.4	185.6	208.8	
69.3	92.4	115.5	138.6	161.7	184.8	207.9	
69.0	92.0	115.0	138.0	161.0	184.0	207.0	
68.7	91.6	114.5	137.4	160.3	183.2	206.1	
68.4	91.2	114.0	136.8	159.6	182.4	205.2	
68.1	90.8	113.5	136.2	158.9	181.6	204.3	
67.8	90.4	113.0	135.6	158.2	180.8	203.4	

No. 100 L. 276.]

[No. 214]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
190	278754	8962	0211	9439	9667	9805				
1	281033	1251	1498	1715	1942	2169	2406	2642	2840	3001
2	3301	3527	3753	3979	4205	4431	4656	4882	5107	5323
3	5557	5782	6007	6232	6456	6681	6905	7130	7354	7578
4	7802	8026	8249	8473	8696	8920	9143	9366	9589	9811
5	99095	0287	0490	0702	0925	1147	1390	1591	1812	2001
6	2250	2478	2699	2920	3141	3363	3584	3804	4025	4246
7	4466	4687	4907	5127	5347	5567	5787	6007	6226	6446
8	6665	6884	7104	7323	7542	7761	7979	8198	8416	8635
9	8853	9071	9289	9507	9725	9943				
							0161	0378	0595	0811
200	301080	1247	1461	1681	1898	2114	2331	2547	2764	2980
1	3196	3412	3628	3844	4059	4273	4491	4706	4921	5136
2	5351	5566	5781	5996	6211	6425	6639	6854	7068	7282
3	7496	7710	7924	8137	8351	8564	8778	8991	9204	9417
4	9630	9843								
5	311754	1906	2177	2398	2600	2812	3023	3234	3445	3656
6	3867	4078	4289	4490	4710	4920	5130	5340	5551	5761
7	5970	6180	6390	6599	6809	7018	7227	7436	7646	7855
8	8063	8272	8481	8689	8898	9106	9314	9522	9730	9938
9	320146	0254	0502	0759	0977	1184	1391	1598	1805	2012
210	2219	2420	2623	2829	3046	3252	3458	3665	3871	4077
1	4282	4488	4694	4899	5105	5310	5516	5721	5926	6131
2	6336	6541	6745	6950	7155	7359	7563	7767	7972	8176
3	8380	8583	8787	8991	9194	9398	9601	9806		
4	330414	0617	0819	1022	1225	1427	1630	1832	2034	2236

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
225	22.5	45.0	67.5	90.0	112.5	135.0	157.5	180.0
224	22.4	44.8	67.2	89.6	112.0	134.4	156.8	179.2
223	22.3	44.6	66.9	89.3	111.5	133.8	156.1	178.4
222	22.2	44.4	66.6	88.8	111.0	133.2	155.4	177.6
221	22.1	44.2	66.3	88.4	110.5	132.6	154.7	176.8
220	22.0	44.0	66.0	88.0	110.0	132.0	154.0	176.0
219	21.9	43.8	65.7	87.6	109.5	131.4	153.3	175.2
218	21.8	43.6	65.4	87.2	109.0	130.8	152.6	174.4
217	21.7	43.4	65.1	86.8	108.5	130.2	151.9	173.6
216	21.6	43.2	64.8	86.4	108.0	129.6	151.2	172.8
215	21.5	43.0	64.5	86.0	107.5	129.0	150.5	172.0
214	21.4	42.8	64.2	85.6	107.0	128.4	149.8	171.2
213	21.3	42.6	63.9	85.2	106.5	127.8	149.1	170.4
212	21.2	42.4	63.6	84.8	106.0	127.2	148.4	169.6
211	21.1	42.2	63.3	84.4	105.5	126.6	147.7	168.8
210	21.0	42.0	63.0	84.0	105.0	126.0	147.0	168.0
209	20.9	41.8	62.7	83.6	104.5	125.4	146.3	167.2
208	20.8	41.6	62.4	83.2	104.0	124.8	145.6	166.4
207	20.7	41.4	62.1	82.8	103.5	124.2	144.9	165.6
206	20.6	41.2	61.8	82.4	103.0	123.6	144.2	164.8
			61.5	82.0	102.5	123.0	143.5	164.0
			61.2	81.6	102.0	122.4	142.8	163.2
			60.9	81.2	101.5	121.8	142.1	162.4
			60.6	80.8	101.0	121.2	141.4	161.6

[No. 239 L. 280.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	INT.
2940	2942	3044	3216	3447	3649	3850	4051	4253	202
4055	4056	5057	5257	5458	5658	5859	6059	6260	201
6260	6260	7060	7260	7459	7659	7858	8058	8257	200
8256	8256	9054	9253	9451	9650	9849	0047	0246	199
0246	0441	1039	1237	1435	1632	1830	2028	2226	198
2226	2417	3014	3212	3409	3606	3802	3999	4196	197
4196	4385	4981	5178	5374	5570	5765	5962	6157	196
6157	6344	6939	7135	7330	7525	7720	7915	8110	195
8110	8294	8889	9083	9278	9472	9666	9860	0054	194
0054	0236	0830	1023	1216	1410	1603	1796	1989	193
1989	2181	2771	2964	3157	3349	3542	3734	3926	192
3926	4117	4706	4898	5089	5280	5472	5663	5854	191
5854	6044	6633	6824	7014	7205	7395	7585	7775	190
7775	7964	8553	8743	8932	9122	9311	9500	9689	189
9689	9878	0467	0656	0845	1034	1223	1412	1601	188
1601	1790	2379	2568	2757	2946	3135	3324	3513	187
3513	3699	4289	4478	4667	4856	5045	5234	5423	186
5423	5611	6200	6389	6578	6767	6956	7145	7334	185
7334	7522	8111	8300	8489	8678	8867	9056	9245	184
9245	9434	0023	0212	0401	0590	0779	0968	1157	183
1157	1346	1935	2124	2313	2502	2691	2880	3069	182
3069	3258	3847	4036	4225	4414	4603	4792	4981	181
4981	5170	5759	5948	6137	6326	6515	6704	6893	180
6893	7082	7671	7860	8049	8238	8427	8616	8805	179
8805	9000	9589	9778	9967	0156	0345	0534	0723	178
0723	0912	1501	1690	1879	2068	2257	2446	2635	177
2635	2824	3413	3602	3791	3980	4169	4358	4547	176
4547	4736	5325	5514	5703	5892	6081	6270	6459	175
6459	6648	7237	7426	7615	7804	7993	8182	8371	174
8371	8560	9149	9338	9527	9716	9905	0094	0283	173
0283	0472	1061	1250	1439	1628	1817	2006	2195	172
2195	2384	2973	3162	3351	3540	3729	3918	4107	171
4107	4296	4885	5074	5263	5452	5641	5830	6019	170
6019	6208	6797	6986	7175	7364	7553	7742	7931	169
7931	8120	8709	8898	9087	9276	9465	9654	9843	168
9843	0032	0621	0810	0999	1188	1377	1566	1755	167
1755	1944	2533	2722	2911	3100	3289	3478	3667	166
3667	3856	4445	4634	4823	5012	5201	5390	5579	165
5579	5768	6357	6546	6735	6924	7113	7302	7491	164
7491	7680	8269	8458	8647	8836	9025	9214	9403	163
9403	9592	0181	0370	0559	0748	0937	1126	1315	162
1315	1504	2093	2282	2471	2660	2849	3038	3227	161

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20.4	60.6	80.8	101.0	121.2	141.4	161.6	181.8
20.2	60.3	80.4	100.5	120.6	140.7	160.8	180.9
20.0	60.0	80.0	100.0	120.0	140.0	160.0	180.0
19.8	59.7	79.6	99.5	119.4	139.3	159.2	179.1
19.6	59.4	79.2	99.0	118.8	138.6	158.4	178.2
19.4	59.1	78.8	98.5	118.2	137.9	157.6	177.3
19.2	58.8	78.4	98.0	117.6	137.2	156.8	176.4
19.0	58.5	78.0	97.5	117.0	136.5	156.0	175.5
18.8	58.2	77.6	97.0	116.4	135.8	155.2	174.6
18.6	57.9	77.2	96.5	115.8	135.1	154.4	173.7
18.4	57.6	76.8	96.0	115.2	134.4	153.6	172.8
18.2	57.3	76.4	95.5	114.6	133.7	152.8	171.9
18.0	57.0	76.0	95.0	114.0	133.0	152.0	171.0
17.8	56.7	75.6	94.5	113.4	132.3	151.2	170.1
17.6	56.4	75.2	94.0	112.8	131.6	150.4	169.2
17.4	56.1	74.8	93.5	112.2	130.9	149.6	168.3
17.2	55.8	74.4	93.0	111.6	130.2	148.8	167.4
17.0	55.5	74.0	92.5	111.0	129.5	148.0	166.5
16.8	55.2	73.6	92.0	110.4	128.8	147.2	165.6
16.6	54.9	73.2	91.5	109.8	128.1	146.4	164.7
16.4	54.6	72.8	91.0	109.2	127.4	145.6	163.8
16.2	54.3	72.4	90.5	108.6	126.7	144.8	162.9
16.0	54.0	72.0	90.0	108.0	126.0	144.0	162.0
15.8	53.7	71.6	89.5	107.4	125.3	143.2	161.1

No. 240 L. 380.]

[No. 240]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
240	380211	0392	0573	0754	0934	1115	1296	1476	1656	1836
1	2017	2. 07	2377	2557	2737	2917	3097	3277	3456	3636
2	3815	3995	4174	4353	4533	4712	4891	5070	5249	5428
3	5606	5785	5964	6142	6321	6499	6677	6856	7034	7213
4	7390	7568	7746	7924	8101	8279	8456	8634	8811	8988
5	9168	9343	9520	9698	9875	10051	10228	10405	10582	10759
6	390835	1112	1288	1464	1641	1817	1993	2169	2345	2521
7	2097	2273	2448	2624	2800	3075	3251	3426	3601	3777
8	4452	4627	4802	4977	5152	5326	5501	5676	5850	6025
9	6199	6374	6548	6722	6896	7071	7245	7419	7592	7767
250	7940	8114	8287	8461	8634	8808	8981	9154	9328	9501
1	9674	9847	10020	10192	10365	10538	10711	10884	11056	11229
2	401401	1573	1745	1917	2089	2261	2433	2605	2777	2949
3	3121	3292	3464	3635	3807	3978	4149	4320	4491	4662
4	4834	5005	5176	5346	5517	5688	5858	6029	6199	6369
5	6540	6710	6881	7051	7221	7391	7561	7731	7901	8071
6	8240	8410	8579	8749	8918	9087	9257	9426	9595	9765
7	9933	10102	10271	10440	10609	10777	10946	11114	11283	11451
8	411620	1768	1936	2104	2272	2441	2609	2776	2944	3112
9	3900	3467	3635	3803	3970	4137	4305	4472	4639	4806
260	4973	5140	5307	5474	5641	5808	5974	6141	6308	6474
1	6641	6807	6973	7139	7305	7472	7638	7804	7970	8136
2	8301	8467	8633	8798	8964	9129	9295	9460	9625	9791
3	9956	10121	10286	10451	10616	10781	10945	11110	11275	11440
4	421604	1708	1933	2097	2261	2426	2590	2754	2918	3082
5	3246	3410	3574	3737	3901	4065	4228	4392	4555	4719
6	4982	5145	5308	5471	5634	5797	5960	6123	6286	6449
7	6511	6674	6836	6999	7161	7324	7486	7648	7811	7973
8	8185	8347	8509	8671	8833	8994	9156	9318	9479	9641
9	9752	9914	10075	10236	10398	10559	10720	10881	11042	11203
43										

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
178	17.8	35.6	53.4	71.2	89.0	106.8	124.6	142.4
177	17.7	35.4	53.1	70.8	88.5	106.2	123.9	141.6
176	17.6	35.2	52.8	70.4	88.0	105.6	123.2	140.8
175	17.5	35.0	52.5	70.0	87.5	105.0	122.5	140.0
174	17.4	34.8	52.2	69.6	87.0	104.4	121.8	139.2
173	17.3	34.6	51.9	69.2	86.5	103.8	121.1	138.4
172	17.2	34.4	51.6	68.8	86.0	103.2	120.4	137.6
171	17.1	34.2	51.3	68.4	85.5	102.6	119.7	136.8
170	17.0	34.0	51.0	68.0	85.0	102.0	119.0	136.0
169	16.9	33.8	50.7	67.6	84.5	101.4	118.3	135.2
168	16.8	33.6	50.4	67.2	84.0	100.8	117.6	134.4
167	16.7	33.4	50.1	66.8	83.5	100.2	116.9	133.6
166	16.6	33.2	49.8	66.4	83.0	99.6	116.2	132.8
165	16.5	33.0	49.5	66.0	82.5	99.0	115.5	132.0
164	16.4	32.8	49.2	65.6	82.0	98.4	114.8	131.2
163	16.3		48.9	65.2	81.5	97.8	114.1	130.4
			48.6	64.8	81.0	97.2	113.4	129.6
			48.3	64.4	80.5	96.6	112.7	128.8

[No. 299 L. 431.]

[No. 299 L. 476.]

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	DIFF.
431964	1525	1685	1846	2007	2167	2328	2488	2649	2809	161
2669	3190	3290	3450	3610	3770	3930	4090	4249	4409	160
4569	4729	4888	5048	5207	5367	5526	5685	5844	6004	159
6163	6322	6481	6640	6799	6957	7116	7275	7433	7592	158
7751	7909	8067	8226	8384	8542	8701	8859	9017	9175	157
9333	9491	9648	9806	9964						
					0122	0279	0437	0594	0752	156
440009	1066	1224	1381	1539	1695	1852	2009	2166	2323	155
2490	2637	2793	2950	3106	3263	3419	3576	3732	3889	154
4045	4201	4357	4513	4669	4825	4981	5137	5293	5449	153
5004	5160	5315	5471	5626	5782	5937	6092	6248	6403	152
7158	7313	7468	7623	7778	7933	8088	8242	8397	8552	151
8706	8861	9015	9170	9324	9478	9633	9787	9941		
									0095	154
450249	0403	0557	0711	0865	1018	1172	1326	1479	1633	154
1786	1940	2093	2247	2400	2553	2706	2859	3012	3165	153
3318	3471	3624	3777	3930	4082	4235	4387	4540	4692	152
4845	4997	5150	5302	5454	5606	5758	5910	6062	6214	151
6366	6518	6670	6821	6973	7125	7276	7428	7579	7731	150
7882	8033	8184	8336	8487	8638	8789	8940	9091	9242	149
9392	9543	9694	9845	9995						
					0146	0296	0447	0597	0748	151
460908	1048	1198	1348	1499	1649	1799	1948	2098	2248	150
2398	2548	2697	2847	2997	3146	3296	3445	3594	3744	149
3893	4042	4191	4340	4489	4638	4787	4936	5085	5234	148
5383	5532	5680	5829	5977	6126	6274	6423	6571	6719	147
6868	7016	7164	7312	7460	7608	7756	7904	8052	8200	146
8347	8495	8643	8790	8938	9085	9233	9380	9527	9675	145
9822	9969									
		0116	0263	0410	0557	0704	0851	0998	1145	147
471292	1438	1585	1732	1878	2025	2171	2318	2464	2610	146
2756	2903	3049	3195	3341	3487	3633	3779	3925	4071	145
4210	4356	4502	4648	4793	4939	5084	5229	5374	5519	144
5671	5816	5962	6107	6252	6397	6542	6687	6832	6976	143

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

DIFF.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
101	16.1	32.2	48.3	64.4	80.5	96.6	112.7	128.8	144.9
102	16.0	32.0	48.0	64.0	80.0	96.0	112.0	128.0	144.0
103	15.9	31.8	47.7	63.6	79.5	95.4	111.3	127.2	143.1
104	15.8	31.6	47.4	63.2	79.0	94.8	110.6	126.4	142.2
105	15.7	31.4	47.1	62.8	78.5	94.3	109.9	125.6	141.3
106	15.6	31.2	46.8	62.4	78.0	93.8	109.2	124.8	140.4
107	15.5	31.0	46.5	62.0	77.5	93.3	108.5	124.0	139.5
108	15.4	30.8	46.3	61.6	77.0	92.8	107.8	123.2	138.6
109	15.3	30.6	45.9	61.2	76.5	91.8	107.1	122.4	137.7
110	15.2	30.4	45.6	60.8	76.0	91.3	106.4	121.6	136.8
111	15.1	30.2	45.3	60.4	75.5	90.6	105.7	120.8	135.9
112	15.0	30.0	45.0	60.0	75.0	90.0	105.0	120.0	135.0
113	14.9	29.8	44.7	59.6	74.5	89.4	104.3	119.2	134.1
114	14.8	29.6	44.4	59.2	74.0	88.8	103.6	118.4	133.2
115	14.7	29.4	44.1	58.8	73.5	88.2	102.9	117.6	132.3
116	14.6	29.2	43.8	58.4	73.0	87.6	102.2	116.8	131.4
117	14.5	29.0	43.5	58.0	72.5	87.0	101.5	116.0	130.5
118	14.4	28.8	43.2	57.6	72.0	86.4	100.8	115.2	129.6
119	14.3	28.6	42.9	57.2	71.5	85.8	100.1	114.4	128.7
120	14.2	28.4	42.6	56.8	71.0	85.2	99.4	113.6	127.8
121	14.1	28.2	42.3	56.4	70.5	84.6	98.7	112.8	126.9
122	14.0	28.0	42.0	56.0	70.0	84.0	98.0	112.0	126.0

No. 300 L. 477.]

[No. 330 L.

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
300	477121	7366	7411	7555	7700	7844	7989	8133	8278	8422
1	8566	8711	8855	8999	9143	9287	9431	9575	9719	9863
2	480007	0151	0294	0438	0582	0725	0869	1012	1156	1300
3	1443	1586	1729	1872	2016	2159	2302	2445	2588	2731
4	2874	3016	3159	3302	3445	3587	3730	3872	4015	4157
5	4300	4442	4585	4727	4869	5011	5153	5295	5437	5579
6	5721	5863	6005	6147	6289	6430	6572	6714	6855	6997
7	7138	7280	7421	7563	7704	7845	7986	8127	8268	8409
8	8551	8692	8833	8974	9114	9255	9396	9537	9677	9818
9	9958									
		0099	0239	0380	0520	0661	0801	0941	1081	1222
310	401302	1503	1642	1782	1922	2062	2201	2341	2481	2621
1	2760	2900	3040	3179	3319	3459	3597	3737	3876	4015
2	4155	4294	4433	4572	4711	4850	4989	5128	5267	5406
3	5544	5683	5822	5960	6099	6238	6376	6515	6653	6791
4	6930	7068	7206	7344	7482	7621	7759	7897	8035	8173
5	8311	8448	8586	8724	8862	8999	9137	9275	9412	9550
6	9687	9824	9962							
				0099	0236	0374	0511	0648	0785	0922
7	501066	1106	1243	1380	1517	1654	1790	1927	2064	2201
8	2427	2564	2700	2837	2973	3109	3246	3382	3518	3655
9	3791	3927	4063	4199	4335	4471	4607	4743	4878	5014
320	5150	5286	5421	5557	5693	5828	5964	6099	6234	6370
1	6505	6640	6776	6911	7046	7181	7316	7451	7586	7721
2	7856	7991	8126	8260	8395	8530	8664	8799	8934	9068
3	9203	9337	9471	9606	9740					
						0099	0148	0297	0445	0593
4	510845	0679	0813	0947	1081	1215	1349	1482	1616	1750
5	1883	2017	2151	2284	2418	2551	2684	2818	2951	3084
6	3218	3351	3484	3617	3750	3883	4016	4149	4282	4415
7	4548	4681	4813	4946	5079	5211	5344	5476	5609	5741
8	5874	6006	6139	6271	6403	6535	6668	6800	6932	7064
9	7196	7328	7460	7592	7724	7855	7987	8119	8251	8382
330	8514	8646	8777	8909	9040	9171	9302	9434	9566	9697
1	9828	9959								
			0099	0221	0353	0484	0615	0745	0876	1007
2	521138	1260	1400	1539	1678	1817	1956	2095	2234	2373
3	2444	2585	2725	2865	2999	3133	3267	3400	3534	3667
4	3740	3879	4018	4156	4295	4433	4572	4710	4848	4986
5	5045	5174	5304	5434	5563	5692	5822	5951	6081	6210
6	6339	6468	6598	6727	6856	6985	7114	7243	7372	7501
7	7630	7759	7888	8016	8145	8274	8402	8531	8660	8788
8	8917	9045	9174	9302	9430					
						0099	0137	0275	0412	0550
9	530200	0328	0456	0584	0712	0840	0968	1096	1223	1351

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
139	13.9	27.8	41.7	55.6	69.5	83.4	97.3	111.2
138	13.8	27.6	41.4	55.2	69.0	82.8	96.6	110.4
137	13.7	27.4	41.1	54.8	68.5	82.2	95.9	109.6
136	13.6	27.2	40.8	54.4	68.0	81.6	95.2	108.8
135	13.5	27.0	40.5	54.0	67.5	81.0	94.5	108.0
134	13.4	26.8	40.2	53.6	67.0	80.4	93.8	107.2
133	13.3	26.6	39.9	53.2	66.5	79.8	93.1	106.4
132	13.2	26.4	39.6	52.8	66.0	79.2	92.4	105.6
131	13.1	26.2	39.3	52.4	65.5	78.6	91.7	104.8
130	13.0	26.0	39.0	52.0	65.0	78.0	91.0	104.0
129	12.9	25.8	38.7	51.6	64.5	77.4	90.3	103.2
128	12.8	25.6	38.4	51.2	64.0	76.8	89.6	102.4

[No. 531.]

[No. 379 L. 579.]

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
251 179	1607	1794	1862	1900	2117	2245	2372	2500	2627	128
2754	2882	3000	3136	3264	3391	3518	3645	3773	3900	127
4035	4153	4280	4407	4531	4661	4787	4911	5041	5167	127
5294	5421	5547	5674	5800	5927	6053	6180	6306	6432	126
6558	6685	6811	6937	7063	7189	7315	7441	7567	7693	126
7819	7945	8071	8197	8322	8448	8574	8699	8825	8951	126
9076	9202	9327	9452	9578	9703	9829	9954			
54 3323	0455	0680	0705	0890	0955	1090	1205	1390	1554	125
1579	1704	1820	1953	2078	2203	2327	2452	2576	2701	125
2825	2950	3074	3199	3323	3447	3571	3696	3820	3944	124
4068	4192	4316	4440	4564	4688	4812	4936	5060	5183	124
5307	5431	5555	5678	5802	5925	6049	6172	6296	6419	124
6543	6666	6789	6913	7036	7159	7282	7405	7528	7652	123
7775	7898	8021	8144	8267	8390	8512	8635	8758	8881	123
9003	9125	9248	9371	9494	9616	9739	9861	9984		
55 3328	0351	0473	0595	0717	0840	0962	1084	1206	1328	122
1450	1572	1694	1816	1938	2060	2181	2303	2425	2547	122
2669	2790	2911	3033	3155	3276	3398	3519	3640	3762	121
3883	4004	4125	4247	4368	4489	4610	4731	4852	4973	121
5094	5215	5336	5457	5578	5699	5820	5940	6061	6182	121
6303	6423	6544	6664	6785	6905	7025	7146	7267	7387	120
7507	7627	7748	7868	7988	8108	8228	8349	8469	8589	120
8709	8829	8949	9069	9189	9309	9429	9549	9669	9789	120
9907										
56 1101	0026	0140	0255	0369	0484	0598	0713	0828	0942	119
2233	1241	1340	1459	1578	1696	1817	1936	2055	2174	119
3291	2312	2531	2650	2769	2887	3006	3125	3244	3362	119
4349	3360	3578	3697	3815	4034	4152	4271	4389	4508	119
5406	4484	4605	4721	4839	4957	5075	5193	5311	5429	118
6463	5486	5604	5722	5840	5958	6076	6194	6312	6430	118
7520	7144	7262	7379	7497	7614	7732	7849	7967	8084	118
8102	8319	8436	8554	8671	8788	8905	9023	9140	9257	117
9374	9491	9608	9725	9842	9959					
57 543	0000	0776	0893	1010	1128	1245	1360	1476	1592	117
1709	1825	1942	2058	2174	2291	2407	2523	2639	2755	116
2872	2988	3104	3220	3336	3452	3568	3684	3799	3915	116
4031	4147	4263	4379	4494	4610	4726	4841	4957	5073	116
5185	5303	5419	5534	5650	5765	5881	5996	6111	6227	115
6341	6457	6573	6688	6804	6919	7035	7150	7266	7381	115
7497	7612	7728	7843	7958	8073	8188	8303	8418	8533	115
8649	8764	8879	8994	9109	9224	9339	9454	9569	9684	114

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
128	12.8	25.6	38.4	51.2	64.0	76.8	89.6	102.4	115.2
127	12.7	25.4	38.1	50.8	63.5	76.2	89.0	101.6	114.3
126	12.6	25.2	37.9	50.6	63.0	75.6	88.2	100.8	113.4
125	12.5	25.0	37.5	50.0	62.5	75.0	87.5	100.0	112.5
124	12.4	24.8	37.2	49.6	62.0	74.4	86.8	99.2	111.6
123	12.3	24.6	36.9	49.2	61.5	73.8	86.1	98.4	110.7
122	12.2	24.4	36.6	48.8	61.0	73.2	85.4	97.6	109.8
121	12.1	24.2	36.3	48.4	60.5	72.6	84.7	96.8	108.9
120	12.0	24.0	36.0	48.0	60.0	72.0	84.0	96.0	108.0
119	11.9	23.8	35.7	47.6	59.5	71.4	83.3	95.2	107.1

No. 800 L. 477.]

[No. 820 L.

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
300	477121	7208	7411	7555	7700	7844	7989	8133	8278	8422
1	8566	8711	8855	8999	9143	9287	9431	9575	9719	9863
2	480007	0151	0304	0458	0592	0725	0869	1012	1156	1299
3	1445	1590	1735	1872	2010	2159	2302	2445	2588	2731
4	2874	3016	3159	3292	3445	3587	3730	3872	4015	4157
5	4300	4442	4585	4727	4869	5011	5153	5295	5437	5579
6	5721	5863	6005	6147	6289	6430	6572	6714	6855	6997
7	7139	7280	7421	7563	7704	7845	7986	8127	8268	8409
8	8551	8692	8833	8974	9114	9255	9396	9537	9677	9818
9	9958									
		0099	0239	0380	0520	0661	0801	0941	1081	1222
810	491302	1502	1642	1782	1922	2062	2201	2341	2481	2621
1	2760	2900	3040	3179	3319	3458	3597	3737	3876	4015
2	4155	4294	4433	4572	4711	4850	4989	5128	5267	5406
3	5544	5683	5822	5960	6099	6238	6376	6515	6653	6792
4	6930	7068	7206	7344	7483	7621	7759	7897	8035	8173
5	8311	8448	8586	8724	8862	8999	9137	9275	9412	9550
6	9687	9824	9962							
				0099	0238	0374	0511	0648	0785	0922
7	501050	1180	1319	1457	1597	1744	1890	2037	2184	2329
8	2427	2564	2700	2837	2973	3109	3246	3382	3518	3653
9	3791	3927	4063	4199	4335	4471	4607	4743	4878	5014
330	5150	5286	5421	5557	5692	5828	5964	6099	6234	6370
1	6505	6640	6776	6911	7046	7181	7316	7451	7586	7721
2	7856	7991	8126	8260	8395	8530	8664	8799	8934	9068
3	9203	9337	9471	9606	9740					
						0000	0133	0267	0401	0535
4	510545	0079	0213	0347	0481	1215	1349	1482	1616	1750
5	1883	2017	2151	2284	2418	2551	2684	2818	2951	3084
6	3218	3351	3484	3617	3750	3883	4016	4149	4282	4415
7	4548	4681	4813	4946	5079	5211	5344	5476	5609	5741
8	5874	6006	6139	6271	6403	6535	6668	6800	6932	7064
9	7196	7328	7460	7592	7724	7855	7987	8119	8251	8383
330	8514	8646	8777	8909	9040	9171	9302	9434	9565	9697
1	9828	9959								
			0090	0221	0353	0484	0615	0745	0876	1007
2	521138	1260	1400	1539	1679	1792	1922	2053	2183	2314
3	2444	2575	2705	2835	2966	3096	3226	3356	3486	3616
4	3746	3876	4006	4136	4266	4396	4526	4656	4785	4915
5	5045	5174	5304	5434	5563	5693	5822	5951	6081	6210
6	6310	6440	6569	6697	6826	6955	7084	7213	7342	7471
7	7690	7819	7948	8076	8205	8334	8463	8591	8720	8849
8	8917	9045	9174	9302	9430	9559	9687	9815	9944	
9	539200	0528	0656	0784	0912	0940	0968	1000	1223	1351

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
139	13.9	27.8	41.7	55.6	69.5	83.4	97.3	111.2
138	13.8	27.6	41.4	55.2	69.0	82.8	96.6	110.4
137	13.7	27.4	41.1	54.8	68.5	82.2	95.9	109.6
136	13.6	27.2	40.8	54.4	68.0	81.6	95.2	108.8
135	13.5	27.0	40.5	54.0	67.5	81.0	94.5	108.0
134	13.4	26.8	40.2	53.6	67.0	80.4	93.8	107.2
133	13.3	26.6	39.9	53.2	66.5	79.8	93.1	106.4
132	13.2	26.4	39.6	52.8	66.0	79.2	92.4	105.6
131	13.1	26.2	39.3	52.4	65.5	78.6	91.7	104.8
		26.0	39.0	52.0	65.0	78.0	91.0	104.0
			25.7	51.6	64.5	77.4	90.3	103.2
			25.4	51.2	64.0	76.8	89.6	102.4

[No. 450 L. 662.]

1	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
882	8466	8571	8676	8780	8884	8989	105
908	9511	9615	9719	9824	9928		
						0032	
948	0552	0656	0760	0864	0968	1072	104
988	1592	1695	1799	1903	2007	2110	
925	2632	2732	2835	2939	3042	3146	
959	3663	3766	3869	3973	4076	4179	103
991	4695	4798	4901	5004	5107	5210	
921	5724	5827	5929	6032	6135	6238	
948	6751	6853	6956	7058	7161	7263	
973	7775	7878	7980	8082	8185	8287	102
995	8797	8900	9002	9104	9206	9308	
915	9817	9919					
			0021	0123	0224	0326	
933	0835	0936	1038	1139	1241	1342	
948	1849	1951	2052	2153	2255	2356	
9701	2862	2963	3064	3165	3266	3367	101
9771	3872	3973	4074	4175	4276	4376	
9779	4880	4981	5081	5182	5283	5383	
9785	5886	5986	6087	6187	6287	6388	
9789	6889	6989	7089	7189	7290	7390	100
9790	7890	7990	8090	8190	8290	8390	
9780	8888	8988	9088	9188	9287	9387	
9785	9885	9984					
			0084	0183	0283	0382	
			0078	0177	0276	0375	
0779	0879	0979	1079	1179	1278	1377	
1771	1871	1970	2069	2168	2267	2366	99
2761	2860	2959	3058	3156	3255	3354	
3749	3847	3946	4044	4143	4242	4340	
4734	4832	4931	5029	5127	5226	5324	
5717	5815	5913	6011	6110	6208	6306	
6698	6796	6894	6992	7089	7187	7285	98
7676	7774	7872	7969	8067	8165	8262	
8653	8750	8848	8945	9043	9140	9237	
9627	9724	9821	9919				
				0016	0113	0210	
0509	0606	0703	0800	0907	1004	1101	
1509	1606	1702	1809	1906	2003	2100	97
2506	2603	2700	2800	2903	3019	3116	
3502	3598	3695	3791	3888	3984	4080	
4500	4596	4692	4788	4880	4976	5072	96
5501	5597	5693	5789	5880	5976	6072	
6500	6596	6692	6787	6880	6976	7072	
7507	7593	7688	7783	7875	7970	8066	
8502	8598	8693	8788	8879	8974	9070	
9505	9590	9686	9781	9871	9966		
0106	0201	0296	0391	0486	0581	0676	95
1055	1150	1245	1339	1434	1529	1624	
2003	2098	2191	2286	2380	2475	2569	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31.0	31.5	32.0	32.5	33.0	33.5	34.0	34.5
31.8	31.2	31.6	32.0	32.4	32.8	33.2	33.6
32.6	30.0	31.2	31.5	31.8	32.1	32.4	32.7
33.4	30.6	30.8	31.0	31.2	31.4	31.6	31.8
34.2	30.3	30.4	30.5	30.6	30.7	30.8	30.9
35.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0
35.8	29.7	30.6	30.6	30.4	30.3	30.2	30.1

No. 400 L. 602.]

[No. 400 L.

N	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
400	602768	2852	2947	3041	3135	3230	3324	3418	3512	3607
1	3701	3795	3889	3983	4078	4172	4266	4360	4454	4549
2	4642	4736	4830	4924	5018	5112	5206	5299	5393	5487
3	5581	5675	5769	5863	5956	6050	6143	6237	6331	6424
4	6518	6612	6705	6799	6892	6986	7079	7173	7266	7360
5	7453	7546	7640	7733	7826	7920	8013	8106	8199	8293
6	8386	8479	8572	8665	8758	8851	8945	9038	9131	9224
7	9317	9410	9503	9596	9689	9782	9875	9967	0060	0153
8	0246	0339	0431	0524	0617	0710	0802	0895	0988	1080
9	1173	1265	1358	1451	1543	1636	1728	1821	1913	2006
470	2098	2190	2283	2375	2467	2560	2652	2744	2836	2929
1	3021	3113	3205	3297	3389	3482	3574	3666	3758	3850
2	3942	4034	4126	4218	4310	4402	4494	4586	4677	4769
3	4861	4953	5045	5137	5228	5320	5412	5503	5595	5687
4	5778	5870	5962	6054	6145	6236	6328	6419	6511	6602
5	6694	6785	6876	6968	7059	7151	7242	7333	7424	7516
6	7607	7698	7789	7881	7972	8063	8154	8245	8336	8427
7	8518	8609	8700	8791	8882	8973	9064	9155	9246	9337
8	9428	9519	9610	9700	9791	9882	9973	0063	0154	0245
9	0336	0426	0517	0607	0698	0789	0879	0970	1060	1151
480	1241	1332	1422	1513	1603	1693	1784	1874	1964	2055
1	2145	2235	2326	2416	2506	2596	2686	2777	2867	2957
2	3047	3137	3227	3317	3407	3497	3587	3677	3767	3857
3	3947	4037	4127	4217	4307	4396	4486	4576	4666	4756
4	4845	4935	5025	5114	5204	5294	5383	5473	5563	5652
5	5742	5831	5921	6010	6100	6189	6279	6368	6458	6547
6	6636	6726	6815	6904	6994	7083	7172	7261	7351	7440
7	7529	7618	7707	7796	7886	7975	8064	8153	8242	8331
8	8420	8509	8598	8687	8776	8865	8953	9042	9131	9220
9	9309	9398	9486	9575	9664	9753	9841	9930	0019	0107
490	690190	0285	0373	0462	0550	0639	0728	0816	0905	0993
1	1081	1170	1258	1347	1435	1524	1612	1700	1789	1877
2	1965	2053	2142	2230	2318	2406	2494	2583	2671	2759
3	2847	2935	3023	3111	3199	3287	3375	3463	3551	3639
4	3727	3815	3903	3991	4078	4166	4254	4342	4430	4517
5	4605	4693	4781	4868	4956	5044	5131	5219	5307	5394
6	5482	5569	5657	5744	5832	5919	6007	6094	6182	6269
7	6356	6444	6531	6619	6706	6793	6880	6968	7055	7142
8	7229	7317	7404	7491	7578	7665	7752	7839	7926	8014
9	8100	8188	8275	8362	8449	8535	8622	8709	8796	8883

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

DIFF.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
98	9.8	19.6	29.4	39.2	49.0	58.8	68.6	78.4
97	9.7	19.4	29.1	38.8	48.5	58.2	67.9	77.6
96	9.6	19.2	28.8	38.4	48.0	57.6	67.2	76.8
95	9.5	19.0	28.5	38.0	47.5	57.0	66.5	76.0
94	9.4	18.8	28.2	37.6	47.0	56.4	65.8	75.2
93	9.3	18.6	27.9	37.2	46.5	55.8	65.1	74.4
92	9.2	18.4	27.6	36.8	46.0	55.2	64.4	73.6
91	9.1	18.2	27.3	36.4	45.5	54.0	63.7	72.8
90	9.0	18.0	27.0	36.0	45.0	54.0	63.0	72.0
			26.7	35.6	44.5	53.4	62.3	71.2
			26.4	35.2	44.0	52.9	61.8	70.8
			26.1	34.8	43.6	52.2	60.9	69.5
			25.8	34.4	43.0	51.0	60.2	68.8

[No. 544 L. 786.]

	2	4	6	8	7	5	9	Diff.
94	9231	9317	9404	9491	9578	9664	9751	
95	0098	0184	0271	0358	0444	0531	0617	
96	0183	0269	0356	0442	0528	0614	0700	
97	0267	0353	0439	0525	0611	0697	0783	
98	0351	0437	0523	0609	0695	0781	0867	
99	0435	0521	0607	0693	0779	0865	0951	
00	0519	0605	0691	0777	0863	0949	1035	
01	0603	0689	0775	0861	0947	1033	1119	
02	0687	0773	0859	0945	1031	1117	1203	
03	0771	0857	0943	1029	1115	1201	1287	
04	0855	0941	1027	1113	1199	1285	1371	
05	0939	1025	1111	1197	1283	1369	1455	
06	1023	1109	1195	1281	1367	1453	1539	
07	1107	1193	1279	1365	1451	1537	1623	
08	1191	1277	1363	1449	1535	1621	1707	
09	1275	1361	1447	1533	1619	1705	1791	
10	1359	1445	1531	1617	1703	1789	1875	
11	1443	1529	1615	1701	1787	1873	1959	
12	1527	1613	1699	1785	1871	1957	2043	
13	1611	1697	1783	1869	1955	2041	2127	
14	1695	1781	1867	1953	2039	2125	2211	
15	1779	1865	1951	2037	2123	2209	2295	
16	1863	1949	2035	2121	2207	2293	2379	
17	1947	2033	2119	2205	2291	2377	2463	
18	2031	2117	2203	2289	2375	2461	2547	
19	2115	2201	2287	2373	2459	2545	2631	
20	2199	2285	2371	2457	2543	2629	2715	
21	2283	2369	2455	2541	2627	2713	2799	
22	2367	2453	2539	2625	2711	2797	2883	
23	2451	2537	2623	2709	2795	2881	2967	
24	2535	2621	2707	2793	2879	2965	3051	
25	2619	2705	2791	2877	2963	3049	3135	
26	2703	2789	2875	2961	3047	3133	3219	
27	2787	2873	2959	3045	3131	3217	3303	
28	2871	2957	3043	3129	3215	3301	3387	
29	2955	3041	3127	3213	3299	3385	3471	
30	3039	3125	3211	3297	3383	3469	3555	
31	3123	3209	3295	3381	3467	3553	3639	
32	3207	3293	3379	3465	3551	3637	3723	
33	3291	3377	3463	3549	3635	3721	3807	
34	3375	3461	3547	3633	3719	3805	3891	
35	3459	3545	3631	3717	3803	3889	3975	
36	3543	3629	3715	3801	3887	3973	4059	
37	3627	3713	3799	3885	3971	4057	4143	
38	3711	3797	3883	3969	4055	4141	4227	
39	3795	3881	3967	4053	4139	4225	4311	
40	3879	3965	4051	4137	4223	4309	4395	
41	3963	4049	4135	4221	4307	4393	4479	
42	4047	4133	4219	4305	4391	4477	4563	
43	4131	4217	4303	4389	4475	4561	4647	
44	4215	4301	4387	4473	4559	4645	4731	
45	4299	4385	4471	4557	4643	4729	4815	
46	4383	4469	4555	4641	4727	4813	4899	
47	4467	4553	4639	4725	4811	4897	4983	
48	4551	4637	4723	4809	4895	4981	5067	
49	4635	4721	4807	4893	4979	5065	5151	
50	4719	4805	4891	4977	5063	5149	5235	
51	4803	4889	4975	5061	5147	5233	5319	
52	4887	4973	5059	5145	5231	5317	5403	
53	4971	5057	5143	5229	5315	5401	5487	
54	5055	5141	5227	5313	5399	5485	5571	
55	5139	5225	5311	5397	5483	5569	5655	
56	5223	5309	5395	5481	5567	5653	5739	
57	5307	5393	5479	5565	5651	5737	5823	
58	5391	5477	5563	5649	5735	5821	5907	
59	5475	5561	5647	5733	5819	5905	5991	
60	5559	5645	5731	5817	5903	5989	6075	
61	5643	5729	5815	5901	5987	6073	6159	
62	5727	5813	5899	5985	6071	6157	6243	
63	5811	5897	5983	6069	6155	6241	6327	
64	5895	5981	6067	6153	6239	6325	6411	
65	5979	6065	6151	6237	6323	6409	6495	
66	6063	6149	6235	6321	6407	6493	6579	
67	6147	6233	6319	6405	6491	6577	6663	
68	6231	6317	6403	6489	6575	6661	6747	
69	6315	6401	6487	6573	6659	6745	6831	
70	6399	6485	6571	6657	6743	6829	6915	
71	6483	6569	6655	6741	6827	6913	7000	
72	6567	6653	6739	6825	6911	6997	7083	
73	6651	6737	6823	6909	6995	7081	7167	
74	6735	6821	6907	6993	7079	7165	7251	
75	6819	6905	6991	7077	7163	7249	7335	
76	6903	6989	7075	7161	7247	7333	7419	
77	6987	7073	7159	7245	7331	7417	7503	
78	7071	7157	7243	7329	7415	7501	7587	
79	7155	7241	7327	7413	7499	7585	7671	
80	7239	7325	7411	7497	7583	7669	7755	
81	7323	7409	7495	7581	7667	7753	7839	
82	7407	7493	7579	7665	7751	7837	7923	
83	7491	7577	7663	7749	7835	7921	8007	
84	7575	7661	7747	7833	7919	8005	8091	
85	7659	7745	7831	7917	8003	8089	8175	
86	7743	7829	7915	8001	8087	8173	8259	
87	7827	7913	7999	8085	8171	8257	8343	
88	7911	7997	8083	8169	8255	8341	8427	
89	7995	8081	8167	8253	8339	8425	8511	
90	8079	8165	8251	8337	8423	8509	8595	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20.1	20.1	34.8	43.5	52.2	60.9	69.6	78.3
25.8	25.8	34.4	43.0	51.6	60.2	68.8	77.4
25.5	25.5	34.0	42.5	51.0	59.5	68.0	76.5
25.2	25.2	33.6	42.0	50.4	58.8	67.2	75.8

LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS.

545 L. 736.]

[No. 584 L. 737]

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff
736907	6476	6556	6636	6715	6795	6874	6954	7034	7113	
7198	7272	7352	7431	7511	7590	7670	7749	7829	7908	
7987	8067	8146	8225	8305	8384	8463	8543	8622	8701	
8781	8860	8939	9018	9097	9177	9256	9335	9414	9493	
9572	9651	9731	9810	9889	9968	0047	0126	0205	0284	70
740363	0442	0521	0600	0678	0757	0836	0915	0994	1073	
1152	1230	1309	1388	1467	1546	1624	1703	1782	1860	
1939	2018	2096	2175	2254	2332	2411	2489	2568	2647	
2725	2804	2882	2961	3039	3118	3196	3275	3353	3431	
3510	3588	3667	3745	3823	3902	3980	4058	4136	4215	
4293	4371	4449	4528	4606	4684	4762	4840	4919	4997	
5075	5153	5231	5309	5387	5465	5543	5621	5699	5777	75
5855	5933	6011	6089	6167	6245	6323	6401	6479	6556	
6634	6712	6790	6868	6945	7023	7101	7179	7256	7334	
7412	7489	7567	7645	7722	7800	7878	7955	8033	8110	
8188	8266	8343	8421	8499	8576	8653	8731	8808	8885	
8963	9040	9118	9195	9272	9350	9427	9504	9582	9659	
9736	9814	9891	9968	0045	0123	0200	0277	0354	0431	7
750508	0586	0663	0740	0817	0894	0971	1048	1125	1202	
1279	1356	1433	1510	1587	1664	1741	1818	1895	1972	
2048	2125	2202	2279	2356	2433	2510	2586	2663	2740	
2816	2893	2970	3047	3123	3200	3277	3353	3430	3506	
3583	3660	3736	3813	3889	3966	4042	4119	4195	4272	
4348	4425	4501	4578	4654	4730	4807	4883	4960	5036	
5112	5189	5265	5341	5417	5494	5570	5646	5722	5799	
5875	5951	6027	6103	6180	6256	6332	6408	6484	6560	75
6636	6712	6788	6864	6940	7016	7092	7168	7244	7320	
7396	7472	7548	7624	7700	7775	7851	7927	8003	8079	
8155	8230	8306	8382	8458	8533	8609	8685	8761	8836	
8912	8988	9063	9139	9214	9290	9366	9441	9517	9592	
9668	9743	9819	9894	9970	0045	0121	0196	0272	0347	
760422	0498	0571	0649	0724	0799	0875	0950	1025	1101	
1176	1251	1326	1402	1477	1552	1627	1702	1778	1853	
1928	2003	2078	2153	2228	2303	2378	2453	2529	2604	
2679	2754	2829	2904	2978	3053	3128	3203	3278	3353	
3428	3503	3578	3653	3727	3802	3877	3952	4027	4101	
4176	4251	4326	4400	4475	4550	4624	4699	4774	4848	
4923	4998	5072	5147	5221	5296	5370	5445	5520	5594	
5669	5743	5818	5892	5966	6041	6115	6190	6264	6338	
6413	6487	6562	6636	6710	6785	6859	6933	7007	7082	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

N.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8.3	16.6	24.0	31.2	38.5	45.8	53.1	60.4	67.7	75.0
8.2	16.4	24.0	31.2	38.5	45.8	53.1	60.4	67.7	75.0
8.1	16.2	24.0	31.2	38.5	45.8	53.1	60.4	67.7	75.0
8.0	16.0	24.0	31.2	38.5	45.8	53.1	60.4	67.7	75.0
7.9	15.8	23.7	31.0	38.3	45.6	52.9	60.2	67.5	74.8
7.8	15.6	23.4	31.0	38.3	45.6	52.9	60.2	67.5	74.8
7.7	15.4	23.1	30.8	38.0	45.3	52.6	59.9	67.2	74.5
		22.8	30.6	37.8	45.0	52.3	59.6	66.9	74.2
			22.5	30.0	37.5	52.0	59.3	66.6	73.9
				29.7	37.0	44.4	51.8	59.2	73.6

[No. 629 L. 799.]

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
7304	7379	7453	7527	7601	7675	7749	7823	74
8048	8120	8194	8268	8342	8416	8490	8564	
8786	8860	8934	9008	9082	9156	9230	9303	
9525	9599	9673	9746	9820	9894	9968	0042	
0063	0136	0210	0284	0357	0431	0505	0578	75
0659	0731	0805	0879	0952	1026	1100	1174	
1248	1321	1395	1468	1542	1615	1689	1762	
1836	1909	1983	2056	2130	2203	2277	2350	
2424	2497	2571	2644	2718	2791	2865	2938	76
3011	3084	3158	3231	3305	3378	3452	3525	
3599	3672	3746	3819	3893	3966	4040	4113	
4187	4260	4334	4407	4481	4554	4628	4701	
4775	4848	4922	4995	5069	5142	5216	5289	77
5363	5436	5510	5583	5657	5730	5804	5877	
5951	6024	6098	6171	6245	6318	6392	6465	
6539	6612	6686	6759	6833	6906	6979	7053	
7126	7200	7273	7347	7420	7494	7567	7641	78
7714	7788	7861	7935	8008	8082	8155	8229	
8302	8376	8449	8523	8596	8670	8743	8817	
8890	8964	9037	9111	9184	9258	9331	9405	
9478	9552	9625	9699	9772	9846	9919	0000	79
0073	0146	0220	0293	0367	0440	0514	0587	
0661	0734	0808	0881	0955	1028	1102	1175	
1249	1322	1396	1469	1543	1616	1690	1763	
1837	1910	1984	2057	2131	2204	2278	2351	80
2425	2498	2572	2645	2719	2792	2866	2939	
3013	3086	3160	3233	3307	3380	3454	3527	
3601	3674	3748	3821	3895	3968	4042	4115	
4189	4262	4336	4409	4483	4556	4630	4703	81
4777	4850	4924	4997	5071	5144	5218	5291	
5365	5438	5512	5585	5659	5732	5806	5879	
5953	6026	6100	6173	6247	6320	6394	6467	
6541	6614	6688	6761	6835	6908	6982	7055	82
7129	7202	7276	7349	7423	7496	7570	7643	
7717	7790	7864	7937	8011	8084	8158	8231	
8305	8378	8452	8525	8599	8672	8746	8819	
8893	8966	9040	9113	9187	9260	9334	9407	83
9481	9554	9628	9701	9775	9848	9922	0000	
0074	0147	0221	0294	0368	0441	0515	0588	
0662	0735	0809	0882	0956	1029	1103	1176	
1250	1323	1397	1470	1544	1617	1691	1764	84
1838	1911	1985	2058	2132	2205	2279	2352	
2426	2499	2573	2646	2720	2793	2867	2940	
3014	3087	3161	3234	3308	3381	3455	3528	
3602	3675	3749	3822	3896	3969	4043	4116	85
4190	4263	4337	4410	4484	4557	4631	4704	
4778	4851	4925	4998	5072	5145	5219	5292	
5366	5439	5513	5586	5660	5733	5807	5880	
5954	6027	6101	6174	6248	6321	6395	6468	86
6542	6615	6689	6762	6836	6909	6983	7056	
7130	7203	7277	7350	7424	7497	7571	7644	
7718	7791	7865	7938	8012	8085	8159	8232	
8306	8379	8453	8526	8600	8673	8747	8820	87
8894	8967	9041	9114	9188	9261	9335	9408	
9482	9555	9629	9702	9776	9849	9923	0000	
0075	0148	0222	0295	0369	0442	0516	0589	
0663	0736	0810	0883	0957	1030	1104	1177	88
1251	1324	1398	1471	1545	1618	1692	1765	
1839	1912	1986	2059	2133	2206	2280	2353	
2427	2500	2574	2647	2721	2794	2868	2941	
3015	3088	3162	3235	3309	3382	3456	3529	89
3603	3676	3750	3823	3897	3970	4044	4117	
4191	4264	4338	4411	4485	4558	4632	4705	
4779	4852	4926	4999	5073	5146	5220	5293	
5367	5440	5514	5587	5661	5734	5808	5881	90
5955	6028	6102	6175	6249	6322	6396	6469	
6543	6616	6690	6763	6837	6910	6984	7057	
7131	7204	7278	7351	7425	7498	7572	7645	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22.5	30.0	37.5	45.0	52.5	60.0	67.5	
22.3	29.8	37.0	44.4	51.8	59.2	66.6	
21.9	29.2	36.5	43.8	51.1	58.4	65.7	
21.6	28.8	36.0	43.2	50.4	57.6	64.8	
21.3	28.4	35.5	42.6	49.7	56.8	63.9	
21.0	28.0	35.0	42.0	49.0	56.0	63.0	
20.7	27.6	34.5	41.4	48.3	55.2	62.1	

[No. 719 L. 857.]

	4	6	8	7	8	9	Dir.
7	9561	9625	9690	9754	9818	9882	
0	0204	0268	0332	0396	0460	0525	
1	0815	0880	0943	1007	1072	1136	
2	1426	1500	1574	1648	1722	1796	64
3	2126	2189	2253	2317	2381	2445	
4	2764	2828	2892	2956	3020	3083	
5	3402	3466	3530	3594	3657	3721	
6	4039	4103	4167	4231	4294	4357	
7	4675	4739	4802	4866	4929	4992	
8	5310	5373	5437	5500	5563	5627	
9	5944	6007	6071	6134	6197	6261	
10	6577	6641	6704	6767	6830	6894	
11	7210	7273	7336	7399	7462	7525	
12	7841	7904	7967	8030	8093	8156	68
13	8471	8534	8597	8660	8723	8786	
14	9101	9164	9227	9289	9352	9415	
15	9729	9792	9855	9918	9981	0043	
16	0357	0420	0482	0545	0608	0671	
17	0984	1046	1109	1172	1234	1297	
18	1610	1672	1735	1797	1860	1922	
19	2235	2297	2360	2422	2484	2547	
20	2859	2921	2983	3046	3108	3170	
21	3482	3544	3606	3669	3731	3793	
22	4104	4166	4229	4291	4353	4415	
23	4726	4788	4850	4912	4974	5036	62
24	5346	5408	5470	5532	5594	5656	
25	5964	6026	6088	6151	6213	6275	
26	6583	6645	6707	6769	6831	6893	
27	7202	7264	7326	7388	7449	7511	
28	7819	7881	7943	8004	8066	8128	
29	8435	8497	8559	8620	8682	8743	
30	9051	9112	9174	9235	9297	9358	
31	9664	9726	9788	9849	9911	9972	
32	0217	0279	0340	0401	0462	0524	
33	0820	0881	0942	1003	1064	1125	
34	1432	1503	1564	1625	1686	1747	
35	2053	2114	2175	2236	2297	2358	
36	2663	2724	2785	2846	2907	2968	61
37	3272	3333	3394	3455	3516	3577	
38	3881	3942	4003	4064	4125	4186	
39	4488	4549	4610	4671	4732	4793	
40	5005	5066	5127	5188	5249	5310	
41	5611	5672	5733	5794	5855	5916	
42	6218	6279	6340	6401	6462	6523	
43	6825	6886	6947	7008	7069	7130	
44	7432	7493	7554	7615	7676	7737	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

8	4	5	6	7	8	9
10.5	30.0	32.5	35.0	37.5	40.0	42.5
10.8	25.6	32.0	38.4	44.8	51.2	57.6
11.2	28.8	31.5	37.6	44.1	50.4	56.7
11.6	24.8	31.0	37.2	43.4	49.6	55.8
12.0	24.4	30.5	36.6	42.7	48.8	54.9
12.4	24.0	30.0	36.0	42.0	48.0	54.0

No. 720 L. 857.]

[No. 764 L.

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
720	857332	7303	7453	7513	7574	7634	7694	7755	7815	7875
1	7335	7395	8006	8116	8176	8236	8297	8357	8417	8477
2	8537	8597	8657	8718	8778	8838	8898	8958	9018	9078
3	9138	9198	9258	9318	9379	9439	9499	9559	9619	9679
4	9739	9799	9859	9918	9978					
5	800334	0398	0458	0518	0578	0638	0698	0757	0817	0877
6	0937	0996	1056	1116	1176	1235	1295	1355	1415	1475
7	1534	1594	1654	1714	1773	1833	1893	1952	2012	2072
8	2131	2191	2251	2310	2370	2429	2489	2549	2608	2668
9	2728	2787	2847	2906	2966	3025	3085	3144	3204	3263
730	3323	3382	3442	3501	3561	3620	3679	3739	3798	3858
1	3917	3977	4036	4096	4155	4214	4274	4333	4392	4452
2	4511	4570	4630	4689	4748	4808	4867	4926	4985	5045
3	5104	5163	5222	5282	5341	5400	5459	5519	5578	5637
4	5696	5755	5814	5874	5933	5992	6051	6110	6169	6228
5	6287	6346	6405	6465	6524	6583	6642	6701	6760	6819
6	6878	6937	6996	7055	7114	7173	7232	7291	7350	7409
7	7467	7526	7585	7644	7703	7762	7821	7880	7939	7998
8	8056	8115	8174	8233	8292	8350	8409	8468	8527	8586
9	8644	8703	8762	8821	8879	8938	8997	9056	9114	9173
740	9232	9290	9349	9408	9466	9525	9584	9642	9701	9760
1	9818	9877	9935	9994						
2	870404	0462	0521	0579	0638	0696	0755	0813	0872	0930
3	0989	1047	1105	1164	1222	1281	1339	1398	1456	1515
4	1573	1631	1689	1748	1806	1865	1923	1981	2040	2098
5	2156	2215	2273	2331	2389	2448	2506	2564	2622	2681
6	2739	2797	2855	2913	2972	3030	3088	3146	3204	3263
7	3321	3379	3437	3495	3553	3611	3669	3727	3785	3844
8	3902	3960	4018	4076	4134	4192	4250	4308	4366	4424
9	4482	4540	4598	4656	4714	4772	4830	4888	4945	5003
750	5061	5119	5177	5235	5293	5351	5409	5466	5524	5582
1	5640	5698	5756	5813	5871	5929	5987	6045	6102	6160
2	6218	6276	6333	6391	6449	6507	6564	6622	6680	6737
3	6795	6853	6910	6968	7026	7083	7141	7199	7256	7314
4	7371	7429	7487	7544	7602	7659	7717	7774	7832	7889
5	7947	8004	8062	8119	8177	8234	8292	8349	8407	8464
6	8522	8579	8637	8694	8752	8809	8866	8924	8981	9039
7	9096	9153	9211	9268	9325	9383	9440	9497	9555	9612
8	9669	9726	9784	9841	9898	9956				
9	890404	0460	0516	0573	0629	0685	0742	0798	0855	0911
760	0814	0871	0928	0985	1042	1099	1156	1213	1271	1328
1	1385	1442	1499	1556	1613	1670	1727	1784	1841	1898
2	1955	2012	2069	2126	2183	2240	2297	2354	2411	2468
3	2525	2581	2638	2695	2752	2809	2866	2923	2980	3037
4	3093	3150	3207	3264	3321	3377	3434	3491	3548	3605

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
50			17.7	23.6	29.5	35.4	41.3	47.2
			7.4	23.2	29.0	34.8	40.6	46.4
			1	22.8	28.5	34.2	39.9	45.6
			8	22.4	28.0	33.6	39.2	44.8

[No. 765 L. 583.]

[No. 809 L. 508.]

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
883661	3718	3775	3832	3888	3945	4002	4059	4115	4172		
4229	4285	4342	4399	4455	4512	4569	4625	4682	4739		
4795	4852	4909	4965	5022	5078	5135	5192	5248	5305		
5361	5418	5474	5531	5587	5644	5700	5757	5813	5870		
5926	5983	6039	6096	6152	6209	6265	6321	6378	6434		
6491	6547	6604	6660	6716	6773	6829	6885	6942	6998		
7054	7111	7167	7223	7280	7336	7392	7449	7505	7561		
7617	7674	7730	7786	7842	7898	7955	8011	8067	8123		
8179	8235	8292	8348	8404	8460	8516	8573	8629	8685		
8741	8797	8853	8909	8965	9021	9077	9134	9190	9246		
9302	9358	9414	9470	9525	9582	9638	9694	9750	9806	50	
9862	9918	9974									
9929			0080	0086	0141	0197	0253	0309	0365		
0421	0477	0533	0589	0645	0700	0756	0812	0868	0924		
0980	1035	1091	1147	1203	1259	1314	1370	1426	1482		
1537	1593	1649	1705	1760	1816	1872	1928	1983	2039		
2095	2150	2206	2262	2317	2373	2429	2484	2540	2595		
2651	2707	2762	2818	2873	2929	2984	3040	3095	3151		
3207	3262	3318	3373	3429	3484	3540	3595	3651	3706		
3762	3817	3873	3928	3984	4039	4094	4150	4205	4261		
4316	4371	4427	4482	4538	4593	4648	4704	4759	4814		
4870	4925	4980	5036	5091	5146	5201	5257	5312	5367		
5423	5478	5533	5588	5644	5699	5754	5809	5864	5920		
5975	6030	6085	6140	6195	6251	6306	6361	6416	6471		
6526	6581	6636	6691	6747	6802	6857	6912	6967	7022		
7077	7132	7187	7242	7297	7352	7407	7462	7517	7572	55	
7627	7682	7737	7792	7847	7902	7957	8012	8067	8122		
8177	8232	8287	8342	8397	8451	8506	8561	8616	8671		
8726	8781	8836	8891	8946	8999	9054	9109	9164	9218		
9273	9328	9383	9437	9492	9547	9602	9656	9711	9766		
9821	9875	9930	9985								
9940			0039	0086	0140	0195	0250	0304	0359		
0413	0468	0522	0577	0631	0686	0740	0795	0849	0904		
0958	1013	1067	1121	1176	1230	1284	1338	1392	1446		
1499	1553	1607	1661	1715	1769	1823	1877	1931	1985		
2038	2092	2146	2200	2254	2308	2362	2416	2470	2524		
2577	2631	2685	2739	2793	2847	2901	2955	3009	3063		
3117	3171	3225	3279	3333	3387	3441	3495	3549	3603		
3657	3711	3765	3819	3873	3927	3981	4035	4089	4143		
4197	4251	4305	4359	4413	4467	4521	4575	4629	4683		
4737	4791	4845	4899	4953	5007	5061	5115	5169	5223		
5277	5331	5385	5439	5493	5547	5601	5655	5709	5763		
5817	5871	5925	5979	6033	6087	6141	6195	6249	6303		
6357	6411	6465	6519	6573	6627	6681	6735	6789	6843		
6897	6951	7005	7059	7113	7167	7221	7275	7329	7383		
7437	7491	7545	7599	7653	7707	7761	7815	7869	7923		
7977	8031	8085	8139	8193	8247	8301	8355	8409	8463		

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5.7	11.4	17.1	22.8	28.5	34.2	39.9	45.6	51.3	
5.8	11.3	16.8	22.4	28.0	33.6	39.2	44.8	50.4	
5.9	11.0	16.5	22.0	27.5	33.0	38.5	44.0	49.5	
6.0	10.8	16.3	21.8	27.0	32.4	37.8	43.2	48.6	

No. 810 L. 908.]

[No. 854 L.]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	T
810	006485	8539	8592	8646	8699	8755	8807	8860	8914	8967	
1	9021	9074	9128	9181	9235	9288	9342	9396	9449	9508	
2	9556	9610	9663	9716	9770	9823	9877	9930	9984		0087
3	910091	0144	0197	0251	0304	0358	0411	0464	0518	0571	
4	0624	0678	0731	0784	0838	0891	0944	0998	1051	1104	
5	1158	1211	1264	1317	1371	1424	1477	1530	1583	1637	
6	1690	1743	1797	1850	1903	1956	2009	2063	2116	2169	
7	2222	2275	2328	2381	2435	2488	2541	2594	2647	2700	
8	2753	2806	2859	2913	2966	3019	3072	3125	3178	3231	
9	3284	3337	3390	3443	3496	3549	3602	3655	3708	3761	
820	3814	3867	3920	3973	4026	4079	4132	4184	4237	4290	
1	4343	4396	4449	4502	4555	4608	4660	4713	4766	4819	
2	4872	4925	4977	5030	5083	5136	5189	5241	5294	5347	
3	5400	5453	5505	5558	5611	5664	5716	5769	5822	5875	
4	5927	5980	6033	6085	6138	6191	6243	6296	6349	6401	
5	6454	6507	6559	6612	6664	6717	6770	6822	6875	6927	
6	6980	7033	7085	7138	7190	7243	7295	7348	7400	7453	
7	7506	7558	7611	7663	7716	7768	7820	7873	7925	7978	
8	8030	8083	8135	8188	8240	8293	8345	8397	8450	8502	
9	8555	8607	8659	8712	8764	8816	8869	8921	8973	9026	
830	9078	9130	9183	9235	9287	9340	9392	9444	9496	9549	
1	9601	9653	9706	9758	9810	9862	9914	9967		0019	0071
2	00123	0176	0228	0280	0332	0384	0436	0489	0541	0593	
3	0645	0697	0749	0801	0853	0905	0958	1010	1062	1114	
4	1166	1218	1270	1322	1374	1426	1478	1530	1582	1634	
5	1686	1738	1790	1842	1894	1946	1998	2050	2102	2154	
6	2206	2258	2310	2362	2414	2466	2518	2570	2622	2674	
7	2725	2777	2829	2881	2933	2985	3037	3089	3141	3193	
8	3244	3296	3348	3399	3451	3503	3555	3607	3658	3710	
9	3762	3814	3865	3917	3969	4021	4072	4124	4176	4228	
840	4279	4331	4383	4434	4486	4538	4589	4641	4693	4744	
1	4796	4848	4899	4951	5003	5054	5106	5157	5209	5261	
2	5312	5364	5415	5467	5518	5570	5621	5673	5725	5776	
3	5828	5879	5931	5982	6034	6085	6137	6188	6240	6291	
4	6342	6394	6445	6497	6548	6600	6651	6702	6754	6805	
5	6857	6908	6959	7011	7062	7113	7165	7216	7268	7319	
6	7370	7422	7473	7524	7575	7627	7678	7729	7781	7832	
7	7883	7935	7986	8037	8088	8140	8191	8242	8293	8345	
8	8396	8447	8498	8549	8601	8652	8703	8754	8805	8857	
9	8908	8959	9010	9061	9112	9163	9215	9266	9317	9368	
850	9419	9470	9521	9572	9623	9674	9725	9776	9827	9879	
1	9930	9981									
2	008440	0101	0032	0083	0134	0185	0236	0287	0338	0389	
3	0440	0490	0541	0592	0643	0694	0745	0796	0847	0898	
4	1458	1509	1560	1610	1661	1712	1763	1814	1865	1915	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
53	5.8	10.4	15.0	21.2	26.5	31.8	37.1	42.4
54	5.9	10.5	15.1	21.3	26.6	31.9	37.2	42.5
55	6.0	10.6	15.2	21.4	26.7	32.0	37.3	42.6
56	6.1	10.7	15.3	21.5	26.8	32.1	37.4	42.7
57	6.2	10.8	15.4	21.6	26.9	32.2	37.5	42.8
58	6.3	10.9	15.5	21.7	27.0	32.3	37.6	42.9
59	6.4	11.0	15.6	21.8	27.1	32.4	37.7	43.0
60	6.5	11.1	15.7	21.9	27.2	32.5	37.8	43.1

OF NUMBERS.

No.									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
117	208	2118	2169	2220	2271	2322	2372	2423	2474
121	255	2626	2677	2727	2778	2829	2879	2930	2981
125	302	3123	3183	3234	3285	3335	3386	3437	3488
129	350	3639	3690	3740	3791	3841	3892	3943	3994
133	404	4145	4195	4246	4296	4347	4397	4448	4499
137	459	4650	4700	4751	4801	4852	4902	4953	5004
141	504	5154	5205	5255	5306	5356	5406	5457	5508
145	558	5688	5709	5759	5809	5859	5909	5959	6010
149	601	6162	6212	6262	6313	6363	6413	6463	6514
153	654	6665	6715	6765	6815	6865	6916	6966	7017
157	706	7167	7217	7267	7317	7367	7418	7468	7519
161	758	7618	7668	7718	7769	7819	7869	7919	7969
165	803	8119	8169	8219	8269	8319	8369	8419	8469
169	850	8620	8670	8720	8770	8820	8870	8920	8970
173	900	9120	9170	9220	9270	9320	9370	9420	9470
177	959	9669	9719	9769	9819	9869	9919	9969	10000
181	009	0118	0168	0218	0267	0317	0367	0417	0467
185	059	0610	0660	0716	0765	0815	0865	0915	0966
189	104	1114	1163	1213	1263	1313	1362	1412	1462
193	151	1611	1660	1710	1760	1809	1859	1909	1959
197	208	2107	2157	2207	2256	2306	2355	2405	2455
201	254	2603	2653	2702	2752	2801	2851	2901	2950
205	300	3093	3143	3192	3242	3291	3341	3390	3440
209	354	3603	3653	3702	3752	3801	3851	3900	3950
213	408	4098	4147	4196	4246	4295	4345	4394	4444
217	452	4581	4631	4680	4729	4779	4828	4877	4927
221	506	5124	5173	5222	5271	5321	5370	5419	5469
225	559	5660	5709	5758	5807	5857	5906	5955	6005
229	603	6099	6148	6197	6246	6295	6344	6393	6443
233	657	6644	6693	6742	6791	6840	6889	6938	6988
237	701	7078	7127	7176	7225	7274	7323	7372	7422
241	755	7614	7663	7712	7761	7810	7859	7908	7958
245	809	8148	8197	8246	8295	8344	8393	8442	8492
249	863	8682	8731	8780	8829	8878	8927	8976	9026
253	917	9216	9265	9314	9363	9412	9461	9510	9560
257	971	9750	9799	9848	9897	9946	9995	10000	10000
261	005	0094	0143	0192	0241	0290	0339	0388	0438
265	059	0638	0687	0736	0785	0834	0883	0932	0981
269	103	1072	1121	1170	1219	1268	1317	1366	1415
273	157	1616	1665	1714	1763	1812	1861	1910	1959
277	201	2049	2098	2147	2196	2245	2294	2343	2392
281	255	2594	2643	2692	2741	2790	2839	2888	2937
285	309	3138	3187	3236	3285	3334	3383	3432	3481
289	363	3672	3721	3770	3819	3868	3917	3966	4015
293	417	4216	4265	4314	4363	4412	4461	4510	4559
297	471	4750	4799	4848	4897	4946	4995	5044	5093
301	525	5294	5343	5392	5441	5490	5539	5588	5637
305	579	5838	5887	5936	5985	6034	6083	6132	6181
309	623	6272	6321	6370	6419	6468	6517	6566	6615
313	677	6816	6865	6914	6963	7012	7061	7110	7159
317	731	7350	7399	7448	7497	7546	7595	7644	7693
321	785	7894	7943	7992	8041	8090	8139	8188	8237
325	839	8438	8487	8536	8585	8634	8683	8732	8781
329	895	8994	9043	9092	9141	9190	9239	9288	9337
333	959	9638	9687	9736	9785	9834	9883	9932	9981
337	003	0072	0121	0170	0219	0268	0317	0366	0415
341	057	0616	0665	0714	0763	0812	0861	0910	0959
345	101	1049	1098	1147	1196	1245	1294	1343	1392
349	155	1594	1643	1692	1741	1790	1839	1888	1937
353	209	2138	2187	2236	2285	2334	2383	2432	2481
357	263	2672	2721	2770	2819	2868	2917	2966	3015
361	317	3216	3265	3314	3363	3412	3461	3510	3559
365	371	3750	3799	3848	3897	3946	3995	4044	4093
369	425	4294	4343	4392	4441	4490	4539	4588	4637
373	479	4838	4887	4936	4985	5034	5083	5132	5181
377	523	5272	5321	5370	5419	5468	5517	5566	5615
381	577	5816	5865	5914	5963	6012	6061	6110	6159
385	621	6250	6299	6348	6397	6446	6495	6544	6593
389	675	6794	6843	6892	6941	6990	7039	7088	7137
393	729	7338	7387	7436	7485	7534	7583	7632	7681
397	783	7872	7921	7970	8019	8068	8117	8166	8215
401	837	8416	8465	8514	8563	8612	8661	8710	8759
405	891	8950	9000	9049	9098	9147	9196	9245	9294
409	945	9494	9543	9592	9641	9690	9739	9788	9837
413	999	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15.3	20.4	25.5	30.6	35.7	40.8	45.9
15.0	20.0	25.0	30.0	35.0	40.0	45.0
14.7	19.6	24.5	29.4	34.3	39.2	44.1
14.4	19.2	24.0	28.8	33.6	38.4	43.2

No 900 L. 954.]

[No. 944.]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
900	954243	4291	4339	4387	4435	4484	4532	4580	4628	4677	
1	4725	4773	4821	4869	4918	4966	5014	5062	5110	5158	
2	5207	5255	5303	5351	5399	5447	5495	5543	5592	5640	
3	5688	5736	5784	5832	5880	5928	5976	6024	6072	6120	
4	6168	6216	6265	6313	6361	6409	6457	6505	6553	6601	
5	6649	6697	6745	6793	6840	6888	6936	6984	7032	7080	
6	7128	7176	7224	7272	7320	7368	7416	7464	7512	7560	
7	7607	7655	7703	7751	7799	7847	7894	7942	7990	8038	
8	8086	8134	8181	8229	8277	8325	8373	8421	8468	8516	
9	8564	8612	8659	8707	8755	8803	8850	8898	8946	8994	
910	9041	9089	9137	9185	9232	9280	9328	9375	9423	9471	
1	9518	9566	9614	9661	9709	9757	9804	9852	9900	9947	
2	9995										
		0042	0090	0138	0185	0234	0280	0328	0376	0423	
3	0471	0518	0566	0613	0661	0709	0756	0804	0851	0899	
4	0946	0994	1041	1089	1136	1184	1231	1279	1326	1374	
5	1421	1469	1516	1563	1611	1658	1706	1753	1801	1848	
6	1895	1942	1990	2038	2085	2132	2180	2227	2275	2322	
7	2369	2417	2464	2511	2559	2606	2653	2701	2748	2795	
8	2843	2890	2937	2985	3032	3079	3126	3174	3221	3268	
9	3316	3363	3410	3457	3504	3552	3599	3646	3693	3741	
920	3788	3835	3882	3929	3977	4024	4071	4118	4165	4212	
1	4260	4307	4354	4401	4448	4495	4542	4590	4637	4684	
2	4731	4778	4825	4872	4919	4966	5013	5061	5108	5155	
3	5202	5249	5296	5343	5390	5437	5484	5531	5578	5625	
4	5672	5719	5766	5813	5860	5907	5954	6001	6048	6095	
5	6142	6189	6236	6283	6329	6376	6423	6470	6517	6564	
6	6611	6658	6705	6752	6799	6845	6892	6939	6986	7033	
7	7080	7127	7173	7220	7267	7314	7361	7408	7454	7501	
8	7548	7595	7642	7688	7735	7782	7829	7875	7922	7969	
9	8016	8062	8109	8156	8203	8249	8296	8343	8390	8436	
930	8483	8530	8576	8623	8670	8716	8763	8810	8856	8903	
1	8950	8996	9043	9090	9136	9183	9229	9276	9323	9369	
2	9416	9463	9509	9556	9602	9649	9695	9742	9789	9835	
3	9882	9928	9975								
				0021	0068	0114	0161	0207	0254	0300	
4	0347	0393	0440	0486	0532	0579	0625	0672	0719	0765	
5	0812	0858	0904	0951	0997	1044	1090	1137	1183	1229	
6	1276	1322	1369	1415	1461	1508	1554	1601	1647	1693	
7	1740	1786	1832	1879	1925	1971	2018	2064	2110	2157	
8	2203	2249	2295	2342	2388	2434	2481	2527	2573	2619	
9	2665	2712	2758	2804	2851	2897	2943	2989	3035	3082	
940	3128	3174	3220	3266	3313	3359	3405	3451	3497	3543	
1	3590	3636	3682	3728	3774	3820	3866	3912	3958	4003	
2	4049	4095	4141	4187	4233	4279	4324	4370	4416	4462	
3	4508	4553	4600	4645	4691	4736	4782	4828	4874	4920	
4	4966	5012	5058	5104	5150	5196	5242	5288	5334	5380	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

DIFF.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
47	4.7	9.4	14.1	18.8	23.5	28.2	32.9	37.6
46	4.6			18.4	23.0	27.6	32.2	36.8

[5.]

[No. 980 L. 985.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
5479	5524	5570	5616	5662	5707	5753	5799	5845	
5487	5483	6020	0075	6121	6167	6212	6258	6304	
5386	6442	6488	6533	6579	6625	6671	6717	6763	
6854	6900	6946	6992	7037	7083	7129	7175	7220	
7312	7358	7403	7449	7495	7541	7586	7632	7678	
7769	7815	7861	7906	7952	7998	8043	8089	8135	
8226	8272	8317	8363	8409	8454	8500	8546	8591	
8683	8728	8774	8819	8865	8911	8956	9002	9047	
9138	9184	9230	9275	9321	9366	9412	9457	9503	
9594	9639	9685	9730	9776	9821	9867	9912	9958	
0049	0094	0140	0185	0231	0276	0322	0367	0412	
0503	0549	0594	0640	0685	0730	0776	0821	0867	
0957	1003	1048	1093	1139	1184	1229	1275	1320	
1411	1456	1501	1547	1592	1637	1683	1728	1773	
1864	1909	1954	2000	2045	2090	2135	2181	2226	
2316	2362	2407	2452	2497	2543	2588	2633	2678	
2769	2814	2859	2904	2949	2994	3040	3085	3130	
3220	3265	3310	3356	3401	3446	3491	3536	3581	
3671	3716	3762	3807	3852	3897	3942	3987	4032	
4122	4167	4213	4257	4302	4347	4392	4437	4482	
4572	4617	4663	4707	4752	4797	4842	4887	4932	
5022	5067	5112	5157	5202	5247	5292	5337	5382	
5471	5516	5561	5606	5651	5696	5741	5786	5831	
5920	5965	6010	6055	6100	6144	6189	6234	6279	
6369	6413	6458	6503	6548	6593	6637	6682	6727	
6817	6861	6906	6951	6996	7040	7085	7130	7175	
7264	7309	7353	7398	7443	7488	7532	7577	7622	
7711	7756	7801	7845	7890	7934	7979	8024	8068	
8157	8202	8247	8291	8336	8381	8425	8470	8514	
8604	8648	8693	8737	8782	8826	8871	8916	8960	
9049	9094	9138	9183	9227	9272	9316	9361	9405	
9494	9539	9583	9628	9672	9717	9761	9806	9850	
9939	9983	0028	0072	0117	0161	0206	0250	0294	
0383	0428	0472	0516	0561	0605	0650	0694	0738	
0827	0871	0916	0960	1004	1049	1093	1137	1182	
1270	1315	1359	1403	1448	1492	1536	1580	1625	
1713	1758	1802	1846	1890	1935	1979	2023	2067	
2156	2200	2244	2288	2333	2377	2421	2465	2509	
2598	2642	2686	2730	2774	2819	2863	2907	2951	
3039	3083	3127	3172	3216	3260	3304	3348	3392	
3480	3524	3568	3613	3657	3701	3745	3789	3833	
3921	3965	4009	4053	4097	4141	4185	4229	4273	
4361	4405	4449	4493	4537	4581	4625	4669	4713	
4801	4845	4889	4933	4977	5021	5065	5109	5152	
5240	5284	5328	5372	5416	5460	5504	5547	5591	

45

44

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9.2	13.8	18.4	23.0	27.6	32.2	36.8	41.4
9.0	13.5	18.0	22.5	27.0	31.5	36.0	40.5
8.8	13.1	17.6	22.0	26.4	30.8	35.2	39.6
8.6	12.8	17.2	21.5	25.8	30.1	34.4	38.8

No. 900 L. 995.]

[No. 995]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
990	995635	5670	5723	5767	5811	5854	5898	5942	5985	6028
1	0074	6117	6161	6205	6249	6293	6337	6380	6424	6468
2	0512	6555	6599	6643	6687	6731	6774	6818	6862	6906
3	0649	6693	7037	7080	7124	7168	7212	7255	7299	7343
4	7386	7430	7474	7517	7561	7605	7648	7692	7736	7779
5	7823	7867	7910	7954	7998	8041	8085	8129	8172	8216
6	8259	8303	8347	8390	8434	8477	8521	8564	8608	8652
7	8695	8739	8782	8826	8869	8913	8956	9000	9043	9087
8	9131	9174	9218	9261	9305	9348	9392	9435	9479	9522
9	9565	9609	9652	9696	9739	9783	9826	9870	9913	9957

HYPERBOLIC LOGARITHMS.

No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.
1.01	.0090	1.45	.3716	1.89	.0966	2.33	.8458	2.77	1.41
1.02	.0198	1.46	.3784	1.90	.0949	2.34	.8482	2.78	1.42
1.03	.0296	1.47	.3854	1.91	.0931	2.35	.8504	2.79	1.43
1.04	.0392	1.48	.3920	1.92	.0913	2.36	.8527	2.80	1.44
1.05	.0488	1.49	.3988	1.93	.0895	2.37	.8549	2.81	1.45
1.06	.0583	1.50	.4055	1.94	.0877	2.38	.8571	2.82	1.46
1.07	.0677	1.51	.4121	1.95	.0859	2.39	.8593	2.83	1.47
1.08	.0770	1.52	.4187	1.96	.0841	2.40	.8615	2.84	1.48
1.09	.0862	1.53	.4253	1.97	.0823	2.41	.8637	2.85	1.49
1.10	.0953	1.54	.4318	1.98	.0805	2.42	.8659	2.86	1.50
1.11	.1044	1.55	.4383	1.99	.0787	2.43	.8681	2.87	1.51
1.12	.1133	1.56	.4447	2.00	.0769	2.44	.8703	2.88	1.52
1.13	.1222	1.57	.4511	2.01	.0751	2.45	.8725	2.89	1.53
1.14	.1310	1.58	.4575	2.02	.0733	2.46	.8747	2.90	1.54
1.15	.1398	1.59	.4639	2.03	.0715	2.47	.8769	2.91	1.55
1.16	.1484	1.60	.4703	2.04	.0697	2.48	.8791	2.92	1.56
1.17	.1570	1.61	.4767	2.05	.0679	2.49	.8813	2.93	1.57
1.18	.1655	1.62	.4831	2.06	.0661	2.50	.8835	2.94	1.58
1.19	.1740	1.63	.4895	2.07	.0643	2.51	.8857	2.95	1.59
1.20	.1823	1.64	.4947	2.08	.0625	2.52	.8879	2.96	1.60
1.21	.1906	1.65	.5009	2.09	.0607	2.53	.8901	2.97	1.61
1.22	.1988	1.66	.5071	2.10	.0589	2.54	.8923	2.98	1.62
1.23	.2070	1.67	.5133	2.11	.0571	2.55	.8945	2.99	1.63
1.24	.2151	1.68	.5195	2.12	.0553	2.56	.8967	3.00	1.64
1.25	.2231	1.69	.5257	2.13	.0535	2.57	.8989	3.01	1.65
1.26	.2311	1.70	.5319	2.14	.0517	2.58	.9011	3.02	1.66
1.27	.2390	1.71	.5381	2.15	.0499	2.59	.9033	3.03	1.67
1.28	.2469	1.72	.5443	2.16	.0481	2.60	.9055	3.04	1.68
1.29	.2548	1.73	.5505	2.17	.0463	2.61	.9077	3.05	1.69
1.30	.2624	1.74	.5567	2.18	.0445	2.62	.9099	3.06	1.70
1.31	.2700	1.75	.5629	2.19	.0427	2.63	.9121	3.07	1.71
1.32	.2776	1.76	.5691	2.20	.0409	2.64	.9143	3.08	1.72
1.33	.2852	1.77	.5753	2.21	.0391	2.65	.9165	3.09	1.73
1.34	.2927	1.78	.5815	2.22	.0373	2.66	.9187	3.10	1.74
1.35	.3001	1.79	.5877	2.23	.0355	2.67	.9209	3.11	1.75
1.36	.3075	1.80	.5939	2.24	.0337	2.68	.9231	3.12	1.76
1.37	.3149	1.81	.6001	2.25	.0319	2.69	.9253	3.13	1.77
1.38	.3221	1.82	.6063	2.26	.0301	2.70	.9275	3.14	1.78
1.39	.3293	1.83	.6125	2.27	.0283	2.71	.9297	3.15	1.79
1.40	.3365	1.84	.6187	2.28	.0265	2.72	.9319	3.16	1.80
1.41	.3437	1.85	.6249	2.29	.0247	2.73	.9341	3.17	1.81
1.42	.3509	1.86	.6311	2.30	.0229	2.74	.9363	3.18	1.82
1.43	.3577	1.87	.6373	2.31	.0211	2.75	.9385	3.19	1.83
1.44	.3649	1.88	.6435	2.32	.0193	2.76	.9407	3.20	1.84

ALPHAS.			
No.	Log.	No.	Log.
4.53	1.6107	5.19	1.6467
4.54	1.6129	5.20	1.6487
4.55	1.6151	5.21	1.6508
4.56	1.6173	5.22	1.6525
4.57	1.6195	5.23	1.6544
4.58	1.6217	5.24	1.6563
4.59	1.6239	5.25	1.6582
4.60	1.6261	5.26	1.6601
4.61	1.6282	5.27	1.6620
4.62	1.6304	5.28	1.6639
4.63	1.6326	5.29	1.6658
4.64	1.6347	5.30	1.6677
4.65	1.6369	5.31	1.6696
4.66	1.6390	5.32	1.6715
4.67	1.6412	5.33	1.6734
4.68	1.6433	5.34	1.6752
4.69	1.6454	5.35	1.6771
4.70	1.6476	5.36	1.6790
4.71	1.6497	5.37	1.6808
4.72	1.6518	5.38	1.6827
4.73	1.6539	5.39	1.6845
4.74	1.6560	5.40	1.6863
4.75	1.6581	5.41	1.6882
4.76	1.6602	5.42	1.6901
4.77	1.6623	5.43	1.6919
4.78	1.6644	5.44	1.6938
4.79	1.6665	5.45	1.6956
4.80	1.6686	5.46	1.6974
4.81	1.6707	5.47	1.6991
4.82	1.6728	5.48	1.7011
4.83	1.6748	5.49	1.7029
4.84	1.6769	5.50	1.7047
4.85	1.6790	5.51	1.7066
4.86	1.6810	5.52	1.7084
4.87	1.6831	5.53	1.7103
4.88	1.6851	5.54	1.7122
4.89	1.6872	5.55	1.7140
4.90	1.6892	5.56	1.7159
4.91	1.6913	5.57	1.7177
4.92	1.6933	5.58	1.7195
4.93	1.6953	5.59	1.7213
4.94	1.6974	5.60	1.7231
4.95	1.6994	5.61	1.7249
4.96	1.7014	5.62	1.7268
4.97	1.7034	5.63	1.7286
4.98	1.7054	5.64	1.7305
4.99	1.7074	5.65	1.7323
5.00	1.7094	5.66	1.7341
5.01	1.7114	5.67	1.7359
5.02	1.7134	5.68	1.7377
5.03	1.7154	5.69	1.7395
5.04	1.7174	5.70	1.7413
5.05	1.7194	5.71	1.7431
5.06	1.7214	5.72	1.7449
5.07	1.7234	5.73	1.7467
5.08	1.7254	5.74	1.7485
5.09	1.7274	5.75	1.7503
5.10	1.7294	5.76	1.7521
5.11	1.7314	5.77	1.7539
5.12	1.7334	5.78	1.7557
5.13	1.7354	5.79	1.7575
5.14	1.7374	5.80	1.7593
5.15	1.7394	5.81	1.7611
5.16	1.7414	5.82	1.7629
5.17	1.7434	5.83	1.7647
5.18	1.7454	5.84	1.7665
5.19	1.7474		
5.20	1.7494		
5.21	1.7514		
5.22	1.7534		
5.23	1.7554		
5.24	1.7574		
5.25	1.7594		
5.26	1.7614		
5.27	1.7634		
5.28	1.7654		
5.29	1.7674		
5.30	1.7694		
5.31	1.7714		
5.32	1.7734		
5.33	1.7754		
5.34	1.7774		
5.35	1.7794		
5.36	1.7814		
5.37	1.7834		
5.38	1.7854		
5.39	1.7874		
5.40	1.7894		
5.41	1.7914		
5.42	1.7934		
5.43	1.7954		
5.44	1.7974		
5.45	1.7994		
5.46	1.8014		
5.47	1.8034		
5.48	1.8054		
5.49	1.8074		
5.50	1.8094		
5.51	1.8114		
5.52	1.8134		
5.53	1.8154		
5.54	1.8174		
5.55	1.8194		
5.56	1.8214		
5.57	1.8234		
5.58	1.8254		
5.59	1.8274		
5.60	1.8294		
5.61	1.8314		
5.62	1.8334		
5.63	1.8354		
5.64	1.8374		
5.65	1.8394		
5.66	1.8414		
5.67	1.8434		
5.68	1.8454		
5.69	1.8474		
5.70	1.8494		
5.71	1.8514		
5.72	1.8534		
5.73	1.8554		
5.74	1.8574		
5.75	1.8594		
5.76	1.8614		
5.77	1.8634		
5.78	1.8654		
5.79	1.8674		
5.80	1.8694		
5.81	1.8714		
5.82	1.8734		
5.83	1.8754		
5.84	1.8774		
5.85	1.8794		
5.86	1.8814		
5.87	1.8834		
5.88	1.8854		
5.89	1.8874		
5.90	1.8894		
5.91	1.8914		
5.92	1.8934		
5.93	1.8954		
5.94	1.8974		
5.95	1.8994		
5.96	1.9014		
5.97	1.9034		
5.98	1.9054		
5.99	1.9074		
6.00	1.9094		

No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.
6.51	1.8733	7.15	1.9671	7.79	2.0628	8.68	2.1587	9.91	2.2505
6.52	1.8749	7.16	1.9685	7.80	2.0641	8.69	2.1610	9.92	2.2520
6.53	1.8764	7.17	1.9699	7.81	2.0654	8.70	2.1633	9.93	2.2535
6.54	1.8779	7.18	1.9713	7.82	2.0667	8.71	2.1656	9.94	2.2550
6.55	1.8795	7.19	1.9727	7.83	2.0680	8.72	2.1679	9.95	2.2565
6.56	1.8810	7.20	1.9741	7.84	2.0692	8.73	2.1702	9.96	2.2580
6.57	1.8825	7.21	1.9754	7.85	2.0705	8.74	2.1725	9.97	2.2595
6.58	1.8840	7.22	1.9769	7.86	2.0718	8.75	2.1748	9.98	2.2610
6.59	1.8855	7.23	1.9782	7.87	2.0731	8.76	2.1771	9.99	2.2625
6.60	1.8871	7.24	1.9796	7.88	2.0744	8.77	2.1794	10.00	2.2640
6.61	1.8886	7.25	1.9810	7.89	2.0757	8.78	2.1817		
6.62	1.8901	7.26	1.9824	7.90	2.0769	8.79	2.1838		
6.63	1.8916	7.27	1.9838	7.91	2.0781	8.80	2.1861		
6.64	1.8931	7.28	1.9851	7.92	2.0794	8.81	2.1883		
6.65	1.8946	7.29	1.9865	7.93	2.0707	8.82	2.1906		
6.66	1.8961	7.30	1.9879	7.94	2.0719	8.83	2.1928		
6.67	1.8976	7.31	1.9892	7.95	2.0732	8.84	2.1950		
6.68	1.8991	7.32	1.9906	7.96	2.0744	8.85	2.1972		
6.69	1.9006	7.33	1.9920	7.97	2.0757	8.86	2.1994		
6.70	1.9021	7.34	1.9933	7.98	2.0769	8.87	2.2017		
6.71	1.9036	7.35	1.9947	7.99	2.0782	8.88	2.2039		
6.72	1.9051	7.36	1.9961	8.00	2.0794	8.89	2.2061		
6.73	1.9066	7.37	1.9974	8.01	2.0807	8.90	2.2083		
6.74	1.9081	7.38	1.9988	8.02	2.0819	8.91	2.2105		
6.75	1.9095	7.39	2.0001	8.03	2.0832	8.92	2.2127		
6.76	1.9110	7.40	2.0015	8.04	2.0844	8.93	2.2148		
6.77	1.9125	7.41	2.0028	8.05	2.0857	8.94	2.2170		
6.78	1.9140	7.42	2.0041	8.06	2.0869	8.95	2.2192		
6.79	1.9155	7.43	2.0055	8.07	2.0882	8.96	2.2214		
6.80	1.9169	7.44	2.0069	8.08	2.0894	8.97	2.2235		
6.81	1.9184	7.45	2.0082	8.09	2.0906	8.98	2.2257		
6.82	1.9199	7.46	2.0096	8.10	2.0919	8.99	2.2279		
6.83	1.9213	7.47	2.0108	8.11	2.0931	9.00	2.2300		
6.84	1.9228	7.48	2.0122	8.12	2.0943		2.2322		
6.85	1.9242	7.49	2.0136	8.13	2.0956		2.2343		
6.86	1.9257	7.50	2.0149	8.14	2.0968		2.2364		
6.87	1.9272	7.51	2.0162	8.15	2.0980		2.2386		
6.88	1.9286	7.52	2.0176	8.16	2.0992		2.2407		
6.89	1.9301	7.53	2.0189	8.17	2.1005		2.2428		
6.90	1.9315	7.54	2.0202	8.18	2.1017		2.2450		
6.91	1.9330	7.55	2.0215	8.19	2.1029		2.2471		
6.92	1.9344	7.56	2.0229	8.20	2.1041		2.2492		
6.93	1.9359	7.57	2.0242	8.21	2.1053		2.2513		
6.94	1.9373	7.58	2.0255	8.22	2.1065		2.2534		
6.95	1.9387	7.59	2.0268	8.23	2.1077		2.2555		
6.96	1.9402	7.60	2.0281	8.24	2.1089		2.2576		
6.97	1.9416	7.61	2.0295	8.25	2.1101		2.2597		
6.98	1.9430	7.62	2.0308	8.26	2.1113		2.2618		
6.99	1.9445	7.63	2.0321	8.27	2.1125		2.2638		
7.00	1.9459	7.64	2.0334	8.28	2.1137		2.2659		
7.01	1.9473	7.65	2.0347	8.29	2.1149		2.2680		
7.02	1.9488	7.66	2.0360	8.30	2.1161		2.2701		
7.03	1.9502	7.67	2.0373	8.31	2.1173		2.2721		
7.04	1.9516	7.68	2.0386	8.32	2.1185		2.2742		
7.05	1.9530	7.69	2.0399	8.33	2.1197		2.2762		
7.06	1.9544	7.70	2.0412	8.34	2.1209		2.2783		
7.07	1.9559	7.71	2.0425	8.35	2.1221		2.2803		
7.08	1.9573	7.72	2.0438	8.36	2.1233		2.2824		
7.09	1.9587	7.73	2.0451	8.37	2.1245		2.2844		
7.10	1.9601	7.74	2.0464	8.38	2.1257		2.2865		
7.11	1.9615	7.75	2.0477	8.39	2.1269		2.2885		
7.12	1.9629	7.76	2.0490	8.40	2.1281		2.2905		
7.13	1.9643	7.77	2.0503	8.41	2.1293		2.2925		
7.14	1.9657	7.78	2.0516	8.42	2.1305		2.2946		

ONOMETRICAL FUNCTIONS.

Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Ver. Sin.	Cosine.		
0.00000	Infinite	1.0000	.00000	1.0000	90	0
0.00436	229.18	1.0000	.00001	.99999	45	
0.00873	114.59	1.0000	.00004	.99996	30	
0.01309	76.390	1.0001	.00009	.99991	15	
0.01745	57.290	1.0001	.00015	.99985	80	0
0.02182	45.829	1.0002	.00024	.99976	45	
0.02618	38.188	1.0003	.00034	.99966	30	
0.03055	32.730	1.0005	.00047	.99953	15	
0.03492	28.636	1.0006	.00061	.99939	88	0
0.03929	25.452	1.0008	.00077	.99923	45	
0.04366	22.904	1.0009	.00095	.99905	30	
0.04803	20.819	1.0011	.00115	.99885	15	
0.05241	19.081	1.0014	.00137	.99863	87	0
0.05678	17.611	1.0016	.00161	.99839	45	
0.06116	16.350	1.0019	.00187	.99813	30	
0.06554	15.257	1.0021	.00214	.99786	15	
0.06993	14.301	1.0024	.00244	.99758	86	0
0.07431	13.457	1.0028	.00275	.99725	45	
0.07870	12.706	1.0031	.00308	.99689	30	
0.08309	12.085	1.0034	.00343	.99653	15	
0.08749	11.430	1.0038	.00381	.99619	85	0
0.09189	10.833	1.0042	.00420	.99583	45	
0.09629	10.285	1.0046	.00460	.99540	30	
0.10069	9.810	1.0051	.00503	.99497	15	
0.10510	9.314	1.0055	.00548	.99452	84	0
0.10952	8.809	1.0060	.00594	.99409	45	
0.11393	8.779	1.0065	.00643	.99357	30	
0.11836	8.440	1.0070	.00693	.99307	15	
0.12278	8.143	1.0075	.00745	.99255	88	0
0.12722	7.896	1.0081	.00800	.99200	45	
0.13165	7.598	1.0086	.00858	.99144	30	
0.13609	7.347	1.0092	.00913	.99086	15	
0.14054	7.115	1.0098	.00973	.99027	82	0
0.14499	6.899	1.0105	.01035	.98965	45	
0.14945	6.691	1.0111	.01098	.98902	30	
0.15391	6.491	1.0118	.01164	.98836	15	
0.15838	6.318	1.0125	.01231	.98769	81	0
0.16285	6.140	1.0132	.01300	.98700	45	
0.16734	5.978	1.0139	.01371	.98629	30	
0.17183	5.819	1.0147	.01444	.98556	15	
0.17633	5.671	1.0154	.01519	.98481	80	0
0.18083	5.530	1.0162	.01596	.98404	45	
0.18534	5.395	1.0170	.01675	.98325	30	
0.18986	5.267	1.0179	.01755	.98245	15	
0.19438	5.146	1.0187	.01837	.98163	79	0
0.19891	5.033	1.0196	.01921	.98079	45	
0.20345	4.915	1.0205	.02008	.97992	30	
0.20800	4.807	1.0214	.02095	.97905	15	
0.21250	4.704	1.0223	.02183	.97815	78	0
0.21702	4.605	1.0233	.02277	.97723	45	
0.22159	4.510	1.0243	.02370	.97630	30	
0.22628	4.419	1.0253	.02466	.97534	15	
0.23097	4.331	1.0263	.02563	.97437	77	0
0.23567	4.246	1.0273	.02662	.97338	45	
0.24038	4.163	1.0284	.02763	.97237	30	
0.24509	4.087	1.0295	.02866	.97134	15	
0.24972	4.018	1.0306	.02970	.97030	76	0
0.25439	3.937	1.0317	.03077	.96924	45	
0.25902	3.867	1.0329	.03185	.96815	30	
0.26368	3.798	1.0341	.03295	.96705	15	
0.26835	3.730	1.0353	.03407	.96593	75	0
Secant.	Cotan.	Tang.	Cosec.	Co-Ver.	Sine.	

90° read from bottom of table upwards.

•	M.	Sine.	Co-Verz.	Secant.	Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Ver. Sin.	Coma.
16	0	25882	74118	3.6097	36705	3.7320	1.0353	.03107	96893
15	15	26303	73697	3.6018	37302	3.6080	1.0305	.03521	96479
40	30	26724	73276	3.5940	37899	3.6039	1.0377	.03935	96064
45	45	27144	72856	3.5860	38496	3.5457	1.0300	.04349	95649
10	0	27564	72436	3.5780	39093	3.4874	1.0403	.03874	95234
15	15	27983	72017	3.5738	39690	3.4908	1.0416	.03995	94819
30	30	28402	71598	3.5659	40287	3.3759	1.0429	.04118	94404
45	45	28820	71180	3.5580	40884	3.3226	1.0442	.04243	93989
17	0	29239	70763	3.5500	41481	3.2709	1.0457	.04370	93574
15	15	29654	70346	3.5422	42078	3.2205	1.0471	.04498	93159
30	30	30070	69929	3.5345	42675	3.1716	1.0485	.04628	92744
45	45	30486	69514	3.5269	43272	3.1240	1.0500	.04759	92329
18	0	30902	69098	3.5193	43869	3.0777	1.0515	.04894	91914
15	15	31316	68684	3.5119	44466	3.0326	1.0530	.05029	91499
30	30	31730	68270	3.5045	45063	2.9887	1.0545	.05168	91084
45	45	32144	67856	3.5110	45660	2.9459	1.0560	.05307	90669
19	0	32557	67443	3.0715	46257	2.9042	1.0575	.05448	90254
15	15	32969	67031	3.0331	46854	2.8636	1.0592	.05591	89839
30	30	33381	66619	2.9957	47451	2.8244	1.0608	.05736	89424
45	45	33792	66208	2.9583	48048	2.7862	1.0625	.05883	89009
20	0	34202	65798	2.9218	48645	2.7475	1.0642	.06031	88594
15	15	34612	65388	2.8862	49242	2.7100	1.0659	.06181	88179
30	30	35021	64979	2.8514	49839	2.6746	1.0676	.06332	87764
45	45	35429	64571	2.8175	50436	2.6395	1.0694	.06485	87349
21	0	35837	64163	2.7844	51033	2.6051	1.0711	.06640	86934
15	15	36244	63756	2.7521	51630	2.5715	1.0729	.06796	86519
30	30	36650	63350	2.7206	52227	2.5385	1.0748	.06955	86104
45	45	37056	62944	2.6899	52824	2.5066	1.0767	.07115	85689
22	0	37461	62539	2.6605	53421	2.4751	1.0785	.07276	85274
15	15	37865	62135	2.6310	54018	2.4443	1.0804	.07446	84859
30	30	38268	61732	2.6021	54615	2.4142	1.0824	.07618	84444
45	45	38671	61329	2.5738	55212	2.3847	1.0844	.07792	84029
23	0	39073	60927	2.5460	55809	2.3557	1.0864	.07968	83614
15	15	39474	60526	2.5188	56406	2.3272	1.0884	.08145	83199
30	30	39875	60125	2.4921	57003	2.2998	1.0904	.08324	82784
45	45	40275	59725	2.4659	57600	2.2727	1.0925	.08505	82369
24	0	40674	59326	2.4402	58197	2.2460	1.0946	.08688	81954
15	15	41072	58928	2.4149	58794	2.2200	1.0968	.08874	81539
30	30	41469	58531	2.4114	59391	2.1943	1.0990	.09061	81124
45	45	41866	58134	2.3866	59988	2.1692	1.1011	.09250	80709
25	0	42262	57738	2.3622	60585	2.1445	1.1034	.09441	80294
15	15	42657	57343	2.3443	61182	2.1200	1.1056	.09634	79879
30	30	43051	56949	2.3278	61779	2.0965	1.1079	.09829	79464
45	45	43445	56556	2.3018	62376	2.0732	1.1102	.09995	79049
26	0	43839	56163	2.2812	62973	2.0503	1.1125	.10121	78634
15	15	44232	55771	2.2610	63570	2.0278	1.1150	.10250	78219
30	30	44626	55380	2.2412	64167	2.0057	1.1174	.10380	77804
45	45	45019	54990	2.2217	64764	1.9840	1.1198	.10512	77389
27	0	45412	54601	2.2025	65361	1.9626	1.1223	.10645	76974
15	15	45805	54213	2.1840	65958	1.9414	1.1248	.10780	76559
30	30	46197	53825	2.1657	66555	1.9204	1.1271	.10916	76144
45	45	46589	53439	2.1477	67152	1.9007	1.1300	.11054	75729
28	0	46981	53053	2.1300	67749	1.8807	1.1326	.11195	75314
15	15	47372	52668	2.1127	68346	1.8611	1.1352	.11337	74899
30	30	47762	52284	2.0957	68943	1.8418	1.1379	.11481	74484
45	45	48151	51901	2.0790	69540	1.8228	1.1406	.11627	74069
29	0	48541	51519	2.0625	70137	1.8040	1.1433	.11775	73654
15	15	48932	51138	2.0462	70734	1.7854	1.1461	.11925	73239
30	30	49322	50758	2.0302	71331	1.7675	1.1490	.12076	72824
45	45	49712	50378	2.0142	71928	1.7496	1.1518	.12229	72409
30	0	50100	50000	2.0000	72525	1.7320	1.1547	.12383	71994

Comma. Ver. Sin. Secant. Cotan. Tang. Comma. Co-Verz. Sine

75 read from bottom of table upward

Ver.	Cosec.	Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Ver. Sin.	Cosine.		
0000	2.0000	.57735	1.7320	1.1547	.13307	.86603	60	0
0003	1.9850	.58318	1.7147	1.1576	.13616	.86384		45
0016	1.9703	.58904	1.6977	1.1606	.13937	.86162		30
0031	1.9558	.59491	1.6808	1.1636	.14260	.85941		15
0046	1.9416	.60080	1.6643	1.1666	.14585	.85717	59	0
0061	1.9276	.60681	1.6479	1.1697	.14912	.85491		45
0076	1.9139	.61280	1.6319	1.1728	.15240	.85264		30
0091	1.9004	.61882	1.6160	1.1760	.15569	.85035		15
0106	1.8871	.62487	1.6003	1.1792	.15899	.84805	58	0
0121	1.8740	.63095	1.5849	1.1824	.16229	.84573		45
0136	1.8612	.63707	1.5697	1.1857	.16561	.84339		30
0151	1.8485	.64322	1.5547	1.1890	.16896	.84104		15
0166	1.8361	.64941	1.5399	1.1924	.17233	.83867	57	0
0181	1.8238	.65563	1.5253	1.1958	.17571	.83629		45
0196	1.8118	.66188	1.5109	1.1992	.17911	.83389		30
0211	1.7999	.66818	1.4966	1.2027	.18253	.83147		15
0226	1.7883	.67451	1.4826	1.2062	.18596	.82904	56	0
0241	1.7768	.68087	1.4687	1.2098	.18941	.82659		45
0256	1.7655	.68728	1.4550	1.2134	.19287	.82413		30
0271	1.7544	.69372	1.4415	1.2171	.19635	.82165		15
0286	1.7434	.70021	1.4281	1.2208	.19985	.81915	55	0
0301	1.7327	.70673	1.4150	1.2245	.20336	.81664		45
0316	1.7220	.71329	1.4019	1.2283	.20688	.81412		30
0331	1.7116	.71990	1.3891	1.2322	.21043	.81157		15
0346	1.7013	.72654	1.3764	1.2361	.21399	.80902	54	0
0361	1.6912	.73323	1.3638	1.2400	.21756	.80644		45
0376	1.6812	.73996	1.3514	1.2440	.22114	.80386		30
0391	1.6713	.74673	1.3392	1.2480	.22473	.80125		15
0406	1.6616	.75355	1.3270	1.2521	.22833	.79864	53	0
0421	1.6521	.76042	1.3151	1.2563	.23194	.79600		45
0436	1.6427	.76733	1.3032	1.2605	.23556	.79335		30
0451	1.6334	.77428	1.2915	1.2647	.23919	.79069		15
0466	1.6243	.78129	1.2799	1.2690	.24283	.78801	52	0
0481	1.6153	.78834	1.2685	1.2734	.24648	.78532		45
0496	1.6064	.79543	1.2572	1.2778	.25013	.78261		30
0511	1.5976	.80258	1.2460	1.2822	.25379	.77989		15
0526	1.5890	.80978	1.2349	1.2866	.25746	.77715	51	0
0541	1.5806	.81703	1.2239	1.2913	.26114	.77439		45
0556	1.5721	.82434	1.2131	1.2960	.26483	.77162		30
0571	1.5639	.83169	1.2024	1.3007	.26853	.76884		15
0586	1.5557	.83910	1.1918	1.3054	.27224	.76604	50	0
0601	1.5477	.84656	1.1812	1.3102	.27595	.76323		45
0616	1.5398	.85409	1.1708	1.3151	.27967	.76041		30
0631	1.5320	.86165	1.1606	1.3200	.28340	.75756		15
0646	1.5242	.86929	1.1504	1.3250	.28714	.75471	49	0
0661	1.5166	.87698	1.1403	1.3301	.29089	.75184		45
0676	1.5092	.88472	1.1303	1.3352	.29465	.74896		30
0691	1.5018	.89253	1.1204	1.3404	.29842	.74606		15
0706	1.4945	.90040	1.1106	1.3456	.30220	.74314	48	0
0721	1.4873	.90834	1.1009	1.3509	.30599	.74022		45
0736	1.4802	.91632	1.0913	1.3563	.30979	.73728		30
0751	1.4732	.92439	1.0818	1.3618	.31360	.73432		15
0766	1.4663	.93251	1.0724	1.3673	.31742	.73135	47	0
0781	1.4595	.94071	1.0630	1.3729	.32125	.72837		45
0796	1.4527	.94896	1.0538	1.3786	.32509	.72537		30
0811	1.4461	.95729	1.0446	1.3843	.32894	.72236		15
0826	1.4396	.96569	1.0355	1.3902	.33280	.71934	46	0
0841	1.4331	.97416	1.0265	1.3961	.33667	.71630		45
0856	1.4267	.98270	1.0176	1.4020	.34055	.71325		30
0871	1.4204	.99131	1.0088	1.4081	.34444	.71019		15
0886	1.4142	1.0000	1.0000	1.4142	.34833	.70711	45	0
Secant.	Cotan.	Tang.	Cosec.	Co-Ver.	Sine.			M.

0° read from bottom of table upwards.

LOGARITHMIC SINES, ETC.

Deg.	Sine.	Cosec.	Versin.	Tangent.	Cotan.	Covers.	Secant.
0	In. Neg.	Infinite.	In. Neg.	In. Neg.	Infinite.	10.00000	10.00000
1	8.24186	11.75814	6.18271	8.24192	11.75808	9.99235	10.00007
2	8.54282	11.45718	6.78474	8.54298	11.45692	9.98457	10.00026
3	8.71890	11.28110	7.13687	8.71940	11.28060	9.97665	10.00050
4	8.84358	11.15642	7.38665	8.84464	11.15586	9.96860	10.00106
5	8.94090	11.05910	7.58089	8.94195	11.05805	9.96046	10.00166
6	9.01923	10.98077	7.73863	9.02162	10.97888	9.95234	10.00229
7	9.08589	10.91411	7.87238	9.08914	10.91086	9.94456	10.00295
8	9.14356	10.85644	7.98820	9.14780	10.85320	9.93692	10.00365
9	9.19433	10.80567	8.09032	9.19971	10.80029	9.92951	10.00438
10	9.23907	10.76003	8.18162	9.24632	10.75368	9.92247	10.00505
11	9.28009	10.71910	8.25418	9.28865	10.71135	9.91567	10.00576
12	9.31788	10.68212	8.31950	9.32747	10.67233	9.90917	10.00650
13	9.35269	10.64791	8.40675	9.36686	10.63064	9.90294	10.00728
14	9.38268	10.61632	8.47282	9.39677	10.60323	9.89711	10.01310
15	9.41800	10.58700	8.53248	9.42805	10.57105	9.89092	10.01506
16	9.44934	10.55966	8.58814	9.45730	10.54240	9.88486	10.01716
17	9.47694	10.53406	8.64043	9.48534	10.51466	9.87881	10.01940
18	9.49908	10.51022	8.68960	9.51178	10.48822	9.87294	10.02170
19	9.51764	10.48736	8.73625	9.53697	10.46303	9.86724	10.02413
20	9.53405	10.46595	8.78037	9.56107	10.43803	9.86181	10.02701
21	9.55433	10.44507	8.82290	9.58419	10.41382	9.85670	10.02985
22	9.57358	10.42512	8.86223	9.60641	10.39039	9.85185	10.03282
23	9.59188	10.40612	8.90034	9.62785	10.36715	9.84724	10.03597
24	9.60931	10.38800	8.93679	9.64858	10.34342	9.84285	10.03927
25	9.62595	10.37105	8.97170	9.66867	10.31933	9.83867	10.04272
26	9.64184	10.35516	9.00521	9.68818	10.29482	9.83465	10.04634
27	9.65705	10.34025	9.03740	9.70712	10.26983	9.83070	10.05012
28	9.67161	10.32630	9.06838	9.72567	10.24439	9.82691	10.05407
29	9.68557	10.31443	9.09820	9.74375	10.21855	9.82327	10.05818
30	9.69897	10.30403	9.12702	9.76144	10.19235	9.81977	10.06247
31	9.71184	10.29416	9.15483	9.77877	10.16582	9.81651	10.06693
32	9.72421	10.28579	9.18171	9.79570	10.13920	9.81347	10.07158
33	9.73611	10.26849	9.20771	9.81225	10.11248	9.81063	10.07644
34	9.74756	10.25244	9.23290	9.82899	10.17101	9.80795	10.08143
35	9.75859	10.24141	9.25731	9.84493	10.15477	9.80544	10.08664
36	9.76922	10.23078	9.28099	9.86016	10.13874	9.80312	10.09204
37	9.77946	10.22051	9.30398	9.87471	10.12289	9.80098	10.09755
38	9.78934	10.21066	9.32631	9.88861	10.10719	9.79897	10.10327
39	9.79887	10.20113	9.34802	9.90197	10.09163	9.79700	10.10910
40	9.80807	10.19193	9.36913	9.92381	10.07619	9.79503	10.11515
41	9.81694	10.18296	9.38968	9.94416	10.06084	9.79318	10.12142
42	9.82551	10.17449	9.40969	9.96344	10.04556	9.79146	10.12782
43	9.83378	10.16642	9.42918	9.98160	10.03034	9.78984	10.13437
44	9.84177	10.15883	9.44818	9.99864	10.01516	9.78832	10.14107
45	9.84943	10.15072	9.46671	10.00000	10.00000	9.78687	10.15052
	Costine.	Secant.	Covers.	Cotan.	Tangent.	Versin.	Cosec.

From 45° to 90° read from bottom of table upw

MATERIALS.

THE CHEMICAL ELEMENTS.

The Common Elements (42).

Name.	Atomic Weight.	Chemical Symbol.	Name.	Atomic Weight.	Chemical Symbol.	Name.	Atomic Weight.	
Aluminum	27.1	Al	Fluorine	19.	F	Palladium	106.	
Antimony	120.4	Sb	Gold	197.2	Au	Phosphorus	31.	
Bismuth	208.1	Bi	Hydrogen	1.01	H	Pt	Platinum	194.9
Boron	10.8	B	Iodine	126.9	I	K	Potassium	39.1
Calcium	40.1	Ca	Iridium	194.1	Ir	Si	Silicon	28.1
Carbon	12.	C	Iron	55.8	Fe	Ag	Silver	107.9
Cerium	140.1	Ce	Lead	206.9	Pb	Sn	Stannum	118.7
Chlorine	35.5	Cl	Lithium	7.0	Li	Str	Strontium	87.6
Cobalt	58.9	Co	Magnesium	24.3	Mg	S	Sulphur	32.1
Copper	63.5	Cu	Manganese	55.	Mn	Sn	Tin	119.
Crystalline	32.1	Ni	Mercury	200.	Hg	Ti	Titanium	48.1
Crystalline	52.1	Ni	Nickel	58.7	Ni	W	Tungsten	184.8
Crystalline	58.7	N	Nitrogen	14.	N	Va	Vanadium	51.4
Crystalline	16.	O	Oxygen	16.	O	Zn	Zinc	65.4

Atomic weights of many of the elements vary in the decimal place as given by different authorities. The above are the most recent values reduced to $O = 16$ and $H = 1.008$. When H is taken as 1, $O = 15.879$, and the figures are diminished proportionately. (See *Jour. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1906.)

The Bare Elements (27).

Mo, Be.	Glucinum, G.	Rubidium, Rb.	Thallium, Tl.
Ca.	Indium, In.	Ruthenium, Ru.	Thorium, Th.
Ce.	Lanthanum, La.	Samarium, Sm.	Uranium, U.
Co, D.	Molybdenum, Mo.	Scandium, Sc.	Ytterbium, Yr.
E.	Niobium, Nb.	Selenium, Se.	Yttrium, Y.
Fe.	Osmium, Os.	Tantalum, Ta.	Zirconium, Zr.
Ga.	Rhodium, R.	Tellurium, Te.	

SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

Specific gravity of a substance is its weight as compared with the weight of an equal bulk of pure water.

Find the specific gravity of a substance.

weight of body in air; w = weight of body submerged in water.

$$\text{Specific gravity} = \frac{W}{W - w}.$$

substance be lighter than the water, sink it by means of a heavier
 one, and deduct the weight of the heavier substance.

Gravity determinations are usually referred to the standard of the water at 62° F., 62.355 lbs. per cubic foot. Some experimenters use 60° F. as the standard, and others 32° and 39.1° F. There is no agreement.

to gr referred to water at 39.1° F., to reduce it to the standard of
 Apply it by 1.00112.

Given weight per cubic foot, to find sp. gr. multiply by .036127.

Weight and Specific Gravity of Metals.

	Specific Gravity. Range accord- ing to several Authorities.	Specific Grav- ity. Approx. Mean Value, used in Calculation of Weight.	Weight per Cubic Foot, lbs.
Aluminum.....	2.50 to 2.71	2.67	166.5
Antimony.....	6.60 to 6.86	6.76	421.6
Bismuth.....	9.74 to 9.90	9.82	612.4
Brass: Copper + Zinc			
80 20		8.60	536.3
70 30	7.8 to 8.6	8.40	523.9
60 40		8.86	601.3
50 50		8.20	511.4
Bronze { Copper, 95 to 100	8.53 to 8.93	8.85	552.
{ Tin, 5 to 20			539.
Calcium.....	8.6 to 8.7	8.65	
Chromium.....	1.58		
Cobalt.....	5.0		
Gold, pure.....	8.5 to 8.6		
Copper.....	19.245 to 19.361	19.25	1200.9
Iridium.....	8.89 to 8.92	8.85	552.
Iron, Cast.....	22.34 to 23.		1396.
" Wrought.....	6.85 to 7.48	7.218	450.
Lead.....	7.4 to 7.9	7.70	480.
Manganese.....	11.07 to 11.44	11.38	709.7
Magnesium.....	7. to 8.	8.	499.
Mercury { 32°	1.69 to 1.75	1.75	109.
{ 60°	13.60 to 13.62	13.62	849.9
{ 212°	13.57 to 13.58	13.58	846.8
Nickel.....	13.37 to 13.38	13.38	834.4
Platinum.....	8.279 to 8.93	8.8	548.7
Potassium.....	20.33 to 22.07	21.5	1347.0
Silver.....	0.865		
Sodium.....	10.474 to 10.511	10.505	655.1
Steel.....	0.97		
Tin.....	7.63* to 7.932†	7.854	489.6
Titanium.....	7.291 to 7.409	7.360	458.3
Tungsten.....	5.3		
Zinc.....	17. to 17.6		
	6.86 to 7.30	7.00	436.5

* Hard and burned.

† Very pure and soft. The sp. gr. decreases as the carbon is increased.

In the first column of figures the lowest are usually those of cast metal which are more or less porous; the highest are of metals finely drawn into wire.

Specific Gravity of Liquids at 60° F.

Acid, Muriatic.....	1.200	Oil, Olive.....	.92
" Nitric.....	1.217	" Palm.....	.97
" Sulphuric.....	1.849	" Petroleum.....	.92
Alcohol, pure.....	.794	" Rape.....	.92
" 95 per cent.....	.816	" Turpentine.....	.87
" 50 ".....	.934	" Whale.....	.93
Ammonia, 27.9 per cent.....	.891	Tar.....	1.
Bromine.....	2.97	Vinegar.....	1.08
Carbon disulphide.....	1.26	Water.....	1.
Ether, Sulphuric.....	.72	" sea.....	1.026
Oil, Linseed.....	.94		

Compression of the following Fluids under a Pressure of 15 lbs. per Square Inch.

Water.....	.00004563	Ether.....	.000031
Alcohol.....	.0000210	Mercury.....	.000033

PROPERTIES OF THE USEFUL METALS.

Aluminum, Al.—Atomic weight 27.1. Specific gravity 2.6 to 2.7. Best of all the useful metals except magnesium. A soft, ductile, silvery metal, of a white color, approaching silver, but with a bluish cast. Not corrosive. Tenacity about one third that of wrought-iron. For use as a structural metal, but since 1890 its production and use have greatly increased on account of the discovery of cheap processes for reducing it from alumina. Melts at about 1160° F. For further description see Aluminum, Strength of Materials.

Antimony (Stibium), Sb.—At. wt. 120.4. Sp. gr. 6.7 to 6.8. A brittle metal of a bluish-white color and highly crystalline or laminated structure. Melts at 442° F. Heated in the open air it burns with a bluish-white flame. Its use is for the manufacture of certain alloys, as type metal (antimony 4, lead 4), britannia (antimony 1, tin 9), and various anti-friction alloys (see Alloys). Cubical expansion by heat from 32° to 212° F., 0.0070. Melts at 650.

Bismuth, Bi.—At. wt. 208.1. Bismuth is of a peculiar light reddish-brown, highly crystalline, and so brittle that it can readily be pulverized. It melts at 271° F. and boils at about 2000° F. Sp. gr. 9.823 at 54° F., and just above the melting-point. Specific heat about .0301 at ordinary temperatures. Coefficient of cubical expansion from 32° to 212° F., 0.0040. Conductivity for heat about 1/56 and for electricity only about 1/80 of that of copper. Its tensile strength is about 6400 lbs. per square inch. Bismuth expands on cooling, and Trilbe has shown that this expansion does not take place until after solidification. Bismuth is the most diamagnetic element known, a sphere of it being repelled by a magnet.

Cadmium, Cd.—At. wt. 112. Sp. gr. 8.6 to 8.7. A bluish-white metal, brittle, with a fibrous fracture. Melts below 500° F. and volatilizes at 765° F. It is used as an ingredient in some fusible alloys with lead, and in dental alloys. Cubical expansion from 32° to 212° F., 0.0094.

Copper, Cu.—At. wt. 63.2. Sp. gr. 8.81 to 8.95. Fuses at about 1930° F. It is distinguished from all other metals by its reddish color. Very ductile and malleable, and its tenacity is next to iron. Tensile strength 20,000 to 30,000 lbs. per square inch. Heat conductivity 73.6% of that of silver, and superior to that of other metals. Electric conductivity equal to that of gold. Expansion by heat from 32° to 212° F., 0.0051 of its volume. Specific heat .093. (See Copper under Strength of Materials; also Alloys.)

Gold, Aurum, Au.—At. wt. 197.2. Sp. gr., when pure and pressed in a die, 19.3. Melts at about 1915° F. The most malleable and ductile of all metals. One ounce Troy may be beaten so as to cover 100 sq. ft. of surface. Average thickness of gold-leaf is 1/282000 of an inch, or 100 sq. ft. per ounce. One grain may be drawn into a wire 500 ft. in length. The ductility is destroyed by the presence of 1/2000 part of lead, bismuth, or an alloy. It is hardened by the addition of silver or of copper. In U. S. gold coin there are 9 parts gold and 10 parts of alloy, which is chiefly copper with a little silver. By jewelers the fineness of gold is expressed in carats, pure gold being 24 carats, three fourths fine 18 carats, etc.

Iridium, Ir.—Iridium is one of the rarer metals. It has a white lustre, resembling that of steel; its hardness is about equal to that of the ruby; in fact it is quite brittle, but at a white heat it is somewhat malleable. It is one of the heaviest of metals, having a specific gravity of 22.34. It is extremely infusible and almost absolutely inoxidizable.

For the various methods of manufacturing it, etc., see paper by W. D. Howland in the "Iridium Industry," Trans. A. I. M. E. 1884.

Iron (Ferrum), Fe.—At. wt. 56. Sp. gr.: Cast, 6.85 to 7.48; Wrought, 7.25 to 7.85. Pure iron is extremely infusible, its melting point being above 2800° F. Its fusibility increases with the addition of carbon, cast iron fusing at 2500° F. Conductivity for heat 11.9, and for electricity 12 to 14.8, at 100. Expansion in bulk by heat: cast iron .0033, and wrought iron .0032 from 32° to 212° F. Specific heat: cast iron .1208, wrought iron .1138. Cast iron exposed to continued heat becomes permanently expanded 1/4 to 3 per cent of its length. Gate-bars should therefore be made about 4 per cent play. (For other properties see Iron and Steel Strength of Materials.)

Lead (Plumbum), Pb.—At. wt. 206.9. Sp. gr. 11.07 to 11.44 by different tests. Melts at about 625° F., softens and becomes pasty at about 600° F. If broken by a sudden blow when just below the melting point it is brittle and the fracture appears crystalline. Lead is very malleable

Weight and Specific Gravity of Stones, Brick, Cement, etc.

	Pounds per Cubic Foot.	Specific Gravity
Asphaltum.....	87	1.39
Brick, Soft.....	100	1.6
" Common.....	112	1.79
" Hard.....	125	2.0
" Pressed.....	135	2.16
" Fire.....	140 to 150	2.34 to 2.7
Brickwork in mortar.....	100	1.8
" cement.....	112	1.79
Cement, Rosendale, loose.....	60	.96
" Portland, ".....	78	1.25
Clay.....	120 to 150	1.92 to 2.4
Concrete.....	120 to 140	1.92 to 2.24
Earth, loose.....	72 to 80	1.15 to 1.28
" rammed.....	80 to 110	1.31 to 1.75
Emery.....	250	4.
Glass.....	156 to 178	2.5 to 2.88
" flint.....	180 to 198	2.88 to 3.17
Gneiss.....	160 to 170	2.56 to 2.72
Granite.....	160 to 170	2.56 to 2.72
Gravel.....	100 to 120	1.6 to 1.92
Gypsum.....	130 to 150	2.08 to 2.4
Hornblende.....	200 to 220	3.2 to 3.52
Lime, quick, in bulk.....	50 to 55	.8 to .88
Limestone.....	170 to 200	2.72 to 3.2
Magnesia, Carbonate.....	150	2.4
Marble.....	160 to 180	2.56 to 2.88
Masonry, dry rubble.....	140 to 160	2.24 to 2.56
" dressed.....	140 to 180	2.24 to 2.88
Mortar.....	90 to 100	1.44 to 1.6
Pitch.....	72	1.15
Plaster of Paris.....	74 to 80	1.18 to 1.28
Quartz.....	165	2.64
Sand.....	90 to 110	1.44 to 1.76
Sandstone.....	140 to 150	2.24 to 2.4
Slate.....	170 to 180	2.72 to 2.88
Stone, various.....	135 to 200	2.16 to 3.2
Tile.....	170 to 200	2.72 to 3.2
Tile.....	110 to 120	1.76 to 1.92
Soapstone.....	160 to 175	2.65 to 2.8

Specific Gravity and Weight of Gases at Atmospheric Pressure and 32° F.

(For other temperatures and pressures see pp. 459, 479.)

	Density, Air = 1.	Grammes per Litre.	Lbs. per Cu. Ft.	Sp. Gr.
Air.....	1.0000	1.2911	0.080728	1
Oxygen.....	1.1051	1.4290	0.08871	1.1051
Hydrogen.....	0.0696	0.08987	0.00561	0.0696
Nitrogen.....	0.9714	1.2561	0.07812	0.9714
Carbonic oxide, CO.....	0.9674	1.251	0.07810	0.9674
Carbonic acid, CO ₂	1.5290	1.97	0.1244	1.5290
Marsh gas, methane, CH ₄	0.5560	0.710	0.04489	0.5560
Ethylene.....	0.9817	1.273	0.07949	0.9817

Specific heat .006. Electric conductivity 99, heat conductivity 36, per inch, 100. Its principal uses are for coating iron surfaces, called "galvanizing," and for making brass and other alloys.

Table Showing the Order of

Malleability. Ductility. Tenacity. Infusibility.

Gold	Platinum	Iron	Platinum
Silver	Silver	Copper	Iron
Aluminum	Iron	Aluminum	Copper
Copper	Copper	Platinum	Gold
Tin	Gold	Silver	Silver
Lead	Aluminum	Zinc	Aluminum
Zinc	Zinc	Gold	Zinc
Platinum	Tin	Tin	Lead
Iron	Lead	Lead	Tin

FORMULAE AND TABLE FOR CALCULATING THE WEIGHT OF RODS, BARS, PLATES, TUBES, AND SPHERES OF DIFFERENT MATERIALS.

Notation: b = breadth, t = thickness, s = side of square, d = external diameter, d_i = internal diameter, all in inches.

Vertical areas: of square bars = s^2 ; of flat bars = bt ; of round rods = $\frac{\pi}{4}d^2$; of tubes = $\frac{\pi}{4}(d^2 - d_i^2) = .7854(d^2 - d_i^2) = .81416(d - d_i)^2$.

Volume of 1 foot in length: of square bars = $12s^2$; of flat bars = $12bt$; of round rods = $9.4248d^2$; of tubes = $9.4248(d^2 - d_i^2) = 87.6933(d - d_i)^2$, in cubic inches.

Weight per foot length = volume \times weight per cubic inch of the material.

Weight of a sphere = diam.³ \times .5236 \times weight per cubic inch.

Material.	Specific Gravity.	Weight per cubic foot, lbs.	Weight of Plate 1 inch thick per sq. ft., lbs.	Weight of Square Bars per foot length, lbs.	Weight of Flat Bars per foot length, lbs.	Weight per cubic inch, lbs.	Relative Weights Weigh from = 1.	Weight of Round Rod per foot length, lbs.	Weight of Spheres or Balls, lbs.
Cast Iron	7.218	450.	37.5	31.6 ³	31.6 ³	.2604	15-16	2.454 ³	.1363 ³
Might Iron.	7.7	480.	40.	31.6 ³	31.6 ³	.2779	1.	2.618 ³	.1455 ³
Steel	7.854	489.6	40.8	31.6 ³	31.6 ³	.2833	1.02	2.670 ³	.1484 ³
Copper & Bronze (Copper and Tin)	8.855	552.	46.	31.63 ³	31.63 ³	.3105	1.15	3.011 ³	.1673 ³
Brass, 65 Copper, 35 Zinc	8.393	523.2	43.6	31.63 ³	31.63 ³	.3029	1.00	2.854 ³	.1580 ³
Lead	11.28	709.6	59.1	4.93 ³	4.93 ³	.4106	1.48	3.870 ³	.2150 ³
Aluminum	2.67	166.5	13.9	1.16 ³	1.16 ³	.0863	0.347	0.908 ³	.0504 ³
Brass	2.62	163.4	13.6	1.13 ³	1.13 ³	.0845	0.34	0.891 ³	.0495 ³
White Wood, dry	0.481	30.0	2.5	0.21 ³	0.21 ³	.0174	1-10	0.184 ³	.0091 ³

For tubes use the coefficient of d^2 in ninth column, as for rods, and multiply it into $(d^2 - d_i^2)$; or take four times this coefficient and multiply it into $(d - d_i)^2$.

For hollow spheres use the coefficient of d^3 in the last column and multiply it into $(d^3 - d_i^3)$.

MEASURES AND WEIGHTS OF VARIOUS MATERIALS (APPROXIMATE).

Brickwork.—Brickwork is estimated by the thousand, and for various thicknesses of wall runs as follows:

8 1/4-in. wall, or 1 brick in thickness,	14 bricks per superficial foot.
18 1/4 " " " "	" " " "
17 " " " "	" " " "
11 1/4 " " " "	" " " "

An ordinary brick measures about 8 1/4 \times 4 \times 2 inches, which is equal to 66 inches, or 26.2 bricks to a cubic foot. The average weight is 4 1/2 lbs.

Fuel.—A bushel of bituminous coal weighs 76 pounds and contains 28 cubic inches = 1.554 cubic feet. 29.47 bushels = 1 gross ton.

A bushel of coke weighs 40 lbs. (35 to 42 lbs.).

One acre of bituminous coal contains 1000 tons of 2240 lbs. per foot of thickness of coal worked. 15 to 25 per cent must be deducted for waste in mining.

41 to 45 cubic feet bituminous coal when broken down	= 1 ton, 2240 lbs.
34 to 41 " " anthracite, prepared for market	= 1 ton, 2240 lbs.
123 " " of charcoal	= 1 ton, 2240 lbs.
70.9 " " coke	= 1 ton, 2240 lbs.
1 cubic foot of anthracite coal (see also page 635)	= 55 to 66 lbs.
1 " " bituminous "	= 50 to 55 lbs.
1 " " Cumberland coal	= 53 lbs.
1 " " Canal coal	= 50 3/4 lbs.
1 " " charcoal (hardwood)	= 18 1/2 lbs.
1 " " (pine)	= 18 lbs.

A bushel of charcoal.—In 1881 the American Charcoal-Iron Works' Association adopted for use in its official publications for the standard bushel of charcoal 27.48 cubic inches, or 20 pounds. A ton of charcoal is taken at 2000 pounds. This figure of 20 pounds to the bushel was taken as a fair average of different bushels used throughout the country, and has since been established by law in some States.

Ores, Earths, etc.

13 cubic feet of ordinary gold or silver ore, in mine	= 1 ton = 2000 lbs.
20 " " broken quartz	= 1 ton = 2000 lbs.
18 feet of gravel in bank	= 1 ton
27 cubic feet of gravel when dry	= 1 ton
25 " " sand	= 1 ton
18 " " earth in bank	= 1 ton
27 " " when dry	= 1 ton
17 " " clay	= 1 ton

Cement.—English Portland, sp. gr. 1.35 to 1.51, per bbl. 400 to 430 lbs.
Rosendale, U. S., a struck bushel 62 to 70 lbs.

Lime.—A struck bushel 72 to 75 lbs.

Grain.—A struck bushel of wheat = 60 lbs.; of corn = 56 lbs.; of oats = 30 lbs.

Salt.—A struck bushel of salt, coarse, Syracuse, N. Y. = 56 lbs.; Turk's Island = 76 to 80 lbs.

Weight of Earth Filling.

(From Howe's "Retaining Walls.")

	Average weight in lbs. per cubic foot.
Earth, common loam, loose	72 to 80
" " shaken	82 to 92
" " rammed moderately	90 to 100
Gravel	90 to 106
Sand	90 to 106
Soft flowing mud	104 to 120
Sand, perfectly wet	118 to 129

COMMERCIAL SIZES OF IRON BARS.

Flats.

Width.	Thickness.	Width.	Thickness.	Width.	Thickness.
3/4	3/8 to 5/8	1 1/8	1/2 to 1 1/4	4	1/4 to 2
5/8	3/8 to 3/4	2	3/8 to 1 3/4	4 1/2	1/2 to 2
1	3/8 to 15/16	2 1/4	3/4 to 1 3/4	5	3/4 to 2
1 1/4	3/8 to 1	2 3/4	3/4 to 1 3/4	5 1/2	3/4 to 2
1 1/2	3/8 to 1 1/4	3	3/4 to 1 3/4	6	3/4 to 2
1 3/4	3/8 to 1 1/2	3 1/8	3/4 to 1 3/4	6 1/2	3/4 to 2
1 7/8	3/8 to 1 3/4	3 1/4	3/4 to 1 3/4	7	3/4 to 2
2	3/8 to 1 3/4	3 1/2	3/4 to 2	7 1/2	3/4 to 2
2 1/4	3/8 to 1 3/4	3 3/4	3/4 to 2		

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths, and 1 1/2 to 5 inches by

1/16 to 1 1/4 inches, advancing by 1/16ths, and 1 1/4 to 3 inches by

rounds: 7/16, 1/2, 9/16, 11/16, 3/4, 1, 1 1/8, 1 1/4, 1 1/2, 1 3/4, 2 inches.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 1/16ths.

WEIGHTS OF SQUARE AND ROUND BARS OF IRON IN POUNDS PER LINEAL FOOT.

weighing 480 lbs. per cubic foot. For steel add 2 per cent.

Weight of Round Bar One Foot Long.	Thickness or Diameter in Inches.	Weight of Square Bar One Foot Long.	Weight of Round Bar One Foot Long.	Thickness or Diameter in Inches.	Weight of Square Bar One Foot Long.	Weight of Round Bar One Foot Long.
.010	11/16	24.08	18.91	5/8	26.30	75.64
.041	13/16	25.21	19.80	7/16	28.55	77.40
.092	15/16	26.37	20.71	3/4	100.8	79.19
.164	1	27.55	21.84	9/16	103.1	81.00
.250	1 1/16	28.76	22.59	5/8	105.5	82.83
.368	1 1/8	30.00	23.56	11/16	107.8	84.69
.501	1 1/4	31.26	24.55	3/4	110.2	86.57
.654	1 1/2	32.55	25.57	13/16	112.6	88.45
.828	1 3/4	33.87	26.60	7/8	115.1	90.36
1.023	2	35.21	27.65	15/16	117.5	92.29
1.237	2 1/16	36.58	28.73	6	120.0	94.25
1.473	2 1/8	37.97	29.82	3/4	122.1	96.22
1.728	2 1/4	39.39	30.91	1 1/4	124.2	98.23
2.004	2 1/2	40.83	32.07	5/8	126.5	100.4
2.301	2 3/4	42.30	33.23	7/8	128.8	102.3
2.618	3	43.80	34.40	1	131.3	104.4
2.955	3 1/16	45.33	35.60	1 1/8	133.5	106.4
3.313	3 1/8	46.88	36.82	1 1/4	135.5	108.6
3.692	3 1/4	48.45	38.05	1 1/2	137.5	110.6
4.091	3 1/2	50.05	39.31	1 3/4	139.5	112.9
4.510	3 3/4	51.68	40.59	2	141.5	114.9
4.950	4	53.33	41.89	2 1/8	143.5	116.9
5.410	4 1/16	55.01	43.21	2 1/4	145.5	118.9
5.890	4 1/8	56.72	44.55	2 1/2	147.5	120.9
6.392	4 1/4	58.45	45.91	2 3/4	149.5	122.9
6.913	4 1/2	60.21	47.28	3	151.5	124.9
7.455	4 3/4	61.99	48.69	3 1/8	153.5	126.9
8.018	4 3/2	63.80	50.11	3 1/4	155.5	128.9
8.601	4 3/4	65.64	51.55	3 1/2	157.5	130.9
9.204	4 3/2	67.50	53.01	3 3/4	159.5	132.9
9.828	4 3/4	69.39	54.50	4	161.5	134.9
10.47	4 3/4	71.30	56.00	4 1/8	163.5	136.9
11.14	4 3/4	73.24	57.52	4 1/4	165.5	138.9
11.82	4 3/4	75.21	59.07	4 1/2	167.5	140.9
12.53	4 3/4	77.20	60.63	4 3/4	169.5	142.9
13.25	4 3/4	79.22	62.22	5	171.5	144.9
14.00	4 3/4	81.26	63.82	5 1/8	173.5	146.9
14.77	4 3/4	83.33	65.45	5 1/4	175.5	148.9
15.55	4 3/4	85.43	67.10	5 1/2	177.5	150.9
16.36	4 3/4	87.55	68.76	5 3/4	179.5	152.9
17.19	4 3/4	89.70	70.45	6	181.5	154.9
18.04	4 3/4	91.88	72.16	6 1/8	183.5	156.9
	4 3/4	94.08	73.89	6 1/4	185.5	158.9

WEIGHTS OF FLAT ROLLED IRON IN POUNDS PER LINEAL FOOT.

Widths from 1 in. to 12 in.

Iron weighing 480 lbs. per cubic foot. For steel add 2 per cent.

Widths.

Thick- ness in Inches.	1"	1 1/8"	1 1/4"	1 3/8"	1 1/2"	1 5/8"	1 3/4"	2"	2 1/4"	2 1/2"	2 3/4"	3"	3 1/4"	3 1/2"	3 3/4"	4"	4 1/4"	4 1/2"	4 3/4"	5"
1-16	.308	.360	.313	.365	.417	.469	.521	.573	.625	.677	.729	.781	.833	.885	.938	.990	.1.042	.1.094	.1.146	.1.198
1/8	.417	.521	.521	.625	.729	.833	.938	.1.042	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290
3-16	.521	.625	.625	.729	.833	.938	.1.042	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394
1/4	.625	.729	.729	.833	.938	.1.042	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498
5-16	.729	.833	.833	.938	.1.042	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602
3/8	.833	.938	.938	.1.042	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706
7-16	.938	.1.042	.1.042	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810
1/2	.1.042	.1.146	.1.146	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914
9-16	.1.146	.1.250	.1.250	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018
5/8	.1.250	.1.354	.1.354	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122
11-16	.1.354	.1.458	.1.458	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226
3/4	.1.458	.1.562	.1.562	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330
13-16	.1.562	.1.666	.1.666	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434
7/8	.1.666	.1.770	.1.770	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538
15-16	.1.770	.1.874	.1.874	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642
1	.1.874	.1.978	.1.978	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746
1 1/8	.1.978	.2.082	.2.082	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850
1 1/4	.2.082	.2.186	.2.186	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954
1 3/8	.2.186	.2.290	.2.290	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954	.4.058
1 1/2	.2.290	.2.394	.2.394	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954	.4.058	.4.162
1 5/8	.2.394	.2.498	.2.498	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954	.4.058	.4.162	.4.266
1 3/4	.2.498	.2.602	.2.602	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954	.4.058	.4.162	.4.266	.4.370
1 7/8	.2.602	.2.706	.2.706	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954	.4.058	.4.162	.4.266	.4.370	.4.474
2	.2.706	.2.810	.2.810	.2.914	.3.018	.3.122	.3.226	.3.330	.3.434	.3.538	.3.642	.3.746	.3.850	.3.954	.4.058	.4.162	.4.266	.4.370	.4.474	.4.578

Width.

Thickness in
Inches.

	5".	5½".	5¾".	6".	6½".	6¾".	7".	7½".	8".	8¾".	9".	10".	11".	12".
1-10	1.04	1.09	1.15	1.25	1.30	1.35	1.41	1.46	1.56	1.67	1.77	1.88	2.00	2.50
11-16	2.06	2.19	2.30	2.50	2.60	2.71	2.81	2.93	3.13	3.33	3.54	3.75	4.00	5.00
17-24	3.13	3.36	3.54	3.75	3.91	4.06	4.22	4.38	4.60	4.80	5.01	5.25	5.50	7.50
25-36	4.21	4.38	4.59	4.70	4.91	5.02	5.13	5.25	5.48	5.67	5.88	6.12	6.37	10.00
37-48	5.27	5.47	5.73	5.90	6.11	6.27	6.43	6.59	6.81	7.00	7.19	7.45	7.65	12.50
49-60	6.35	6.56	6.86	7.10	7.31	7.48	7.64	7.80	8.03	8.25	8.45	8.75	8.95	15.00
61-72	7.43	7.66	7.98	8.30	8.51	8.68	8.84	9.01	9.23	9.44	9.63	9.90	10.09	17.50
73-84	8.53	8.75	9.17	9.58	10.00	10.43	10.83	11.25	11.67	12.08	12.47	12.88	13.26	20.00
85-96	9.68	9.84	10.31	10.78	11.25	11.72	12.19	12.66	13.13	13.58	14.04	14.48	14.90	22.50
97-108	10.43	10.94	11.40	11.98	12.50	13.02	13.54	14.06	14.58	15.03	15.48	15.93	16.35	25.00
109-120	11.46	12.03	12.60	13.18	13.75	14.32	14.90	15.47	16.04	16.61	17.17	17.72	18.25	27.50
121-132	12.50	13.13	13.75	14.38	15.00	15.63	16.25	16.88	17.50	18.12	18.75	19.37	19.98	30.00
133-144	13.54	14.22	14.90	15.57	16.25	16.93	17.60	18.28	18.96	19.63	20.31	20.98	21.64	32.50
145-156	14.58	15.31	16.04	16.77	17.50	18.28	19.01	19.69	20.42	21.14	21.86	22.58	23.28	35.00
157-168	15.63	16.41	17.19	17.97	18.75	19.53	20.31	21.09	21.88	22.64	23.40	24.16	24.91	37.50
169-180	16.67	17.50	18.33	19.17	20.00	20.83	21.67	22.50	23.33	24.16	24.98	25.80	26.61	40.00
181-192	17.72	18.60	19.48	20.36	21.25	22.14	23.02	23.91	24.79	25.67	26.55	27.42	28.29	42.50
193-204	18.75	19.68	20.61	21.56	22.50	23.44	24.38	25.31	26.25	27.17	28.10	29.02	29.94	45.00
205-216	19.79	20.76	21.73	22.70	23.65	24.61	25.57	26.53	27.48	28.43	29.38	30.32	31.25	47.50
217-228	20.83	21.84	22.84	23.85	24.83	25.81	26.79	27.76	28.73	29.69	30.65	31.61	32.56	50.00
229-240	21.88	22.93	23.96	24.98	25.99	27.00	28.00	29.00	30.00	31.00	32.00	33.00	34.00	52.50
241-252	22.91	24.00	25.07	26.12	27.17	28.21	29.25	30.28	31.31	32.33	33.35	34.37	35.38	55.00
253-264	23.95	25.08	26.19	27.28	28.36	29.43	30.49	31.54	32.58	33.61	34.64	35.66	36.67	57.50
265-276	24.98	26.15	27.30	28.43	29.55	30.66	31.76	32.85	33.93	35.00	36.06	37.12	38.17	60.00
277-288	25.99	27.20	28.39	29.57	30.74	31.90	33.05	34.19	35.32	36.45	37.57	38.68	39.78	62.50
289-300	26.99	28.24	29.47	30.68	31.88	33.07	34.25	35.42	36.58	37.73	38.87	39.99	41.11	65.00
301-312	27.99	29.28	30.55	31.80	33.04	34.27	35.49	36.70	37.90	39.09	40.27	41.44	42.60	67.50
313-324	28.99	30.32	31.63	32.90	34.15	35.39	36.61	37.82	39.02	40.21	41.39	42.56	43.72	70.00
325-336	29.99	31.36	32.71	34.03	35.34	36.64	37.93	39.21	40.48	41.75	43.01	44.27	45.52	72.50
337-348	30.99	32.40	33.79	35.15	36.49	37.82	39.14	40.45	41.75	43.04	44.32	45.59	46.85	75.00
349-360	31.99	33.44	34.87	36.28	37.68	39.07	40.45	41.82	43.18	44.53	45.87	47.20	48.52	77.50
361-372	32.99	34.48	35.95	37.39	38.83	40.25	41.66	43.05	44.43	45.80	47.16	48.51	49.85	80.00

Other sizes.—Weight of other sizes can easily be obtained from the above table by means of combinations or divisions. Thus, for example,

Weight of 12 × 1½ equals weight of 12 × 1 plus weight of 12 × ½. 50.00
 Or, twice weight of 12 × ¾. 50.00
 Weight of 6 × 1½ equals weight of 6 × 1 plus weight of 6 × ½. 50.00
 Weight of 3 × 1½ equals weight of 3 × 1 plus weight of 3 × ½. 50.00
 Weight of 24 × 1½ being twice as wide as 12 × 1½, weights 75.00

WEIGHTS OF FLAT ROLLED IRON IN POUNDS PER LINEAL FOOT.

Widths from 1 in. to 12 in.

Iron weighing 480 lbs. per cubic foot. For steel add 2 per cent.

Widths.

	1 1/4"	1 1/2"	1 3/4"	2"	2 1/4"	2 1/2"	2 3/4"	3"	3 1/4"	3 1/2"	3 3/4"	4"	4 1/4"	4 1/2"	4 3/4"	5"
1-16	.208	.313	.417	.521	.625	.729	.833	.937	1.041	1.145	1.249	1.353	1.457	1.561	1.665	1.769
1-8	.417	.625	.833	1.041	1.249	1.457	1.665	1.873	2.081	2.289	2.497	2.705	2.913	3.121	3.329	3.537
3-16	.625	.937	1.249	1.561	1.873	2.185	2.497	2.809	3.121	3.433	3.745	4.057	4.369	4.681	4.993	5.305
1-4	.833	1.249	1.665	2.081	2.497	2.913	3.329	3.745	4.161	4.577	4.993	5.409	5.825	6.241	6.657	7.073
5-16	1.041	1.561	2.081	2.601	3.121	3.641	4.161	4.681	5.201	5.721	6.241	6.761	7.281	7.801	8.321	8.841
3-8	1.249	1.873	2.497	3.121	3.745	4.369	4.993	5.617	6.241	6.865	7.489	8.113	8.737	9.361	9.985	10.609
7-16	1.457	2.185	2.913	3.641	4.369	5.097	5.825	6.553	7.281	8.009	8.737	9.465	10.193	10.921	11.649	12.377
1-2	1.665	2.497	3.329	4.161	4.993	5.825	6.657	7.489	8.321	9.153	9.985	10.817	11.649	12.481	13.313	14.145
9-16	1.873	2.705	3.537	4.369	5.201	6.033	6.865	7.697	8.529	9.361	10.193	11.025	11.857	12.689	13.521	14.353
5-8	2.081	3.121	4.161	5.201	6.241	7.281	8.321	9.361	10.401	11.441	12.481	13.521	14.561	15.601	16.641	17.681
11-16	2.289	3.433	4.577	5.721	6.865	8.009	9.153	10.297	11.441	12.585	13.729	14.873	16.017	17.161	18.305	19.449
13-16	2.497	3.745	4.993	6.241	7.489	8.737	9.985	11.233	12.481	13.729	14.977	16.225	17.473	18.721	19.969	21.217
3-4	2.705	4.161	5.617	7.073	8.539	9.985	11.441	12.897	14.353	15.809	17.265	18.721	20.177	21.633	23.089	24.545
7-8	2.913	4.469	6.033	7.589	9.153	10.717	12.281	13.845	15.409	16.973	18.537	20.101	21.665	23.229	24.793	26.357
15-16	3.121	4.681	6.241	7.801	9.361	10.921	12.481	14.041	15.601	17.161	18.721	20.281	21.841	23.401	24.961	26.521
1	3.329	4.993	6.657	8.321	9.985	11.649	13.313	14.977	16.641	18.305	19.969	21.633	23.297	24.961	26.625	28.289
1 1-16	3.537	5.201	6.865	8.529	10.193	11.857	13.521	15.185	16.849	18.513	20.177	21.841	23.505	25.169	26.833	28.497
1 1-8	3.745	5.409	7.073	8.737	10.401	12.065	13.729	15.393	17.057	18.721	20.385	22.049	23.713	25.377	27.041	28.705
1 1-4	3.953	5.617	7.281	8.945	10.609	12.273	13.937	15.601	17.265	18.929	20.593	22.257	23.921	25.585	27.249	28.913
1 3-16	4.161	5.825	7.489	9.153	10.817	12.481	14.145	15.809	17.473	19.137	20.801	22.465	24.129	25.793	27.457	29.121
1 3-8	4.369	6.033	7.697	9.361	11.025	12.689	14.353	16.017	17.681	19.345	21.009	22.673	24.337	26.001	27.665	29.329
1 5-16	4.577	6.241	7.905	9.569	11.233	12.897	14.561	16.225	17.889	19.553	21.217	22.881	24.545	26.209	27.873	29.537
1 1-2	4.785	6.449	8.113	9.777	11.441	13.105	14.769	16.433	18.097	19.761	21.425	23.089	24.753	26.417	28.081	29.745
1 9-16	4.993	6.657	8.321	9.985	11.649	13.313	14.977	16.641	18.305	19.969	21.633	23.297	24.961	26.625	28.289	29.953
1 7-8	5.201	6.865	8.529	10.193	11.857	13.521	15.185	16.849	18.513	20.177	21.841	23.505	25.169	26.833	28.497	30.161
1 11-16	5.409	7.073	8.737	10.401	12.065	13.729	15.393	17.057	18.721	20.385	22.049	23.713	25.377	27.041	28.705	30.369
2	5.617	7.281	8.945	10.609	12.273	13.937	15.601	17.265	18.929	20.593	22.257	23.921	25.585	27.249	28.913	30.577

Widths

	5"	5 1/4"	5 1/2"	5 3/4"	6"	6 1/4"	6 1/2"	7"	7 1/2"	8"	8 1/2"	9"	10"	11"	12"
1-10	1.04	1.09	1.15	1.20	1.25	1.30	1.35	1.40	1.45	1.50	1.57	1.64	1.71	1.78	1.85
1 1/16	2.08	2.19	2.33	2.44	2.56	2.67	2.79	2.91	3.02	3.13	3.25	3.37	3.49	3.60	3.72
1 1/8	3.13	3.30	3.49	3.67	3.85	4.03	4.21	4.38	4.55	4.72	4.89	5.06	5.23	5.40	5.57
1 1/4	4.17	4.39	4.58	4.77	4.95	5.14	5.32	5.50	5.68	5.85	6.03	6.21	6.39	6.56	6.74
1 1/2	5.21	5.47	5.73	5.99	6.25	6.51	6.77	7.03	7.29	7.55	7.81	8.07	8.33	8.59	8.85
1 3/8	6.25	6.55	6.86	7.16	7.46	7.76	8.06	8.36	8.66	8.96	9.26	9.56	9.86	10.16	10.46
1 1/2	7.29	7.63	7.97	8.31	8.65	8.99	9.33	9.67	10.01	10.35	10.69	11.03	11.37	11.71	12.05
1 3/4	8.33	8.73	9.13	9.53	9.93	10.33	10.73	11.13	11.53	11.93	12.33	12.73	13.13	13.53	13.93
1 7/8	9.37	9.83	10.29	10.75	11.21	11.67	12.13	12.59	13.05	13.51	13.97	14.43	14.89	15.35	15.81
2	10.42	10.94	11.46	11.98	12.50	13.02	13.54	14.06	14.58	15.10	15.62	16.14	16.66	17.18	17.70
2 1/16	11.46	12.04	12.62	13.20	13.78	14.36	14.94	15.52	16.10	16.68	17.26	17.84	18.42	19.00	19.58
2 1/8	12.50	13.14	13.78	14.42	15.06	15.70	16.34	16.98	17.62	18.26	18.90	19.54	20.18	20.82	21.46
2 1/4	13.54	14.24	14.94	15.64	16.34	17.04	17.74	18.44	19.14	19.84	20.54	21.24	21.94	22.64	23.34
2 3/8	14.58	15.34	16.10	16.86	17.62	18.38	19.14	19.90	20.66	21.42	22.18	22.94	23.70	24.46	25.22
2 1/2	15.62	16.44	17.26	18.08	18.90	19.72	20.54	21.36	22.18	23.00	23.82	24.64	25.46	26.28	27.10
2 5/8	16.67	17.54	18.41	19.28	20.15	21.02	21.89	22.76	23.63	24.50	25.37	26.24	27.11	27.98	28.85
2 3/4	17.71	18.64	19.57	20.50	21.43	22.36	23.29	24.22	25.15	26.08	27.01	27.94	28.87	29.80	30.73
2 7/8	18.75	19.74	20.73	21.72	22.71	23.70	24.69	25.68	26.67	27.66	28.65	29.64	30.63	31.62	32.61
3	19.79	20.84	21.89	22.94	23.99	25.04	26.09	27.14	28.19	29.24	30.29	31.34	32.39	33.44	34.49
3 1/16	20.83	21.94	23.05	24.16	25.27	26.38	27.49	28.60	29.71	30.82	31.93	33.04	34.15	35.26	36.37
3 1/8	21.87	23.04	24.21	25.38	26.55	27.72	28.89	30.06	31.23	32.40	33.57	34.74	35.91	37.08	38.25
3 1/4	22.91	24.14	25.37	26.60	27.83	29.06	30.29	31.52	32.75	33.98	35.21	36.44	37.67	38.90	40.13
3 3/8	23.95	25.24	26.53	27.82	29.11	30.40	31.69	32.98	34.27	35.56	36.85	38.14	39.43	40.72	42.01
3 1/2	24.99	26.34	27.69	29.04	30.39	31.74	33.09	34.44	35.79	37.14	38.49	39.84	41.19	42.54	43.89
3 5/8	26.03	27.44	28.85	30.26	31.67	33.08	34.49	35.90	37.31	38.72	40.13	41.54	42.95	44.36	45.77
3 3/4	27.07	28.54	29.99	31.44	32.89	34.34	35.79	37.24	38.69	40.14	41.59	43.04	44.49	45.94	47.39
3 7/8	28.11	29.64	31.17	32.70	34.23	35.76	37.29	38.82	40.35	41.88	43.41	44.94	46.47	48.00	49.53
4	29.15	30.74	32.33	33.92	35.51	37.10	38.69	40.28	41.87	43.46	45.05	46.64	48.23	49.82	51.41

Other sizes.—Weight of other sizes can easily be obtained from the above table by means of combinations or divisions.

Thus, for example,

Weight of 12×14 equals weight of 12×1 plus weight of $12 \times \frac{1}{4}$ 50.00

Or, twice weight of $12 \times \frac{1}{2}$, as it is twice as thick..... 50.00

Weight of 8×14 equals midway weight between 6×14 and 6×2 28.75

Weight of 24×14 being twice as wide as 12×14 50.00

WEIGHT OF IRON AND STEEL SHEETS.**Weights per Square Foot.**

(For weights by new U. S. Standard Gauge, see page 31.)

Thickness by Birmingham Gauge.				Thickness by American (Brown & Sharpe's) Gauge.			
No. of Gauge.	Thickness in Inches.	Iron.	Steel.	No. of Gauge.	Thickness in Inches.	Iron.	Steel.
0000	.454	18.16	18.59	0000	.40	16.40	16.80
000	.435	17.00	17.34	000	.4006	16.38	16.78
00	.38	15.30	15.30	00	.3648	14.59	14.99
0	.34	13.60	13.67	0	.3240	13.00	13.40
1	.3	12.00	12.24	1	.2860	11.57	11.97
2	.284	11.36	11.59	2	.2576	10.30	10.70
3	.259	10.36	10.57	3	.2294	9.16	9.56
4	.238	9.54	9.71	4	.2043	8.17	8.57
5	.22	8.80	9.09	5	.1819	7.38	7.78
6	.200	8.12	8.38	6	.1620	6.48	6.88
7	.18	7.30	7.54	7	.1443	5.77	6.17
8	.165	6.60	6.78	8	.1285	5.14	5.54
9	.148	5.92	6.04	9	.1144	4.58	4.98
10	.134	5.36	5.47	10	.1019	4.08	4.48
11	.12	4.80	4.90	11	.0907	3.63	3.93
12	.109	4.36	4.45	12	.0808	3.23	3.53
13	.095	3.80	3.88	13	.0720	2.88	3.18
14	.084	3.32	3.39	14	.0641	2.56	2.86
15	.072	2.88	2.94	15	.0571	2.28	2.58
16	.065	2.60	2.65	16	.0508	2.03	2.33
17	.058	2.32	2.37	17	.0453	1.81	2.11
18	.049	1.96	2.00	18	.0403	1.61	1.91
19	.042	1.68	1.71	19	.0359	1.44	1.74
20	.035	1.40	1.43	20	.0320	1.28	1.58
21	.032	1.28	1.31	21	.0285	1.14	1.44
22	.028	1.12	1.14	22	.0253	1.01	1.31
23	.025	1.00	1.02	23	.0226	.904	1.204
24	.022	.88	.898	24	.0201	.804	1.104
25	.02	.80	.816	25	.0179	.716	1.016
26	.018	.72	.734	26	.0159	.636	.936
27	.016	.64	.653	27	.0142	.568	.868
28	.014	.56	.571	28	.0126	.504	.804
29	.013	.52	.530	29	.0113	.452	.752
30	.012	.48	.490	30	.0100	.400	.700
31	.01	.40	.408	31	.0089	.356	.656
32	.009	.36	.367	32	.0080	.320	.620
33	.008	.32	.326	33	.0071	.284	.584
34	.007	.28	.286	34	.0063	.252	.552
35	.006	.24	.244	35	.0056	.224	.524

	Iron.	Steel.
Specific gravity	7.7	7.854
Weight per cubic foot.....	480	489.6
Weight per cubic inch.....	.2778	.2933

There are many gauges in use differing from each other, and even the specified gauge, as the Birmingham, are not accurate. Therefore, orders for sheets and wires should specify the weight per square foot, or the thickness in thousandths of an inch.

ES AND WEIGHTS OF STRUCTURAL SHAPES.

Minimum and Maximum Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie I-Beams.

STEEL BEAMS.

Depth of Beam, in Inches.	Weight per Foot, in lbs.		Flange Width.		Web Thickness.		Increase of Web and Flanges for each lb. increase of weight.
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
24	80.00	100.00	6.98	7.20	.50	.75	.0123
30	80.00	100.00	7.00	7.30	.60	.90	.015
36	84.00	75.00	6.25	6.41	.50	.66	.015
42	80.00	100.00	6.41	6.79	.77	1.16	.020
48	60.00	75.00	6.04	6.34	.54	.84	.020
54	50.00	59.00	5.75	5.88	.45	.82	.020
60	41.00	49.00	5.50	5.66	.40	.56	.020
66	40.00	56.70	5.50	5.91	.30	.60	.025
72	32.00	39.00	5.25	5.42	.25	.52	.025
78	33.00	40.00	5.00	5.91	.37	.58	.029
84	25.50	32.00	4.75	4.94	.32	.51	.029
90	27.00	33.00	4.75	4.95	.31	.51	.033
96	21.00	26.00	4.50	4.68	.27	.43	.033
102	22.00	27.00	4.50	4.68	.27	.45	.037
108	18.00	21.70	4.25	4.39	.25	.39	.037
114	20.00	22.00	4.25	4.33	.27	.35	.042
120	15.50	19.00	4.00	4.15	.23	.38	.042
126	16.00	20.00	3.63	3.83	.25	.46	.049
132	13.00	15.00	3.50	3.70	.23	.31	.049
138	13.00	16.00	3.13	3.31	.26	.44	.059
144	10.00	12.00	3.00	3.12	.22	.33	.059
150	10.00	13.00	2.75	2.97	.24	.46	.074
156	7.50	9.00	2.75	2.74	.20	.31	.074
162	8.00	8.00	2.18	2.33	.18	.33	.074

	Iron.	Steel.
weight in pounds per foot, to find sectional area—	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	3.4
" " " " " "	$\times 0.3$.941
sectional area, to find weight in lbs. per foot	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	8.4
" " " " " " lbs. per yard	$\times 10$	10.2

Maximum and Minimum Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie Deck Beams.

STEEL.

Depth of Beam, inches.	Weight per Foot, lbs.		Flange Width.		Web Thickness.		Increase of Web and Flanges per lb. increase of weight.
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
10	27.23	35.70	5.25	5.50	.38	.68	.029
9	26.52	34.60	4.94	5.07	.44	.57	.032
8	20.15	24.48	5.00	5.13	.51	.47	.037
7	18.10	23.46	4.87	5.10	.81	.54	.042
6	15.30	18.36	4.38	4.53	.28	.43	.049

WEIGHTS OF STEEL BLOOMS.

Soft steel. 1 cubic inch = 0.284 lb. 1 cubic foot = 490.75 lbs.

Sizes.	Lengths.											
	1'	6"	12"	18"	24"	30"	36"	42"	48"	54"	60"	66"
12" x 4"	13.63	82	164	245	327	409	491	573	654	736	818	899
11" x 6"	18.75	113	225	338	450	563	675	788	900	1013	1125	1237
11" x 5"	15.62	94	188	281	373	466	559	652	745	838	931	1024
11" x 4"	12.50	75	150	225	300	375	450	525	600	675	750	825
10" x 7"	19.58	130	259	388	517	646	775	904	1033	1162	1291	1420
10" x 6"	17.01	102	204	307	409	511	613	716	818	920	1022	1125
10" x 5"	14.30	85	170	255	341	426	511	596	682	767	852	937
10" x 4"	11.96	69	138	205	273	341	409	477	545	614	682	750
10" x 3"	8.52	51	102	153	204	255	306	358	409	460	511	562
9" x 7"	17.89	107	215	322	430	537	644	751	859	966	1073	1180
9" x 6"	15.84	92	184	276	368	460	552	644	736	828	920	1013
9" x 5"	12.78	77	153	230	307	383	460	537	614	690	767	844
9" x 4"	10.32	61	122	184	245	307	368	429	490	552	613	675
8" x 8"	18.18	109	218	327	436	545	655	764	873	982	1091	1200
8" x 7"	15.9	95	191	286	382	477	572	668	763	859	954	1050
8" x 6"	13.63	82	164	245	327	409	491	573	654	736	818	899
8" x 5"	11.36	68	136	205	273	341	409	477	546	614	682	750
8" x 4"	9.00	55	109	164	218	273	327	382	436	491	545	599
7" x 7"	13.92	88	176	264	352	440	528	616	704	792	880	968
7" x 6"	11.93	72	143	215	286	358	430	501	573	644	716	787
7" x 5"	9.94	60	119	179	238	298	358	417	477	536	596	655
7" x 4"	7.95	48	96	143	191	239	286	334	382	429	477	524
7" x 3"	5.96	36	72	107	143	179	214	250	286	322	358	394
6½" x 6½"	12.	72	144	216	288	360	432	504	576	648	720	792
6" x 4"	7.38	44	88	133	177	221	266	310	354	399	443	487
6" x 6"	10.22	61	123	184	245	307	368	429	490	551	613	675
6" x 5"	8.52	51	102	153	204	255	307	358	409	460	511	562
6" x 4"	6.82	41	82	123	164	204	245	286	327	368	409	450
6" x 3"	5.11	31	61	92	123	154	184	214	245	276	307	337
5½" x 5½"	8.59	52	103	155	207	259	311	363	415	467	519	571
5" x 4"	6.25	37	75	112	150	188	225	262	300	337	375	413
5" x 5"	7.10	43	85	128	170	213	255	298	341	383	426	468
5" x 4"	5.08	34	68	102	136	170	205	239	273	307	341	375
4½" x 4½"	5.75	35	69	104	138	173	207	242	276	311	345	380
4" x 4"	5.11	31	61	92	123	154	184	215	246	276	307	338
4" x 4"	4.54	27	55	82	109	136	164	191	218	245	272	300
4" x 3½"	3.97	24	48	72	96	119	143	167	191	215	238	262
4" x 3"	3.40	20	41	61	82	102	122	143	163	184	204	225
3½" x 3½"	3.48	21	42	63	84	104	125	146	167	188	209	229
3" x 3"	2.98	18	36	54	72	89	107	125	143	161	179	197
3" x 3"	2.56	15	31	46	61	77	92	108	123	138	154	169

EXTRACTS OF THE TABLE

TABLE OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES
FOR THE APES.

or Various

16 34 78 1
85 15 85 100

26.5 29 134.2 30.3
22 8 25 0 29 2 3 4
17.7 19.3

18.

Weights per Foot for Various
in Inches.

16 34 78 1
85 15 85 100

17.0	18.9	20.9	22.8	24.8	26.8	28.7
12.9	15.0	17.1	19.2	21.4	23.6	25.7
12.2	14.4	16.4	18.6	20.7	22.8	24.9
11.5	13.6	15.6	17.6	19.7	21.7	23.8
11.0	12.8	14.6	16.4	18.2	20.0	21.8
10.3	12.0	13.6	15.2	16.8	18.5	20.1
9.7	11.2	12.8	14.3	15.8	17.5	18.9
9.2	10.6	12.1	13.6	15.0	16.5	18.0
8.6	10.0	11.4	12.8	14.2	15.6	17.0
7.9	9.2	10.5	11.8	13.1	14.4	15.7
7.1	8.3	9.4				
6.7						
6.1	7.6	8.9				
5.4	7.1	8.2				
4.6	6.3	7.2				
4.0						

Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie Steel Channels

Section Index	Depth of Channel, in inches.	Weight per Foot, in lbs.		Flange Width.		Web Thickness.		Inch of Flange for 1 lb. cross weight
		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
C1	15	32.00	51.00	3.40	3.78	.40	.78	
C2	12	20.00	30.25	2.90	3.15	.30	.55	
C3	10	15.25	23.75	2.66	2.91	.26	.51	
C4	9	12.75	20.50	2.44	2.69	.24	.49	
C5	8	10.00	17.25	2.20	2.45	.20	.47	
C6	7	8.50	14.50	2.00	2.25	.20	.45	
C7	6	7.00	12.00	1.89	2.14	.19	.44	
C8	5	6.00	10.25	1.78	2.03	.18	.43	
C9	4	5.00	8.25	1.67	1.91	.17	.41	

Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie Z-Bars.

Section Index.	Thickness of Metal.	Size.			Weight.
		Flange.	Web.	Flange.	
Z 1	$\frac{3}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	15.3
"	7-16	3 9-16	6 1-16	3 9-16	18.0
"	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	6 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	20.6
Z 2	9-10	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	22.7
"	$\frac{5}{8}$	3 9-16	6 1-16	3 9-16	24.9
"	11-16	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	6 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	27.5
Z 3	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	26.8
"	13-16	3 9-16	6 1-16	3 9-16	31.3
"	$\frac{7}{8}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	6 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	33.9
Z 4	5-16	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.8
"	$\frac{5}{8}$	3 5-16	5 1-16	3 5-16	13.7
"	7-16	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	16.0
Z 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	17.5
"	9-16	3 5-16	5 1-16	3 5-16	19.8
"	$\frac{5}{8}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	22.1
Z 6	11-16	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	23.2
"	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 5-16	5 1-16	3 5-16	25.5
"	13-16	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	27.8
Z 7	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 1-16	4	3 1-16	6.0
"	5-11	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	4 1-16	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	10.1
"	$\frac{3}{8}$	3 1-16	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 1-16	12.2
Z 8	7-16	3 1-16	4	3 1-16	13.5
"	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	4 1-16	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	15.5
"	9-16	3 3-16	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 3-16	17.6
Z 9	$\frac{5}{8}$	3 1-16	4	3 1-16	18.5
"	11-16	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	4 1-16	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	20.5
"	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 3-16	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 3-16	22.5
Z 10	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 11-16	3	2 11-16	6.6
"	5-16	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 1-16	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	8.3
Z 11	$\frac{3}{8}$	2 11-16	3	2 11-16	9.5
"	7-16	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 1-16	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	11.9
Z 12	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 11-16	3	2 11-16	12.9
"	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 1-16	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	15.3

SIZE AND WEIGHTS OF STRUCTURAL STEEL

Pennock Steel Angles.

EVEN LEGS.

Size in inches.	Approximate Weight in Pounds per Foot. Thicknesses in inches.											
	$\frac{1}{8}$.125	3-16 .1875	$\frac{1}{4}$.25	5-16 .3125	$\frac{3}{8}$.375	7-16 .4375	$\frac{1}{2}$.50	9-16 .5625	$\frac{5}{8}$.625	11-16 .6875	$\frac{3}{4}$.75	1 .875
2 1/2					14.8	17.3	19.9	22.3	24.9	26.5	29.1	34.3
2 1/4					12.2	14.3	16.4	18.5	20.7	22.8	25.0	29.9
2 1/8				8.2	9.8	11.3	13.0	14.6	16.1	17.7	19.3	23.4
2				7.1	8.6	10.0	11.4	12.8	14.2			
1 7/8			4.9	8.0	7.1	8.3	9.4	10.6	11.6			
1 7/8			4.5	5.6	6.7	7.8	8.9					
1 3/4		3.1	4.1	5.1	6.1	7.1						
1 3/4		2.7	3.6	4.5	5.4							
1 3/4		3.44	3.3	4.1	4.9							
1 1/2		2.4	2.9	3.6	4.4							
1 1/2	1.16	1.80	2.4	3.0	3.6							
1 1/2	1.02	1.53	2.04									
1 1/4	0.82	1.16	1.53									

UNEVEN LEGS.

Size in inches.	Approximate Weight in Pounds per Foot for Various Thicknesses in Inches.											
	$\frac{1}{8}$.125	3-16 .1875	$\frac{1}{4}$.25	5-16 .3125	$\frac{3}{8}$.375	7-16 .4375	$\frac{1}{2}$.50	9-16 .5625	$\frac{5}{8}$.625	11-16 .6875	$\frac{3}{4}$.75	1 .875
2 1/2							17.0	18.9	20.9	22.8	24.8	28.6
2 1/4					12.9	15.0	17.1	19.3	21.4	23.6	25.7	30.0
2 1/8					12.2	14.4	16.4	18.6	20.7	22.8	24.9	29.1
2					11.5	13.6	15.6	17.6	19.7	21.7	23.8	27.8
1 7/8					11.0	12.8	14.6	16.4	18.2			
1 7/8					11.0	12.8	14.6	16.4	18.2	20.0	21.8	
1 3/4			8.7	10.3	12.0	13.6	15.2	16.8	18.5	20.1		
1 3/4			8.2	9.7	11.2	12.8	14.3	15.8	17.3	18.9		
1 3/4			7.7	9.2	10.6	12.1	13.6	15.0	16.5	18.0		
1 1/2			7.7	9.2	10.6	12.1	13.6	15.0	16.5	18.0		
1 1/2			7.1	8.6	10.0	11.4	12.8	14.2				
1 1/2			6.6	7.9	9.2	10.5	11.8	13.1				
1 1/4			4.9	6.0	7.1	8.3	9.4					
1 1/4			4.5	5.6	6.7							
1 1/4			4.5	5.6	6.7	7.8	8.9					
1 1/4			4.1	5.1	6.1	7.1	8.2					
1 1/8		3.7	3.6	4.5	5.4	6.3	7.2					
1 1/8		2.24	3.03	3.8	4.6							
1 1/8		1.94	2.7	3.5	4.0							

Pencoyd Tees.

EVEN TEES.

UNEVEN TEES.

Chart Number.	Size in Inches.	Weight per Foot.		Chart Number.	Size in Inches.	Weight per Foot.
		Iron.	Steel.			
70	4 x 4	12.40	13.68	107	5 x 4	14.7
71	3½ x 3½	10.17	10.37	108	5 x 3½	16.1
72	3 x 3	8.33	8.50	109	5 x 3	11.0
73	3 x 3	6.43	6.56	110	5 x 2½	10.2
74	3 x 3	7.53	7.68	111	4½ x 3½	14.6
75	2½ x 2½	4.28	4.09	112	4 x 3½	13.3
76	2½ x 2½	6.50	6.68	113	4 x 3	13.0
77	2½ x 2½	5.73	5.85	114	4 x 2½	8.2
78	2½ x 2½	3.90	3.98	115	4 x 2	8.2
79	2½ x 2½	3.93	4.01	116	3 x 3½	9.7
80	2 x 2	3.47	3.54	117	3 x 3	7.2
81	1½ x 1½	2.37	2.41	118	3 x 2½	5.8
82	1½ x 1½	2.00	2.04	119	3 x 2	5.8
83	1½ x 1½	1.50	1.53			
84	1 x 1	1.03	1.05			
85	4 x 4	10.98	11.19			

Pencoyd Car-Builders' Channels, Iron.

Section Number.	Depth in Inches.	Minimum Flange Width in Inches.	Minimum Web Thickness in Inches.	Minimum Weight per Foot in Pounds.	Approximate Weight in Pounds per Foot for Each Thickness of Web, in Inches.				
					5-16	¾	7-16	½	9-16
55	13	87½	¾	29.5	29.5	32.2	34.9	37.6	40.3
56	12	8	9-32	22.4	26.1	29.2	31.1	33.0	34.9
57	10½	83½	7-16	23.6		23.6	25.8		
58	10½	82½	5-16	17.6	17.6	19.8			

Pencoyd Car-Builders' Channels, Steel.

Section Number.	Depth in Inches.	Minimum Flange Width in Inches.	Minimum Web Thickness in Inches.	Minimum Weight per Foot in Pounds.	Approximate Weight in Pounds per Foot for Each Thickness of Web, in Inches.				
					5-16	¾	7-16	½	9-16
55	13	87½	¾	30.1	30.1	32.9	35.6	38.4	41.2
56	12	8	9-32	24.1	26.6	29.2	31.7	34.3	36.9
57	10½	83½	7-16	24.1		24.1	26.3		
58	10½	82½	5-16	17.9	17.9	20.2			

WEIGHTS OF ROOFING MATERIALS.

Corrugated Iron (Phoenix Iron Co.).

BLACK IRON.			GALVANIZED IRON.		
Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. on Roof. Flat.	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. on Roof. Corrugated		Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. Flat.	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. on Roof. Flat.	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. on Roof. Corrugated
3.03	3.37		3.00	3.50	3.88
2.29	2.54		2.37	2.76	3.07
1.63	1.82		1.75	2.03	2.26
1.31	1.45		1.51	1.53	1.71
1.03	1.14		1.06	1.24	1.37
0.84	0.93		0.94	1.09	1.21

It is calculated for the ordinary size of sheet, which is from 4 to 6 feet wide, and from 6 to 8 feet long, allowing 4 inches lap in length and 1 inch width of sheet.

of sheet iron adds about one-third of a pound to its weight.

Iron made by the Keystone Bridge Co., the corrugations are formed on the straight line; they require a length of iron of one corrugation, and the depth of corrugation is 21 3/32". It is allowed for lap in the width of the sheet and 6" in the usual pitch of roof of two to one. Sheets can be corrugated not exceeding ten feet. The most advantageous width is 10' 6", allowing 1/2" for irregularities will make eleven corrugations. Allowance for laps, will cover 24 1/2% of the surface of the

It was found that corrugated iron No. 20, spanning 6 feet, has a permanent deflection for a load of 30 lbs. per square foot, collapse with a load of 60 lbs. per square foot. The distance of purlins should therefore not exceed 6 feet, and, preferably this.

Terra-Cotta.

Asph. roofing 3" thick weighs 16 lbs. per square foot and 2" weighs 14 lbs. per square foot.

Tiles.

$7 \times 10\frac{1}{2}'' \times 5\frac{1}{8}''$ weigh from 1400 to 1850 lbs. per square of
or one-half the length of the tile.

tees and pillets weigh from 740 to 925 lbs. per square of roof.

× 10½" laid 10" to the weather, weigh 850 lbs. per square.

Tin.

for roofing tin are 14" X 20" and 20" X 28". Without
for waste, tin roofing weighs from 50 to 62 lbs. per square.
weighs from 62 to 75 lbs. per square.

or ferric plates (steel plates coated with an alloy of tin made only in IC and LX thicknesses (27 and 29 Birmingham) and "charcoal" tin plates, old names used when iron and charcoal was used for the tinned plate, are still used in tin steel plates have been substituted for iron; a coke plate meaning one made of Bessemer steel, and a charcoal plate "tin steel." The thickness of the tin coating on the plates is not "branded."

Information on Tin Roofing, see circulars of Merch

TIN PLATES. (TINNED SHEET STEEL.)

Standard Stock Sizes, with Number of Sheets and Net Weight per Box.

B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.	Net Weight lbs.	B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.
29	IC	10 x 14	225	108	29	IC	10 x 20	225
27	IX	10 x 14	225	135	27	IX	10 x 20	225
26	IXX	10 x 14	225	160	26	IXX	10 x 20	225
26	IC	12 x 12	225	110	26	IC	11 x 22	225
27	IX	12 x 12	225	138	27	IX	11 x 22	225
26	IXX	12 x 12	225	165	26	IXX	11 x 22	225
29	IC	14 x 20	112	108	29	IC	12 x 24	112
27	IX	14 x 20	112	135	27	IX	12 x 24	112
26	IXX	14 x 20	112	160	26	IXX	12 x 24	112
25	IXXXX	14 x 20	112	180	25	IC	13 x 26	112
24 ^g	IXXXX	14 x 20	112	200	27	IX	13 x 26	112
29	IC	20 x 28	112	216	26	IXX	13 x 26	112
27	IX	20 x 28	112	250	29	IC	14 x 22	112
26	IXX	20 x 28	112	320	27	IX	14 x 22	112
25	IXXX	20 x 28	66	180	26	IXX	14 x 22	112
24 ^g	IXXXX	20 x 28	56	200	29	IC	14 x 24	112
29	IC	13 x 13	225	132	27	IX	14 x 24	112
27	IX	13 x 13	225	162	26	IXX	14 x 24	112
26	IXX	13 x 13	225	192	29	IC	14 x 28	112
29	IC	14 x 14	225	155	27	IX	14 x 28	112
27	IX	14 x 14	225	193	26	IXX	14 x 28	112
26	IXX	14 x 14	225	280	29	IC	14 x 31	112
29	IC	15 x 15	225	178	27	IX	14 x 31	112
27	IX	15 x 15	225	218	26	IXX	14 x 31	112
26	IXX	15 x 15	225	260	27	IX	14 x 36	56
29	IC	16 x 16	225	200	26	IXX	14 x 36	56
27	IX	16 x 16	225	248	27	IX	14 x 50	56
26	IXX	16 x 16	225	300	26	IXX	14 x 60	56
29	IC	17 x 17	225	230	29	IC	15 x 21	112
27	IX	17 x 17	225	289	27	IX	15 x 21	112
26	IXX	17 x 17	225	340	26	IXX	15 x 21	112
20	IC	18 x 18	112	138	29	IC	16 x 19	112
27	IX	18 x 18	112	168	27	IX	16 x 19	112
26	IXX	18 x 18	112	178	26	IXX	16 x 19	112
29	IC	20 x 20	112	160	29	IC	16 x 20	112
27	IX	20 x 20	112	195	27	IX	16 x 20	112
26	IXX	20 x 20	112	222	26	IXX	16 x 20	112
29	IC	22 x 22	112	190	29	IC	16 x 22	112
27	IX	22 x 22	112	235	27	IX	16 x 22	112
26	IXX	22 x 22	112	275	26	IXX	16 x 22	112
29	IC	24 x 24	112	220				
27	IX	24 x 24	112	276				
26	IXX	24 x 24	112	330				

B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.	Net Weight lbs.	B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.
28	DC	12 ¹ / ₂ x 17	100	94	23	DXXX	15 x 21	100
25	DX	12 ¹ / ₂ x 17	100	122	22	DXXXX	15 x 21	100
24	DXX	12 ¹ / ₂ x 17	100	143	29	DC	17 x 25	50
24	DXXX	12 ¹ / ₂ x 17	100	164	25	DX	17 x 25	50
22	DXXXX	12 ¹ / ₂ x 17	100	185	24	DXX	17 x 25	50
28	DC	15 x 21	100	130	23	DXXX	17 x 25	50
25	DX	15 x 21	100	180	22	DXXXX	17 x 25	50
24	DXX	15 x 21	100	213				

Terne Plates, 112 (10 x 20, IC, 80 lbs., IX 100 lbs. per box.
 sheets in a box) 14 x 20, IC, 112 lbs., IX 140 " " "
 20 x 28, IC, 234 lbs., IX 280 " " "

• Tin and Iron, 36 and 38 B. W. G., 10 x 14 and 14 x 20, 112 lbs. p

SIZES AND WEIGHTS OF ROOFING MATERIALS. 183

Slate.

Number and superficial area of slate required for one square of roof.
(1 square = 100 square feet.)

Dimensions inches.	Number per Square.	Superficial Area in Sq. Ft.	Dimensions in Inches.	Number per Square.	Superficial Area in Sq. Ft.
6x12	533	267	12x18	166	340
7x12	457	10x20	169	335
8x12	400	11x20	154
9x12	335	12x20	141
7x14	374	254	14x20	121
8x14	327	16x20	127
9x14	291	12x22	126	221
10x14	261	14x22	108
8x16	277	246	12x24	114	228
2x16	246	14x24	98
12x16	221	16x24	86
8x18	213	240	14x26	89	205
10x18	192	16x26	78

As slate is usually laid, the number of square feet of roof covered by one square can be obtained from the following formula :

$\frac{\text{width} \times (\text{length} - 3 \text{ inches})}{36}$ = the number of square feet of roof covered.

Weight of slate of various lengths and thicknesses required for one square of roof.

Length in Inches	Weight in Pounds per Square for the Thickness.							
	½"	3-16"	¼"	⅜"	½"	¾"	⅞"	1"
12	483	724	967	1450	1936	2419	2902	3372
14	460	698	920	1370	1842	2304	2760	3203
16	445	667	890	1296	1764	2220	2670	3107
18	434	650	869	1203	1710	2174	2607	3040
20	425	637	851	1276	1704	2129	2553	3008
22	418	626	836	1251	1675	2083	2508	2950
24	412	617	825	1238	1653	2060	2478	2920
26	407	610	815	1224	1631	2030	2445	2893

The weights given above are based on the number of slate required for one square of roof, taking the weight of a cubic foot of slate at 175 pounds.

Pine Shingles.

Number and weight of pine shingles required to cover one square of roof.

Number of Inches Exposed to Weather.	Number of Shingles per Square of Roof.	Weight in Pounds of Shingle on One-square of Roofs.	Remarks.
4	900	276	The number of shingles per square is for common gable-roofs. For hip-roofs add five per cent. to these figures. The weights per square are based on the number per square.
4½	800	192	
5	720	173	
5½	665	157	
6	600	144	

Skylight Glass.

The weights of various sizes and thicknesses of fluted or rough plate required for one square of roof.

Dimensions in Inches.	Thickness in Inches.	Area in Square Feet.	Weight in Lbs. per Square of Roof.
12 x 48	3-16	8.997	250
15 x 60	$\frac{1}{4}$	6.246	250
20 x 100	$\frac{3}{8}$	13.890	500
94 x 156	$\frac{1}{2}$	101.768	700

In the above table no allowance is made for lap.

If ordinary window-glass is used, single thick glass (about 1-16") will weigh about 82 lbs. per square, and double thick glass (about $\frac{1}{8}$ ") will weigh 154 lbs. per square, no allowance being made for lap. A box of ordinary window-glass contains as nearly 50 square feet as the size of the pane admit of. Panes of any size are made to order by the manufacturer, but great variety of sizes are usually kept in stock, ranging from 3 x 8 inches to 36 x 60 inches.

APPROXIMATE WEIGHTS OF VARIOUS ROOF COVERINGS.

For preliminary estimates the weights of various roof coverings are taken as tabulated below:

Name.	Weight in Lbs. per Square of Roof.
Cast-iron plates ($\frac{3}{8}$ " thick)	1500
Copper	80-125
Felt and asphalt	100
Felt and gravel	800-1000
Iron, corrugated	100-375
Iron, galvanized, flat	100-350
Lath and plaster	90-1000
Sheathing, pine, 1" thick yellow, northern ..	300
" " " " southern ..	400
Spruce, 1" thick ..	200
Sheathing, chestnut or maple, 1" thick ..	400
" " ash, hickory, or oak, 1" thick ..	500
Sheet iron (1-16" thick) ..	300
" " " and laths ..	500
Shingles, pine ..	300
Slates ($\frac{1}{4}$ " thick) ..	900
Skylights (glass 3-16" to $\frac{1}{4}$ " thick) ..	250-700
Sheet lead ..	500-900
Thatch ..	650
Tin ..	70-125
Tiles, flat ..	1500-2000
" (grooves and fillets) ..	700-1000
" pan ..	1000
" with mortar ..	2000-3000
Zinc ..	100-200

WEIGHT OF CAST-IRON PIPES OR COLUMNS.

In Lbs. per Lineal Foot.

Cast iron = 450 lbs. per cubic foot.

Thick. of Metal.	Weight per Foot.	Bore.	Thick. of Metal.	Weight per Foot.	Bore.	Thick. of Metal.	Weight per Foot.
Ins.	Lbs.	Ins.	Ins.	Lbs.	Ins.	Ins.	Lbs.
3/4	12.4	10	3/4	79.2	22	3/4	187.5
7/8	17.2	10 1/4	7/8	54.0	22 1/2	7/8	196.5
1	22.2		1	08.2	23	1	174.9
1 1/8	11.3		1 1/8	82.8		1 1/8	205.1
1 1/4	10.6	11	1 1/4	56.5	24	1 1/4	235.6
1 1/2	25.3		1 1/2	71.3		1 1/2	182.2
1 3/4	16.1		1 3/4	60.5	24 1/2	1 3/4	213.7
2	22.1	11 1/4	2	58.9		2	245.4
2 1/8	23.4		2 1/8	74.4	25	2 1/8	180.6
2 1/4	17.9		2 1/4	90.2		2 1/4	222.3
2 1/2	24.5	12	2 1/2	61.3	25 1/2	2 1/2	255.3
2 3/4	31.5		2 3/4	77.5		2 3/4	197.0
3	19.9		3	93.9	26	3	230.9
3 1/8	27.0	12 1/4	3 1/8	63.8		3 1/8	265.1
3 1/4	31.4		3 1/4	81.5	27	3 1/4	204.3
3 1/2	21.6		3 1/2	97.6		3 1/2	230.4
3 3/4	20.4	13	3 3/4	66.3	27 1/2	3 3/4	274.9
4	37.6		4	101.0		4	211.7
4 1/8	23.5		4 1/8	101.2	28	4 1/8	248.1
4 1/4	31.9	14	4 1/4	71.2		4 1/4	284.7
4 1/2	40.7		4 1/2	89.7	28 1/2	4 1/2	219.1
4 3/4	25.3		4 3/4	108.6		4 3/4	256.6
5	34.4	15	5	65.9	29	5	204.5
5 1/8	43.7		5 1/8	116.0		5 1/8	265.2
5 1/4	27.1		5 1/4	136.4	30	5 1/4	304.3
5 1/2	36.8	16	5 1/2	102.0		5 1/2	349.7
5 3/4	40.8		5 3/4	123.3	31	5 3/4	273.8
6	20.0		6	145.0		6	314.2
6 1/8	39.3	17	6 1/8	108.2		6 1/8	354.8
6 1/4	49.9		6 1/4	130.7	32	6 1/4	282.4
6 1/2	36.4		6 1/2	153.6		6 1/2	324.0
6 3/4	41.7	18	6 3/4	114.3		6 3/4	365.3
7	52.0		7	138.1	33	7	291.0
7 1/8	44.2		7 1/8	162.1		7 1/8	333.8
7 1/4	50.0	19	7 1/4	120.4		7 1/4	376.9
7 1/2	68.1		7 1/2	145.4	34	7 1/2	256.6
7 3/4	40.6		7 3/4	170.7		7 3/4	343.7
8	59.1	20	8	126.6		8	388.0
8 1/8	71.8		8 1/8	152.8	35	8 1/8	308.1
8 1/4	49.1		8 1/4	179.3		8 1/4	353.4
8 1/2	62.1	21	8 1/2	132.7		8 1/2	396.0
8 3/4	75.5		8 3/4	160.1	36	8 3/4	316.6
9	51.5		9	187.9		9	363.1
9 1/8	65.2	22	9 1/8	138.8		9 1/8	410.0

The weight of the two flanges may be reckoned = weight of one foot.

WEIGHTS OF CAST-IRON PIPE TO LAY 12 IN LENGTH.

Weights are Gross Weights, including Hub.

(Calculated by F. H. Lewis.)

Thickness.		Inside Diameter.							
Inches.	Equiv. Decimals.	4"	6"	8"	10"	12"	14"	16"	18"
$\frac{3}{8}$.375	200	304	400					
$\frac{7}{16}$.4375	228	331	435					
$\frac{1}{2}$.500	247	358	470	581				
$\frac{9}{16}$.5625	266	386	505	624	692	804		
$\frac{5}{8}$.625	286	414	541	668	744	863		
$\frac{11}{16}$.6875	306	442	577	712	795	922	1050	1177
$\frac{3}{4}$.750	327	470	613	756	846	983	1118	1254
$\frac{13}{16}$.8125		498	649	801	899	1043	1186	1332
$\frac{7}{8}$.875			686	845	951	1103	1254	1406
1	$1.$				935	1003	1163	1322	1481
$1\frac{1}{16}$	1.125				1026	1110	1285	1460	1634
$1\frac{1}{8}$	1.25					1216	1408	1598	1787
$1\frac{3}{8}$	1.375					1324	1531	1735	1937
$1\frac{1}{2}$	1.5					1432	1656	1870	2081
$1\frac{5}{8}$	1.625						1783	2021	2257
$1\frac{3}{4}$	1.75						1909	2163	2410
2	$2.$								2566
$2\frac{1}{8}$	2.125								2722
$2\frac{1}{4}$	2.25								2878
$2\frac{3}{8}$	2.375								3034

Thickness.		Inside Diameter.							
Inches.	Equiv. Decimals.	22"	24"	27"	30"	33"	36"	42"	48"
$\frac{5}{8}$.625	1709							
$\frac{11}{16}$.6875	1945	2160	2422					
$\frac{3}{4}$.750	2171	2392	2648	2934	3221	3507		
$\frac{13}{16}$.8125	2350	2565	2855	3186	3466	3846	4426	
$\frac{7}{8}$.875	2547	2760	3063	3457	3771	4105	4774	5443
1	$1.$	2735	2975	3332	3690	4048	4406	5122	5838
$1\frac{1}{16}$	1.125	2925	3180	3562	3942	4325	4708	5472	6236
$1\frac{1}{8}$	1.25	3110	3380	3827	4256	4686	5116	6076	6930
$1\frac{3}{8}$	1.375	3298	3586	4092	4570	5047	5524	6580	7432
$1\frac{1}{2}$	1.5		4439	4964	5491	6015	6540	7591	8540
$1\frac{5}{8}$	1.625			5439	6012	6584	7158	8203	9147
$1\frac{3}{4}$	1.75				6539	7159	7782	8822	9766
$1\frac{7}{8}$	1.875					7737	8405	9712	10757
2	$2.$							10468	11800
$2\frac{1}{8}$	2.125							11197	12572
$2\frac{1}{4}$	2.25								14300
$2\frac{3}{8}$	2.375								

CAST-IRON PIPE FITTINGS.

Approximate Weight.

Addyston Pipe and Steel Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.	Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.	Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.	Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.
ROSCES.		TEES.		SLEEVES.		REDUCERS.	
40		8 x 3	220	6	65	20 x 4	128
104		10	390	8	86	12 x 10	278
90		10 x 8	390	10	140	12 x 8	254
150		10 x 6	312	12	176	12 x 6	250
114		10 x 4	292	14	208	12 x 4	250
170		10 x 3	290	16	340	14 x 12	475
200		12	565	20	500	14 x 10	490
150		12 x 10	510	24	710	14 x 8	340
150		12 x 8	492	30	965	14 x 6	295
325		12 x 6	481	36	1500	16 x 12	475
265		12 x 4	460	90° ELBOWS.		16 x 10	435
265		14 x 12	650	2	14	20 x 16	690
225		14 x 10	650	3	34	20 x 14	575
510		14 x 8	575	4	48	20 x 12	540
415		14 x 6	545	5	110	20 x 8	300
398		14 x 4	525	6	145	24 x 20	745
338		14 x 3	480	8	225	30 x 24	1305
350		16	790	10	370	30 x 18	1385
700		16 x 14	850	12	450	30 x 90	1730
650		16 x 12	825	14	525	ANGLE REDUCERS FOR GAS.	
615		16 x 10	890	16	900	6 x 4	95
540		16 x 8	755	20	1400	6 x 3	80
525		16 x 6	680	1/4 or 45° BENDS.		S PIPES.	
495		16 x 4	655	8	30	4	90
750		20	1375	4	65	6	190
635		20 x 16	1115	6	85	PLUGS.	
570		20 x 12	1025	8	160	2	2
1025		20 x 10	1090	10	190	8	5
1070		20 x 8	900	12	290	4	8
1025		20 x 6	875	16	510	6	12
1010		20 x 4	845	20	740	8	26
825		21 x 10	1465	24	1425	10	46
700		24	1875	30	2000	12	66
650		24 x 12	1425	1-16 or 22 1/2° BENDS.		14	70
1790		24 x 8	1375	6	150	16	100
1370		24 x 6	1375	8	155	20	150
1225		30	3025	10	165	24	185
1000		30 x 24	2640	12	290	30	370
1000		30 x 20	2200	16	500	CAPS.	
1000		30 x 12	2085	24	1290	8	15
1000		30 x 10	2050	30	1735	11	25
2190		30 x 8	1825	REDUCERS.		6	60
2020		36	5140	3 x 2	35	8	75
1340		36 x 30	4200	4 x 3	42	10	100
2635		36 x 12	4050	4 x 2	40	12	120
2250		45° BRANCH PIPES.		6 x 4	95	DRIP BOXES.	
1995		3	90	6 x 3	80	4	235
RES.		6 x 6 x 4	145	8 x 6	136	8	355
28		8	300	8 x 4	116	10	760
76		8 x 6	290	10 x 8	110	20	1420
100		24	2765	10 x 6	150		
90		24 x 24 x 20	2145				
87		30	4170				
150		36	10800				
130		SLEEVES.					
125		3	10				
120		8	20				
265		4	44				
252							
232							

WEIGHTS OF CAST-IRON WATER- AND GAS-PIPE

(Addyston Pipe and Steel Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.)

Size in Inches.	Standard Water-Pipe.			Size in Inches.	Standard Gas-Pipe.		
	Per Foot.	Thick-ness.	Per Length.		Per Foot.	Thick-ness.	Per Length.
2	7	5-16	63	2	6	3/8	
3	15	9/16	180	3	12 1/2	5-16	
4	22	1 1/8	204	4	17	3/8	
6	33	1 3/8	264	6	30	7-16	
8	42	1 5/8	396	8	40	7-16	
10	60	2-16	730	10	50	7-16	
12	75	2-16	900	12	70	1 1/8	
14	117	3/4	1400	14	84	9-16	
16	125	3/4	1500	16	100	9-16	
18	167	3/8	2600	18	134	11-16	
20	200	15-16	2400	20	150	11-16	
24	250	1	3000	24	184	3/4	
30	350	1 1/8	4200	30	250	3/4	
36	475	1 3/8	5700	36	350	3/4	
42	600	1 5/8	7200	42	383	3/4	
48	775	1 7/8	9300	48	542	1 1/8	
60	1330	2	15900	60	900	1 3/8	

THICKNESS OF CAST-IRON PIPES.

P. H. Baermann, in a paper read before the Engineers' Club of Philadelphia in 1882, gave twenty different formulas for determining the thickness of cast-iron water-pipes under pressure. The formulas are of classes:

1. Depending upon the diameter only.
2. Those depending upon the diameter and head, and which add a constant.
3. Those depending upon the diameter and head, contain an additive subtractive term depending upon the diameter, and add a constant.

The more modern formulas are of the third class, and are as follows:

$t = .00009hd + .01d + .30$	Shedd,	No. 1
$t = .00006hd + .0139d + .996$	Warren Foundry,	No. 2
$t = .000058hd + .0132d + .812$	Francis,	No. 3
$t = .000048hd + .013d + .82$	Dupuit,	No. 4
$t = .00001hd + 1 \frac{1}{4}d + .15$	Box,	No. 5
$t = .00013hd + .4 - .0011d$	Whitman,	No. 6
$t = .00006h + 290d + .333 - .0033d$	Fanning,	No. 7
$t = .00015hd + .25 - .0052d$	Meggs,	No. 8

In which t = thickness in inches, h = head in feet, d = diameter in inches.

Rankine, "Civil Engineering," p. 721, says: "Cast-iron pipes should be made of a soft and tough quality of iron. Great attention should be paid to moulding them correctly, so that the thickness may be exactly uniform. Each pipe should be tested for air-bubbles and flaws by striking with a hammer, and for strength by exposing it to double the greatest working pressure." The rule for computing the thickness of

to resist a given working pressure is $t = \frac{rp}{f}$, where r is the radius in inches, p the pressure in pounds per square inch, and f the tenacity of the iron in pounds per square inch. When $f = 15000$, and a factor of safety of 5 is used, the expressed in terms of d and h becomes

$$t = \frac{5 \times 1.433h}{15000} = \frac{dh}{10000} = .00006dh.$$

"There are
no
the above formula."

are, however, arising from difficulties in casting by shocks, which cause the thickness to be less than the above formula."

Safe Pressures, etc., for Cast-Iron Pipe.—(Continued)

Thick- ness.	Size of Pipe.							
	32"	24"	27"	30"	33"	36"	42"	48"
	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds. Head in Feet.
11-16	40	92	30	69	18	64		
3 4	80	138	49	113	36	83		
13 16	80	184	68	157	52	109		
7-8	101	233	86	198	69	139		
15-16	121	279	105	242	85	196		
1	142	327	124	286	102	235		
1 1-8	182	419	161	371	135	311		
1 1-4	224	516	199	458	160	389		
1 3-8	237	546	202	465		
1 1-2	236	544		
1 5-8		
1 3-4		
1 7-8		
2		
2 1-8		
2 1-4		
2 1-2		
2 3-4		

NOTE.—The absolute safe static pressure which may be put upon pipe is given by the formula $P = \frac{2T}{D} \times \frac{S}{5}$, in which formula P is the pressure per square inch; T , the thickness of the shell; S , the ultimate strength per square inch of the metal in tension; and D , the inside diameter of the pipe. In the tables S is taken as 18000 pounds per square inch, with a working strain of one fifth this amount or 3600 pounds per square inch. The formula for the absolute safe static pressure then is: $P = \frac{7200T}{D}$.

It is, however, usual to allow for "water-rum" by increasing the thickness enough to provide for 100 pounds additional static pressure, and, to insure sufficient metal for good casting; and for wear and tear, a further increase equal to $.333 \left(1 - \frac{D}{100}\right)$.

The expression for the thickness then becomes:

$$T = \frac{(P+100)D}{7200} + .333 \left(1 - \frac{D}{100}\right),$$

and for safe working pressure

$$P = \frac{7200}{D} \left(T - .333 \left(1 - \frac{D}{100}\right)\right) - 100.$$

The additional section provided as above represents an increased value under static pressure for the different sizes of pipe as follows (see table in margin). So that to test the pipes up to one fifth of the ultimate strength of the material, the pressures in the marginal table should be added to the pressure-values given in the table above.

Size
of
Pipe

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1 1-8
1 1-4
1 3-8
1 1-2
1 5-8
1 3-4
1 7-8
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SHEET-IRON HYDRAULIC PIPE.

(Pelton Water-Wheel Co.)

at per foot, with safe head for various sizes of double-riveted pipe.

Size of Pipe.	Thickness of Iron by Wire Gauge.	Safe Head in Feet the Pipe will stand.	Weight of Pipe per Lineal Ft.	Diameter of Pipe.	Area of Pipe.	Thickness of Iron by Wire Gauge.	Safe Head in Feet the Pipe will stand.	Weight of Pipe per Lineal Ft.
in.	B. W. G.	feet.	lbs.	in.	sq. in.	B. G. W.	feet.	lbs.
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	165	161 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	252	201 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	385	271 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	424	30
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	505	34
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	148	18
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	227	22 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	346	30
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	380	32 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	455	36 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	135	20
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	206	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	316	32 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	347	35 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	415	40
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	188	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	290	35 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	318	39
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	379	48 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	466	54
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	175	20 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	267	30 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	294	42
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	352	47
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	432	57 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	182	31 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	247	41 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	279	45
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	327	50 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	400	61 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	231	44
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	254	48
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	304	54
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	375	65
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	7	74
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	68
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	67
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	78
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	18
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	71
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	86
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	97
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	108
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	126
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	74 $\frac{1}{2}$
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	91
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	102
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	114
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	133
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	137
18	18	254	16	18	254	18	1017	144

STANDARD PIPE FLANGES.

Adopted July 18, 1894, at a conference of committees of the Society of Mechanical Engineers, and the Master Steam and Boilers' Association, with representatives of leading manufacturers of pipe.

The list is divided into two groups; for medium and high pressure first ranging up to 75 lbs. per square inch, and the second up to

Pipe size, inches.	Pipe Thickness, $\frac{d}{P+100}$	$d + .393 \left(1 - \frac{d}{P+100}\right)$	Thickness, nearest Fraction, inches.	Stress on Pipe per square inch @ 300 lbs.	Radii of Fillet, inches.	Flange Diameter, inches.	Flange Thickness, inches.	Width Flange Face, inches.	Bolt Circle Diameter, inches.	Number of Bolts.	Bolt Diameter, inches.
2	.409	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	100	$\frac{1}{4}$	6	$\frac{3}{4}$	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 $\frac{1}{2}$.429	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	550	$\frac{1}{4}$	7	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$\frac{1}{4}$
3	.448	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	620	$\frac{1}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	4	$\frac{1}{4}$
3 $\frac{1}{2}$.466	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	700	$\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$\frac{1}{4}$
4	.486	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	800	$\frac{1}{4}$	9	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$\frac{1}{4}$
4 $\frac{1}{2}$.498	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	900	$\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8	$\frac{1}{4}$
5	.525	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1000	$\frac{1}{4}$	10	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	8	$\frac{1}{4}$
5 $\frac{1}{2}$.563	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1000	$\frac{1}{4}$	11	1	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	8	$\frac{1}{4}$
6	.60	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1120	$\frac{1}{4}$	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	8	$\frac{1}{4}$
6 $\frac{1}{2}$.639	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1280	$\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	8	$\frac{1}{4}$
8	.678	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1310	$\frac{1}{4}$	15	$\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	12	$\frac{1}{4}$
8 $\frac{1}{2}$.713	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1340	$\frac{1}{4}$	16	$\frac{3}{4}$	3	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	$\frac{1}{4}$
10	.70	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1470	$\frac{1}{4}$	19	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	$\frac{1}{4}$
12	.804	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1600	$\frac{1}{4}$	21	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	$\frac{1}{4}$
14	.904	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1600	$\frac{1}{4}$	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	16	$\frac{1}{4}$
15	.904	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1600	$\frac{1}{4}$	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	16	$\frac{1}{4}$
16	.946	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1600	$\frac{1}{4}$	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	16	$\frac{1}{4}$
18	1.02	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1600	$\frac{1}{4}$	25	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	16	$\frac{1}{4}$
20	1.09	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1780	$\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	25	20	$\frac{1}{4}$
22	1.18	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1870	$\frac{1}{4}$	29 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	$\frac{1}{4}$
24	1.25	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1920	$\frac{1}{4}$	32	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	$\frac{1}{4}$
26	1.30	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1980	$\frac{1}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	$\frac{1}{4}$
28	1.33	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	2040	$\frac{1}{4}$	36	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	$\frac{1}{4}$
30	1.48	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	2000	$\frac{1}{4}$	38	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	28	$\frac{1}{4}$
36	1.71	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1920	$\frac{1}{4}$	44 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	42 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	$\frac{1}{4}$
42	1.87	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	2100	$\frac{1}{4}$	51	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	48 $\frac{1}{4}$	36	$\frac{1}{4}$
48	2.17	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	2130	$\frac{1}{4}$	57 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	54 $\frac{1}{4}$	50	$\frac{1}{4}$

Notes.—Sizes up to 24 inches are designed for 300 lbs. or less.

Sizes from 24 to 48 inches are divided into two scales, one for high pressure and the other for low.

The sizes of bolts given are for high pressure. For medium pressure diameters are $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch less for pipes 2 to 20 inches diameter inclusive, less for larger sizes, except 48-inch pipe, for which the size of bolts is as given.

When two lines of figures occur under one heading, the single line to 24 inches are for both medium and high pressures. Beginning with 26 inches, the left-hand columns are for medium and the right-hand for high pressures.

The sudden increase in diameters at 16 inches is due to the position of wrought-iron pipe, making with a nearly constant width of flange a greater diameter desirable.

When wrought-iron pipe is used, if thinner flanges than those shown are sufficient, it is proposed that bosses be used to bring the nuts to standard lengths. This avoids the use of a reinforcement around the flange.

Figures in the third, fourth, fifth, and last columns refer only to the high pressure scale.

Draw a vertical line parallel to the edge of the flange, and on the upper side of the flange.

DIMENSIONS OF PIPE FLANGES AND CAST-IRON PIPES.

(J. E. Codman, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, 1889.)

Diameter of Flange.	Diameter of Bolt Circle.	Diameter of Bolt.	Number of Bolts.	Thickness of Flange.	Thickness of Pipe.		Weight per foot without Flange.	Weight of Pipe and Bolts.
					Frac.	Dec.		
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$.373	6.96	4.41
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	7-10	.396	11.16	5.03
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	7-10	.420	15.84	7.66
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	7-10	.443	21.00	9.43
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	15-22	.466	26.64	11.82
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	15-22	.511	30.36	16.01
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	0-16	.557	54.00	23.00
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	10-32	.603	70.56	30.13
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	21-32	.649	86.04	38.34
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	16	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	.695	109.44	47.70
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	16	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	.741	131.76	58.23
20 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	.787	150.00	70.00
22 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	27-32	.833	182.16	83.05
24 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	6-16	.879	210.24	97.42
26 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	10-16	.925	240.24	113.18
28 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	.971	272.16	130.35
30 $\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	1.017	306.00	149.00
32 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	1.063	341.76	169.17
34 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	1.109	379.44	190.90
36 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	15-32	1.155	419.04	214.30
38 $\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	15-32	1.201	460.36	239.27
40 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	34	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	0-16	1.247	504.00	265.00
42 $\frac{1}{2}$	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	34	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	15-16	1.293	549.36	294.49
44 $\frac{1}{2}$	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	36	2	11-32	1.339	596.64	324.78
46 $\frac{1}{2}$	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	2	1-16	1.385	645.84	356.94
48 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1-16	1.431	696.06	391.00

D = Diameter of pipe. All dimensions in inches.

Thickness of flange = $0.033D + 0.56$.Thickness of pipe = $0.023D + 0.327$.Weight of pipe per foot = $0.24D^2 + 3D$.Weight of flange = $.001D^2 + 0.1D^2 + D + 2$.Diameter of flange = $1.135D + 4.25$.Diameter of bolt circle = $1.092D + 2.586$.Diameter of bolt = $0.011D + 0.73$.Number of bolts = $0.78D + 2.56$.

PIPE FLANGES FOR HIGH STEAM-PRESSURE.

(Chapman Valve Mfg. Co.)

Size of Flange.	Diameter of Flange.	Number of Bolts.	Diameter of Bolts.	Diameter of Bolt Circle.	Length of Pipe-Thread
Inches.	Inches.		Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
8	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
12	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
13	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
14	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
15	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
16	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
18	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	16	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
19	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	17	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
20	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
21 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	19	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
22 $\frac{1}{2}$	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
24 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$

STANDARD SIZES, ETC., OF WROUGHT-IRON PIPE **For Water, Gas, or Steam.**

(Briggs Standard.)

Diameter of Tube.				Thickness of Metal.	Internal Circumference.	External Circumference.	Length of Pipe per Sq. Ft. of Inside Surface.	Length of Pipe per Sq. Ft. of Outside Surface.	Internal Area.
Nominal Inside.	Actual Inside.	Actual Outside.	Thickness						
Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Feet.	Feet.	Inch.	Sq. Ft.
1/8	.370	.405	.068	.848	1.372	14.15	9.44	.07	.007
1/4	.504	.540	.088	1.144	1.690	10.50	7.075	.10	.010
3/8	.641	.675	.091	1.552	2.121	7.87	5.657	.13	.013
1/2	.821	.840	.109	1.957	2.652	6.13	4.502	.16	.016
5/8	1.048	1.060	.113	2.589	3.290	4.635	3.637	.19	.019
1	1.380	1.315	.134	3.392	4.134	3.679	2.903	.22	.022
1 1/4	1.610	1.600	.140	4.395	5.215	2.768	2.201	.25	.025
1 1/2	1.880	1.860	.145	5.001	5.969	2.371	1.811	.28	.028
2	2.067	2.035	.154	6.494	7.461	1.848	1.411	.31	.031
2 1/2	2.468	2.425	.204	7.754	9.032	1.547	1.198	.34	.034
3	3.067	3.000	.217	9.636	10.996	1.245	1.031	.37	.037
3 1/2	3.548	3.460	.225	11.146	12.566	1.077	.885	.40	.040
4	4.026	3.920	.237	12.648	14.187	.940	.780	.43	.043
4 1/2	4.508	4.390	.246	14.153	15.768	.846	.705	.46	.046
5	5.015	4.880	.259	15.849	17.475	.757	.629	.49	.049
6	6.065	5.915	.290	19.054	20.818	.600	.507	.52	.052
7	7.021	6.855	.301	22.068	23.951	.544	.458	.55	.055
8	7.982	7.805	.322	25.076	27.090	.478	.414	.58	.058
9	9.000	8.815	.344	28.277	30.443	.425	.371	.61	.061
10	10.019	9.820	.366	31.475	33.772	.381	.335	.64	.064

* By the action of the Manufacturers of Wrought-iron Pipe at Tubes, at a meeting held in New York, May 9, 1889, a change in size of outside diameter of 9-inch pipe was adopted, making the latter 9.02 inches, as given in the table of Briggs standard pipe diameters.

For discussion of the Briggs Standard of Wrought-iron Pipe Diameters, see Report of the Committee of the A. S. M. E. in "Standard Pipe Threads," 1886. Trans., Vol. VII, p. 29. The figures in the next to last column are derived from the formula

$$D - (0.05D + 1.9) \times \frac{1}{n},$$

in which D = outside diameter of the tubes, and n the number of threads per inch. The figures in the last column are derived from the formula $0.8 \times \frac{1}{n} \times 2 + d$, in which d is the diameter at the bottom of the thread at the end of the pipe.

Having the taper, length of full-threaded portion, and the sizes at top and bottom of thread at the end of the pipe, as given in the table, taps can be made to secure these points correctly, the length of the full-threaded portions on the pipe, and the length the tap is run into the end of the pipe, having no effect upon the standard. The standard thread is 60°, and it is slightly rounded off at top and bottom, so that its depth being equal to its pitch, as is the case with a full V-thread, the pitch, or equal to $0.8 \times \frac{1}{n}$, n being the number of threads per inch.

SIZES, ETC., OF WROUGHT-IRON PIPE—(Continued.)

SIZES, ETC.				SCREWED ENDS.			
Length of Pipe Containing One Cubic Foot.	Weight per Foot of Length.	Contents in U. S. Gallons per Foot.	Weight of Water per Foot of Length.	Number of Threads per Inch.	Length of Perfect Screw.	Diameter of Bottom of Thread at End of Pipe.	Diameter of Top of Thread at End of Pipe.
Feet.	Lbs.		Lbs.	No.	Inch.	Inches.	Inches.
2500	243	.0006	.005	27	.19	.394	.393
1385	422	.0026	.021	13	.29	.433	.432
751.5	561	.0057	.047	10	.30	.567	.566
472.4	845	.0102	.085	14	.39	.701	.701
270	1,135	.0230	.190	14	.40	.811	1.025
166.9	1,670	.0408	.340	11½	.51	1.144	1.283
90.25	2,254	.0698	.527	11½	.54	1.488	1.627
70.65	2,624	.0918	.760	11½	.55	1.727	1.866
42.86	3,667	.1032	1.56	11½	.58	2.2	2.330
30.11	5,173	.2550	2.116	8	.80	2.62	2.82
19.49	7,547	.3673	3.040	8	.95	3.211	3.441
14.56	9,055	.4998	4.155	8	1.00	3.738	3.934
11.31	10,724	.6528	5.405	8	1.05	4.235	4.435
9.03	12,492	.8263	6.851	8	1.10	4.732	4.932
7.23	14,564	1.020	8.500	8	1.16	5.291	5.491
4.98	18,797	1.469	12.312	8	1.26	6.340	6.540
3.72	23,410	2.000	16.092	8	1.36	7.34	7.54
2.88	28,348	2.611	21.750	8	1.46	8.334	8.534
2.26	34,077	3.300	27.500	8	1.57	9.39	9.59
1.81	40,641	4.081	34.000	8	1.68	10.445	10.645

of conical tube ends, 1 in 32 to axis of tube = $\frac{3}{4}$ inch to the foot

and below are butt-welded, and proved to 300 pounds per square inch

pressure.

and above are lap-welded, and proved to 500 pounds per square

pressure.

SIZES ABOVE 10 INCHES.

(Morris, Tasker & Co., Limited.)

Actual Inside Diameter.	Actual Outside Diameter.	Thickness.	Internal Circumference.	External Circumference.	Internal Area.	External Area.	Length of Pipe per sq. ft. of Inside Surface.	Length of Pipe per sq. ft. of Outside Surface.	Length of Pipe containing 1 cubic foot.	Weight per foot of Length.
in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	sq. in.	sq. in.	ft.	ft.	ft.	lbs.
12	12.388	.35	37.70	38.40	113.10	134.10	.340	.318	1.455	47.53
13	13.41	.38	39.26	40.84	116.51	139.73	.313	.293	1.235	54.66
14	14.432	.41	41.25	43.08	134.58	153.94	.290	.273	1.009	61.91
15	15.454	.44	43.25	45.12	155.97	176.72	.271	.254	.823	70.01
16	16.476	.47	45.27	50.25	177.87	201.06	.254	.238	.689	78.27
17	17.498	.50	47.28	53.41	201.10	225.28	.239	.225	.571	87.12
18	18.520	.53	49.28	56.55	225.10	251.47	.225	.212	.488	96.38
19	19.542	.56	51.28	59.69	252.10	283.53	.213	.201	.411	106.07
20	20.564	.59	53.28	62.83	279.72	314.16	.202	.191	.345	116.21
21	21.586	.62	55.29	65.07	308.77	346.36	.192	.183	.286	126.76

WROUGHT-IRON WELDED TUBES, EXTRA STRONG Standard Dimensions.

Nominal Diameter.	Actual Out-side Diameter.	Thickness, Extra Strong.	Thickness, Double Extra Strong.	Actual Inside Diameter, Extra Strong.	Actual Inside Diameter, Double Extra Strong.
Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
$\frac{1}{8}$	0.405	0.100	0.205
$\frac{1}{4}$	0.51	0.123	0.294
$\frac{3}{8}$	0.673	0.127	0.421
$\frac{1}{2}$	0.84	0.149	0.298	0.542	0.404
$\frac{5}{8}$	1.05	0.157	0.311	0.736	0.498
1	1.315	0.182	0.364	0.951	0.595
$1\frac{1}{4}$	1.66	0.194	0.388	1.272	0.794
$1\frac{1}{2}$	1.9	0.203	0.406	1.491	1.000
2	2.375	0.221	0.442	1.933	1.400
$2\frac{1}{2}$	2.875	0.280	0.500	2.315	1.700
3	3.5	0.301	0.608	2.892	2.200
$3\frac{1}{2}$	4.0	0.321	0.642	3.353	2.700
4	4.5	0.341	0.682	3.818	3.100

STANDARD SIZES, ETC., OF LAP-WELDED CHAMFERED COAL-IRON BOILER-TUBES.

(Morris, Tasker & Co., Limited).

External Diameter.	Internal Diameter.	Standard Thickness.	Internal Circumference.	External Circumference.	Internal Area.	External Area.	Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Inside Surface.	Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Outside Surface.	Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Inside Surface.	Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Outside Surface.	
Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Sq. In.	Sq. Ft.	Sq. In.	Sq. Ft.	Pt.	Pt.	
1 1/4	1.066	0.072	3.389	3.142	1.075	0.04	1.785	0.005	4.460	3.819	4.129
1 1/2	1.166	0.072	3.174	2.927	1.227	0.05	1.883	0.005	3.435	3.068	3.266
1 3/4	1.334	0.085	4.191	4.112	1.395	0.07	1.767	0.012	2.363	3.237	3.780
2	1.560	0.095	4.901	4.698	1.911	0.133	2.465	0.017	2.448	2.185	2.510
2 1/4	1.804	0.098	5.667	5.283	2.550	0.177	3.142	0.018	2.118	1.909	2.010
2 1/2	1.964	0.098	6.184	5.809	3.314	0.250	3.976	0.020	1.850	1.698	1.751
2 3/4	2.293	0.09	7.172	6.854	4.094	0.284	4.909	0.021	1.673	1.528	1.606
3	2.533	0.09	7.967	7.439	5.009	0.351	5.910	0.012	1.508	1.390	1.449
3 1/4	2.783	0.09	8.433	7.823	6.062	0.422	7.060	0.0491	1.375	1.273	1.335
3 1/2	3.012	0.119	9.462	8.010	7.125	0.495	8.296	0.0570	1.298	1.175	1.225
3 3/4	3.262	0.119	10.248	8.997	8.337	0.558	9.621	0.0658	1.171	1.091	1.132
4	3.512	0.119	11.033	10.181	9.687	0.673	11.045	0.0767	1.088	1.018	1.053
4 1/4	3.741	0.130	11.733	10.667	10.982	0.753	12.560	0.0772	1.053	955	990
4 1/2	4.011	0.130	12.522	11.157	12.126	0.981	15.394	0.1104	901	819	850
4 3/4	4.279	0.140	13.378	11.708	17.497	1.215	19.637	0.1364	809	704	740
5	4.599	0.151	14.303	12.419	25.300	1.771	28.274	0.1963	670	587	623
5 1/4	4.857	0.172	15.214	13.091	31.805	2.217	38.484	0.2573	574	485	517
5 1/2	5.136	0.182	16.209	13.832	45.735	3.118	56.265	0.3490	500	478	493
5 3/4	5.411	0.195	17.185	14.671	58.201	4.018	63.617	0.4415	444	431	438
6	5.729	0.214	18.174	15.610	71.975	4.998	78.510	0.5456	399	383	391
6 1/4	6.060	0.22	19.178	16.577	87.479	6.075	95.437	0.6601	361	347	354
6 1/2	6.399	0.229	20.214	17.699	103.742	7.295	113.997	0.7854	330	318	324
6 3/4	6.724	0.238	21.245	18.810	123.187	8.534	132.792	0.9217	305	294	300
7	7.044	0.248	22.414	19.982	143.189	9.943	153.509	1.069	282	272	278
7 1/4	7.382	0.259	23.625	21.274	164.718	11.478	175.715	1.2274	263	254	260
7 1/2	7.718	0.271	24.862	22.655	187.667	1.3032	201.662	1.398	247	238	243
7 3/4	8.062	0.284	26.162	24.107	212.227	1.4788	229.080	1.5762	232	224	230
8	8.410	0.292	27.514	25.648	238.224	1.6548	258.469	1.7617	219	212	218
8 1/4	8.760	0.3	28.916	26.980	265.983	1.8463	288.359	1.959	207	200	206
8 1/2	9.110	0.32	30.341	28.482	294.373	2.0433	318.159	2.1617	197	189	195
8 3/4	9.460	0.34	31.837	29.973	324.311	2.2522	348.561	2.4033	183	181	186

In estimating the effective steam heating or boiler surface of tubes, the contact with air or gases of combustion, whether internal or external to the tubes, is to be taken into account by steam, superheating steam, or transferring heat to the fluid surface of the tubes is to be taken.

and the square feet of surface, S , in a tube of a given length, L , in feet, diameter, d , in inches, multiply the length in feet by the diameter in inches and by .2618. Or, $S = \frac{3.1416dL}{12} = .2618dL$. For the diameters in the table below, multiply the length in feet by the figures given opposite the diameter.

Di- ameter.	Square Feet per Foot Length.	Inches, Diameter.	Square Feet per Foot Length.	Inches, Diameter.	Square Feet per Foot Length.
14	.0654	2 1/4	.5800	5	1.3090
12	.1300	2 1/2	.6345	6	1.5708
10	.1963	2 3/4	.7199	7	1.8326
8	.2618	3	.7854	8	2.0944
6	.3272	3 1/4	.8508	9	2.3562
4	.3927	3 1/2	.9163	10	2.6180
3	.4581	3 3/4	.9817	11	2.8798
2	.5236	4	1.0472	12	3.1416

RIVETED IRON PIPE.

(Abendroth & Root Mfg. Co.)

Sheets punched and rolled, ready for riveting, are packed in convenient lots for shipment. The following table shows the iron and rivets required for punched and formed sheets.

Number Square Feet of Iron required to make 100 linear feet Punched and Formed Sheets when put together.			Number Square Feet of Iron required to make 100 linear feet Punched and Formed Sheets when put together.			Approximate No. of Rivets 1 Inch apart required per 100 feet Punched and Formed Sheets.	
Width of Lap in Inches.	Square Feet.	Approximate No. of Rivets 1 Inch apart required per 100 feet Punched and Formed Sheets.	Diam- eter in Inches.	Width of Lap in Inches.	Square Feet.	Approximate No. of Rivets 1 Inch apart required per 100 feet Punched and Formed Sheets.	
1	90	1,600	14	1 1/2	397	2,800	
1	116	1,700	15	1 1/2	423	2,600	
1 1/2	150	1,800	16	1 1/2	452	3,000	
1 1/2	178	1,900	18	1 1/2	506	3,200	
1 1/2	206	2,000	20	1 1/2	562	3,500	
1 1/2	234	2,200	22	1 1/2	617	3,700	
1 1/2	258	2,300	24	1 1/2	670	3,900	
1 1/2	289	2,400	26	1 1/2	725	4,100	
1 1/2	314	2,500	28	1 1/2	779	4,400	
1 1/2	343	2,600	30	1 1/2	836	4,600	
1 1/2	369	2,700	36	1 1/2	998	5,300	

**WEIGHT OF ONE SQUARE FOOT OF SHEET-IRON
FOR RIVETED PIPE.****Thickness by the Birmingham Wire-Gauge.**

Thick- ness in Decimals of an Inch.	Weight in lbs., Black.	Weight in lbs., Galvan- ized.	No of Gauge.	Thick- ness in Decimals of an Inch.	Weight in lbs., Black.	Weight in lbs., Galvan- ized.
.018	.73	.94	18	.019	1.97	2.19
.022	.88	1.13	16	.025	2.61	2.82
.029	1.12	1.38	14	.031	3.33	3.52
.035	1.40	1.69	12	.109	4.37	4.50

SPIRAL RIVETED PIPE.

(Abendroth & Root Mfg. Co.)

Thickness. B. W. G. No.	Inches.	Diam- eter, Inches.	Approximate Weight in lbs. per foot in Length.	Approximate ing Pressure per sq. in.
26	.018	3 to 6	lbs. =	
24	.022	3 to 12	" = $\frac{1}{2}$ of diam. in ins.	
22	.028	3 to 14	" = .4	
20	.035	3 to 24	" = .5	2700 lbs. + dia.
18	.049	3 to 24	" = .6	3600 " + "
16	.065	6 to 24	" = .8	4800 " + "
14	.083	8 to 24	" = 1.1	6400 " + "

The above are black pipes. Galvanized weighs from 10 to 30 lb heavier. Double Galvanized Spiral Riveted Flanged Pressure Pipe to 150 lbs. hydraulic pressure.

Inside diameters, inches.....	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	18	20	24
Thickness, B. W. G.....	20	20	20	18	18	18	18	16	16	16	16	14	14	14	14	14	12
Nominal weight per foot, lbs....	2 1/4	3	4	5	6	7	8	11	12	14	15	20	22	24	28	32	40

DIMENSIONS OF SPIRAL PIPE FITTINGS.
Dimensions in Inches.

Inside Diameter.	Outside Diameter Flanges.	Number Bolt Holes.	Diameter Bolt Holes.	Diameter Circles on which Bolt Holes are Drilled.	Size of Bolt
Ins.					
3	7	4	1 1/2	4 3/4	7-16
4	7	8	1 1/2	5 15-16	7-16
5	8	8	1 1/2	6 15-16	7-16
6	8 7/8	8	1 5/8	7 7/8	7-16
7	10	8	1 5/8	9	7-16
8	11	8	1 5/8	10	7-16
9	13	8	1 5/8	11 1/4	7-16
10	14	8	1 5/8	12 1/4	7-16
11	15	12	1 5/8	13 3/8	7-16
12	16	12	1 5/8	14 1/4	7-16
13	17	12	1 5/8	15 1/4	7-16
14	17 3/8	12	1 5/8	16 1/4	7-16
15	19	12	1 5/8	17 7-16	7-16
16	21 3-16	12	1 5/8	19 1/4	7-16
18	23 1/4	16	1 1-16	21 3/4	7-16
20	25 1/8	16	1 1-16	23 1/4	7-16

SEAMLESS BRASS TUBE. IRON-PIPE SIZE

(Randolph & Clowes).

(For actual dimensions see tables of Wrought-Iron Pipe.)

Nominal Size.	Weight per Foot, lbs.	Nom- inal Size.	Weight per Foot, lbs.	Nom- inal Size.	Weight per Foot, lbs.	Nom- inal Size.
1/2	.260	3/4	1 .238	2	4	4
3/4	.461	1	1 .337	2 1/2	6 .321	5
1	.617	1 1/4	2 .468	3	8 .396	6
		1 1/2	3 .015	3 1/2	9 .878	7
						8

SEAMLESS DRAWN BRASS-TUBING.

(Randolph & Clowes, Waterbury, Conn.)

diameter 3-16 to $7\frac{1}{4}$ inches. Thickness of walls 8 to 25 Stubbs' or 12 feet. The following are the standard sizes:

SEAMLESS DRAWN BRASS-TUBING.

Length Feet.	Stubbs' or Old Gauge.	Outside Diam- eter.	Length Feet.	Stubbs' or Old Gauge.	Outside Diam- eter.	Length Feet.	Stubbs' or Old Gauge.
12	20	$1\frac{1}{8}$	12	14	$2\frac{5}{8}$	12	11
12	19	$1\frac{1}{4}$	12	14	$2\frac{3}{4}$	12	11
12	19	$1\frac{1}{2}$	12	13	3	12	11
12	18	$1\frac{3}{4}$	12	13	$3\frac{1}{4}$	12	11
12	18	1 13-16	12	13	$3\frac{1}{2}$	12	11
12	17	$1\frac{7}{8}$	12	12	4	10 to 12	11
12	17	1 15-16	12	12	5	10 to 12	11
12	17	2	12	12	$5\frac{1}{4}$	10 to 12	11
12	17	$2\frac{1}{8}$	12	12	$5\frac{1}{2}$	10 to 12	11
12	16	$2\frac{1}{4}$	12	12	$5\frac{3}{4}$	10 to 12	11
12	16	$2\frac{3}{8}$	12	12	6	10 to 12	11
12	15	$2\frac{1}{2}$	12	11			

COILED PIPES.

(National Pipe-bending Co., New Haven, Conn.)

OF STEEL OR IRON PIPE ; WELDED LENGTHS.

Inches diameter of coil contain- ing pipe and less. Inches diameter of coils over 24 inches over 200 feet.	Butt-welded Pipe.						Lap- welded Pipe.	
	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2
2	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	6	8	12	18
7	7	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	11	14	18		

OF SEAMLESS DRAWN BRASS AND COPPER TUBING.

Outside diam. Ins.	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	4	6	7	8	10	12	14	16	18
Ins.	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	2	3	4	6	7	8	10	12	14	16	18	

solid drawn-steel tubes, imported by P. S. Justice & Co., Phila-
delphia, in sizes from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, varying
with thickness of walls from 1-16 to 1-16 inches. The maxi-
mum length 15 feet.

WEIGHT OF BRASS, COPPER, AND ZINC IN PER FOOT.

Thickness by Brown & Sharpe's Gauge.

Brass, No. 17.		Brass, No. 20.		Copper, Lightning rod No. 23.	
Inch.	Lbs.	Inch.	Lbs.	Inch.	
$\frac{1}{4}$.107	$\frac{1}{4}$.082	$\frac{1}{4}$	
$\frac{5}{16}$.157	$\frac{3}{16}$.090	$\frac{5}{16}$	
$\frac{3}{8}$.185	$\frac{1}{2}$.063	$\frac{3}{8}$	
$\frac{7}{16}$.234	$\frac{5}{16}$.106	$\frac{11}{16}$	
$\frac{1}{2}$.206	$\frac{3}{8}$.126	$\frac{3}{4}$	
$\frac{9}{16}$.318	$\frac{7}{16}$.158		
$\frac{5}{8}$.333	$\frac{1}{2}$.189		
$\frac{3}{4}$.377	$\frac{9}{16}$.208		
$\frac{7}{8}$.402	$\frac{5}{8}$.220		
1	.542	$\frac{3}{4}$.252		
$1\frac{1}{8}$.675	$\frac{7}{8}$.284		
$1\frac{1}{4}$.740	1	.378		
$1\frac{3}{8}$.915	$1\frac{1}{4}$.500		
$1\frac{1}{2}$.940	$1\frac{3}{8}$.580		
2	1.90				
$2\frac{1}{2}$	1.508				
3	2.188				

Zinc, No. 24

LEAD PIPE IN LENGTHS OF 10 FEET.

In.	3-8 Thick.		5-16 Thick.		$\frac{1}{4}$ Thick.		3-16
	lb.	oz.	lb.	oz.	lb.	oz.	lb.
$2\frac{1}{2}$	17	0	11	0	11	0	9
3	20	0	16	0	12	0	9
$3\frac{1}{2}$	22	0	18	0	15	0	9
4	25	0	21	0	16	0	12
$4\frac{1}{2}$					18	0	16
5	31	0			20	0	

LEAD WASTE-PIPE.

$1\frac{1}{2}$ in., 2 lbs. per foot.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ in., 4 lbs. per foot.
2 " 3 and 4 lbs. per foot.	4 " 5, 6, and 8 lbs.
3 " $3\frac{1}{2}$ and 5 lbs. per foot.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ " 6 and 8 lbs.
	5 in., 8, 10, and 12 lbs.

LEAD AND TIN TUBING.

$\frac{1}{8}$ inch.

$\frac{1}{4}$ inch.

SHEET LEAD.

Weight per square foot, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 3, $3\frac{1}{2}$, 4, $4\frac{1}{2}$, 5, 6, 8, 10 lbs. and other weights rolled to order.

BLOCK-TIN PIPE.

$\frac{3}{4}$ in., $4\frac{1}{2}$, $6\frac{1}{2}$, and 8 oz. per foot.	1 in., 15 and 18 oz. per foot.
$\frac{1}{2}$ " " " "	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " 14 and 16 lbs.
$\frac{3}{8}$ " " " "	$1\frac{3}{4}$ " 2 and $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.
$\frac{1}{4}$ " " " "	2 " $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 lbs.

LEAD AND TIN-LINED LEAD PIPE.

(Tatham & Bros., New York.)

Letter.	Weight per Foot and Rod.	Thickness in 1-foot Rod.	Calibre.	Letter.	Weight per Foot and Rod.	Thickness in 1-foot Rod.
E	7 lbs. per rod	8	1 in.	E	1½ lbs. per foot	10
D	10 oz. per foot	8	"	D	2 " "	11
C	12 " "	12	"	C	2½ " "	11
B	1 lb. " "	12	"	B	3 " "	17
A	1½ " "	16	"	A	3½ " "	21
AA	1½ " "	19	"	AA	4 " "	24
AAA	1½ " "	27	"	AAA	4½ " "	30
	13 oz. " "	13½ in.		E	2 " "	10
E	1 lb. " "	7	"	D	2½ " "	11
D	¾ lb. per foot	9	"	C	3 " "	16
C	1 " "	11	"	B	3½ " "	19
B	1½ " "	13	"	A	4 " "	25
A	1½ " "	16	1½ in.	AA	4½ " "	
AA	2 " "	19	"	AAA	5 " "	
AAA	2½ " "	23	"	E	3 " "	12
	3 " "	25	"	D	3½ " "	14
E	12 " per rod	8	"	C	4 " "	17
D	1 " per foot	9	"	B	4½ " "	19
C	1½ " "	13	"	A	5 " "	23
B	2 " "	16	1½ in.	AA	5½ " "	27
A	2½ " "	20	"	AAA	6 " "	
AA	3 " "	22	"	E	4 " "	13
AAA	3½ " "	25	"	D	4½ " "	17
	1 " per foot	8	2 in.	C	5 " "	21
E	1½ " "	10	"	B	5½ " "	27
D	2 " "	12	"	A	6 " "	15
C	2½ " "	16	"	AA	6½ " "	18
B	3 " "	20	"	AAA	7 " "	22
A	3½ " "	23	"			
AAA	4 " "	27	"			

WEIGHT OF LEAD PIPE WHICH SHOULD BE USED FOR A GIVEN HEAD OF WATER.

(Tatham & Bros., New York.)

Pressure per sq. inch.	Calibre and Weight per Foot.					
	Letter.	¾ inch.	½ inch.	¾ inch.	1 inch.	1½ in.
15 lbs.	D	10 oz.	¾ lb.	1 lb.	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.
25 lbs.	C	12 oz.	1 lb.	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.	2½ lbs.
35 lbs.	B	1 lb.	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.	2½ lbs.	3 lbs.
50 lbs.	A	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.	2½ lbs.	3 lbs.	3½ lbs.
75 lbs.	AA	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.	2½ lbs.	3 lbs.	3½ lbs.
100 lbs.	AAA	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.	2½ lbs.	3 lbs.	3½ lbs.

Find the thickness of lead pipe required when the head of water is given. (Chadwick Lead Works.)

1.—Multiply the head in feet by size of pipe wanted, expressed decimal, and divide by 750; the quotient will give thickness required, in one-hundredth of an inch.

2.—Required thickness of half-inch pipe for a head of 25 feet.

$$25 \times 0.50 \div 750 = 0.16 \text{ inch.}$$

WEIGHT OF COPPER AND BRASS WIRE AND PLATES.

Brown & Sharpe's Gauge.

(From tables of leading manufacturers.)

No.	Size of Each No.	Weight of Wire per 1000 Lineal Feet.		Weight of Plates per Square Foot.		No. of Gauge.	Size of Each No.	Weight of Wire per 1,000 Lineal Feet.		Weight of Plates per Square Foot.	
		Copper.	Brass.	Copper.	Brass.			Copper.	Brass.	Copper.	Brass.
0000	Inch.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	21	Inch.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
0000	.48000	640.5	605.28	20.84	19.69		.028462	2.45	2.317	1.29	1.22
000	.40664	508.0	479.91	18.55	17.53	22	.025347	1.94	1.838	1.15	1.06
00	.36480	402.0	380.77	16.52	15.61	23	.022571	1.54	1.457	1.02	.966
0	.32470	319.5	301.82	14.72	13.90	24	.020000	1.22	1.155	.911	.860
1	.28930	253.3	239.45	13.10	12.38	25	.017900	.969	.916	.811	.766
2	.25603	200.9	189.82	11.67	11.03	26	.016194	.789	.757	.682	.652
3	.22642	159.8	150.52	10.39	9.82	27	.014795	.619	.576	.513	.484
4	.20131	126.4	119.48	9.25	8.74	28	.013611	.484	.457	.378	.351
5	.18194	100.2	94.67	8.24	7.79	29	.01257	.383	.362	.270	.242
6	.16302	79.46	75.08	7.34	6.93	30	.011625	.304	.287	.228	.204
7	.14438	63.01	59.55	6.54	6.18	31	.010828	.241	.228	.181	.162
8	.12849	49.98	47.22	5.82	5.50	32	.010150	.191	.181	.143	.131
9	.11443	39.64	37.44	5.18	4.90	33	.009580	.152	.143	.114	.106
10	.10189	31.43	29.69	4.62	4.36	34	.009104	.120	.114	.090	.085
11	.090742	24.92	23.55	4.11	3.89	35	.008614	.090	.0915	.075	.070
12	.080908	19.77	18.98	3.66	3.48	36	.008200	.0715	.0715	.058	.054
13	.072411	15.49	14.81	3.26	3.10	37	.007844	.058	.058	.048	.044

WEIGHT OF ROUND BOLT COPPER.

Per Foot.

	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.
	.495	1	3.02	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	7.99
	.756	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.83	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	9.27
	1.18	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	4.72	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.64
	1.70	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.72	2	12.10
	2.31	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	6.81		

WEIGHT OF SHEET AND BAR BRASS.

Sheets or B.	Sheets per sq. ft.	Square Bars 1 ft. long.	Round Bars 1 ft. long.	Thickness, Side or Diam.	Sheets per sq. ft.	Square Bars 1 ft. long.	Round Bars 1 ft. long.
				Inches.			
	2.72	.014	.011	1 1-16	46.32	4.10	3.22
	5.15	.050	.045	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	46.05	4.59	3.61
	8.17	.128	.100	1 3-16	51.77	5.12	4.02
	10.90	.227	.178	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	54.50	5.67	4.45
	13.02	.335	.278	1 5-16	57.22	6.26	4.91
	16.35	.510	.401	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	59.95	6.86	5.39
	19.07	.695	.546	1 7-16	62.67	7.50	5.89
	21.80	.907	.712	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	65.40	8.16	6.41
	24.52	1.15	.902	1 9-16	68.12	8.80	6.95
	27.25	1.42	1.11	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	70.85	9.59	7.53
	29.07	1.72	1.35	1 11-16	73.57	10.34	8.12
	32.70	2.04	1.60	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	76.30	11.12	8.73
	35.42	2.40	1.88	1 13-16	79.02	11.93	9.36
	38.15	2.78	2.18	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	81.75	12.76	10.01
	40.87	3.19	2.50	1 15-16	84.47	13.63	10.70
	43.00	3.63	2.85	2	87.20	14.52	11.40

POSITION OF VARIOUS GRADES OF ROLLED BRASS, ETC.

Trade Name.	Copper	Zinc.	Tin.	Lead.	Nickel.
Common high brass.	61.5	38 $\frac{1}{2}$			
Spinning metal.	60	40			
Large brass.	66 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$			
Brass.	80	20			
Brass.	60	40		1 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Red.	60	40		1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2	
Brass.	66 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$		1 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Cent German silver.	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$			18

Above table was furnished by the superintendent of a mill in Connecticut in 1894. He says: While each mill has its own proportions for various grades, depending upon the purposes for which the product is intended, the figures given are about the average standard. Thus, between cartridge brass with 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent zinc and common high brass with 38 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent zinc there are any number of different mixtures known generally as "high brass" or specifically as "spinning brass," "drawing brass," etc., wherein the amount of zinc is dependent upon the amount of scrap used in the mixing and the degree of working to which the metal is to be subjected, etc.

AMERICAN STANDARD SIZES OF DROP-SHOT

	Diameter.	No. of Shot to the oz.		Diameter.	No. of Shot to the oz.		Diam- eter.
Fine Dust.	3-100"	10784	No. 8	Trap Shot	472	No. 9...	15-100
Dust.....	4-100	4505	" 8	9-100"	399	" 1...	16-100
No. 12.....	5-100	2326	" 7	Trap Shot	338	" B...	17-100
" 11.....	6-100	1345	" 7	10-100"	291	" BB...	18-100
" 10.....	Trap Shot	1066	" 6	11-100	218	" BBB...	19-100
" 10.....	7-100"	848	" 5	12-100	168	" T...	20-100
" 9.....	Trap Shot	688	" 4	13-100	132	" TT...	21-100
" 9.....	8-100"	568	" 3	14-100	103	" F...	22-100
						" FF...	23-100

COMPRESSED BUCK-SHOT.

	Diameter.	No. of Balls to the lb.		Diameter.	No. of lb.
No. 3	25-100"	254	No. 00.....	34-100"	
" 2.....	27-100	232	" 000.....	34-100	
" 1.....	30-100	173	Balls.....	38-100	
" 0.....	32-100	140	"	44-100	

SCREW-THREADS, SELLERS OR U. S. STANDARD.

In 1894 a committee of the Franklin Institute recommended the use of the system of screw-threads and bolts which was devised by Mr. V. Sellers, of Philadelphia. This same system was subsequently adopted by the standard by both the Army and Navy Departments of the United States and by the Master Mechanics' and Master Car Builders' Association, so that it may now be regarded, and in fact is called, the United States Standard.

The rule given by Mr. Sellers for proportioning the thread is as follows: Divide the pitch, or, what is the same thing, the side of the thread into eight equal parts; take off one part from the top and fill in one part at the bottom of the thread; then the flat top and bottom will equal one-eighth of the pitch, the wearing surface will be three quarters of the pitch, and the diameter of screw at bottom of the thread will be expressed by the formula

$$\text{diameter of bolt} = \frac{1.000}{\text{no. threads per inch}}$$

For a sharp V thread with angle of 60° the formula is

$$\text{diameter of bolt} = \frac{1.733}{\text{no. of threads per inch}}$$

The angle of the thread in the Sellers system is 60°. In the White-English system it is 55°, and the point and root of the thread are equal.

Screw-Threads, United States Standard.

Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.
1/4	20	3/4	10	1 1/2	7	1 15-16	5	2 13-16
5-16	18	7-16	10	1 5-16	6	2	4 1/2	3
3/8	16	9-16	9	1 3/8	6	2 1/4	4 1/2	3 1/2
7-16	14	11-16	8	1 1/2	6	2 5-16	4 1/2	3 5-16
5-16	12	1 1-16	7	1 3/4	5 1/2	2 3/4	4 1/2	3 3/4
			7	1 3/8	5	2 1/2	4	3 1/4
				1 1/4		2 1/4		

Screw-Threads, Whitworth (English) Standard.

Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.
20	$\frac{5}{8}$	11	1	8	$1\frac{3}{8}$	5	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$
18	$1\frac{1}{8}$	11	$1\frac{1}{8}$	7	$1\frac{7}{8}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$
16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10	$1\frac{1}{4}$	7	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{8}$	$2\frac{3}{8}$	$3\frac{1}{8}$
14	$1\frac{1}{2}$	10	$1\frac{3}{8}$	6	$1\frac{1}{4}$	4	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3
12	$\frac{5}{8}$	9	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{8}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$
12	$1\frac{1}{2}$	9	$1\frac{3}{8}$	5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$	4	8

U. S. OR SELLERS SYSTEM OF SCREW-THREADS.

FLATS AND THREADS.				HEX. NUTS AND HEADS.											
Threads Per Inch.	Diam. of Root of Thread	Width of Flat.	Area of Bolt Body in Sq. Inches.	Area at Root of Thread in Sq. Inches.	Short Diam., Rough.		Short Diam., Finish.		Long Diam., Rough.		Thickness, Rough.		Thickness, Finish.		Long Diam. Sq. Nuts Rough.
					Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.			
18	.393	.0062	.049	.027	14	7-10			37-64	14		3-10			7-10
16	.310	.0074	.077	.045		10-32	17-32		11-16		5-10	14			10-32
14	.294	.0078	.110	.053		11-16	9		51-64	5-16		14			63-64
12	.311	.0089	.150	.093		25-32	23-32		9-10		7-16	56			17-64
10	.400	.0096	.196	.126	7	13-10	15-16		1		7-16	14			115-64
8	.454	.0104	.249	.162		31-32	29-32		14		9-16	14			123-64
6	.507	.0113	.307	.202	11-16	1		1-2	32		9-16	14			116
5	.529	.0125	.412	.302	13		18-16		1-7-16	32		11-16			149-64
4	.731	.0128	.601	.420	17-16	13		1-21-32		28		13-16			21-32
3	.887	.0156	.785	.552	15	10-16		1-7		1		15-16			210-64
2	.940	.0178	.992	.694	13-10	13		1-11-16	116			11-16			25-16
1	1.063	.0178	1.227	.803	2	1-15-16		2-5-16	116			13-16			253-64
	1.160	.0208	1.425	1.057	2-16	21		2-17-32	13			15-16			33-32
	1.284	.0208	1	1.205	3-16	23		3-13-32	119			17-16			323-64
	1.389	.0227	2.074	1.515	2-10	21		2-31-32	14			19-16			386
	1.491	.0250	2.405	1.746	2-11-10	23		3-3-16	13			11-16			357-64
	1.616	.0250	2.761	2.051	2-15-10	23		3-13-32	178			11-16			45-32
	1.712	.0277	3.142	2.392	31	3-1-16		39	2			115-16			427-64
	1.964	.0277	3.976	3.033	31	3-7-16		2-1-16	214			2-3-10			461-64
	2.176	.0312	4.909	3.712	37	3-13-16		416	219			2-7-16			513-64
	2.426	.0312	5.840	4.620	43	4-3-16		4-20-32	23			2-11-16			6
	2.629	.0357	7.009	5.428	45	4-9-16		53	3			2-15-16			617-32
	2.729	.0357	8.226	6.300	5	4-15-16		5-13-16	314			3-3-10			7-1-16
	3.100	.0384	9.621	7.548	57	5-5-16		6-7-64	312			3-7-10			739-64
	3.317	.0413	11.045	8.641	59	5-11-16		6-21-32	33			3-11-10			814
	3.567	.0413	12.566	9.938	61	6-1-16		7-3-32	4			3-15-16			841-64
	3.728	.0435	14.186	11.329	63	6-7-16		7-9-16	414			4-3-16			92-16
	4.023	.0454	15.904	12.743	67	6-13-16		7-31-32	416			4-7-16			934
	4.259	.0476	17.721	14.226	71	7-9-16		8-13-32	431			4-11-16			1014
	4.480	.0500	19.635	15.763	75	7-9-16		8-27-32	5			4-15-16			1049-64
	4.730	.0500	21.648	17.528	8	7-15-16		9-9-32	514			5-3-16			1123-64
	4.953	.0529	24.738	19.507	82	8-5-16		9-23-32	516			5-7-16			1174
	5.203	.0536	25.967	21.262	84	8-11-16		10-5-32	52			5-11-16			1236
	5.423	.0555	28.274	23.008	86	9-1-16		10-19-32	6			5-15-16			1275-64

7 GAUGES FOR IRON FOR SCREW THREADS.

Using the Sellers, or Franklin Institute, or United States Standard, rough called, a difficulty arose from the fact that it is the habit of manufacturers to make iron over-size, and as there are no over-size

STANDARD SET-SCREWS AND CAP-SCREWS.

American, Hartford, and Worcester Machine-Screw Companies.
(Compiled by W. S. Dix.)

	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)
Diameter of Screw....	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{7}{16}$
Threads per Inch....	40	32	20	18	16	14
Size of Tap Drill*....	No. 43	No. 30	No. 5	17-64	21-64	$\frac{9}{16}$

	(H)	(I)	(J)	(K)	(L)	(M)
Diameter of Screw....	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	1	$1\frac{1}{8}$
Threads per Inch....	12	11	10	9	8	7
Size of Tap Drill*....	31-64	17-32	21-32	49-64	21-8	63-64

Set Screws.			Hex. Head Cap-screws.			Sq. Head Cap-screws.		
Sort	Long	Lengths	Short	Long	Lengths	Short	Long	Lengths
Diam.	Diam.	(under	Diam.	Diam.	(under	Diam.	Diam.	(under
of Head	of Head	Head).	of Head	of Head	Head).	of Head	of Head	Head).
(C) $\frac{1}{8}$.35	$\frac{5}{16}$ to 3	$\frac{7}{16}$.51	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3	$\frac{5}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(D) $\frac{5}{16}$.44	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.68	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$.62	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(E) $\frac{3}{8}$.53	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{9}{16}$.75	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.71	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(F) $\frac{7}{16}$.62	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$.72	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{9}{16}$.66	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$
(G) $\frac{1}{2}$.71	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4	$\frac{3}{4}$.87	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4	$\frac{5}{8}$.80	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4
(H) $\frac{9}{16}$.80	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{16}$.94	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{16}$.90	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$
(I) $\frac{5}{8}$	1.00	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.01	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1.00	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$
(J) $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.15	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1.24	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5
(K) $\frac{7}{8}$	1.24	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.30	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.60	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5
(L) 1	1.42	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.45	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.77	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5
(M) $1\frac{1}{8}$	1.60	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.59	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.95	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5
(N) $1\frac{1}{4}$	1.77	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.75	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.18	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5

Round and Filister Head Cap-screws.**Flat Head Cap-screws.****Button-Head Cap-screws.**

Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (including Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).
(A) $\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(B) $\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$ to 3
(C) $\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$ to 3	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$
(D) $\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(E) $\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(F) $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(G) $\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(H) $\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$	1	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	1	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(I) $\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(J) 1	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(K) $1\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(L) $1\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 3

* For cast iron. For numbers of twist-drills see p. 20.

Threads are U. S. Standard. Cap screws are threaded $\frac{3}{4}$ length up to including $1\frac{1}{2}$ diam., $\frac{1}{2}$ long, and $\frac{1}{4}$ length above. Lengths increase to each regular size between the limits given. Lengths of heads, except round and button, equal diam. of screws.

The angle of the cone of the flat-head screw is 76° , the sides making an angle of 38° with the top.

is turned to the size given in the ninth column, these sizes being the same as those of the regular U. S. Standard bolt, at the bottom of the thread, plus the amount allowed for fit and wear of tap; or, in other words, $D + (D' - D)$. Gauges like the one in the cut, Fig. 72, are furnished for this sizing. In finishing the threads of the tap a tool



FIG. 72.

used which has a removable cutter finished accurately to gauge by grinding, the tool being correct U. S. Standard as to angle, and flat at the point. The tool is used on the threads chased until the flat point just touches the bottom of the tap which has been turned to size D' . Care having been taken to give the form of the tool, with its grinding on the top face in a fixture being provided for this to insure its being ground properly, and also with the setting of the tool properly in the lathe, the result is that the threads of the tap are correctly sized without further attention.

It is evident that one of the points of advantage of the Sellers system is removed, i.e., instead of the taps being flattened at the top of the threads they are sharp, and are consequently not so durable as they otherwise would be. But practically this disadvantage is not found to be serious, and is far more than balanced by the greater ease of getting iron within the prescribed limits, while any rough bolt when reduced in size at the top of the threads, by filing or otherwise, will fit a hole tapped with the U. S. Standard hand tap. Thus affording proof that the two kinds of bolts or screws made for the two different kinds of work are practically interchangeable. By this system 1" iron can be .005" smaller or .010" larger than the nominal diameter, or, in other words, it may have a total variation of .015", while 1 1/2" iron can be .005" smaller or .030" larger than nominal—a total variation of .041"—and within these limits it is found practicable to procure the iron.

STANDARD SIZES OF SCREW-THREADS FOR BOLTS AND TAPS.

(CHAS. A. BAUER.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	n	D	d	h	f	$D' - D$	D'	d'	H
		Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
1/4	20	.2608	.1855	.0370	.0062	.006	.2608	.1915	.2024
5/16	18	.3245	.2403	.0421	.0070	.006	.3205	.2463	.2589
3/8	16	.3885	.2938	.0474	.0078	.006	.3845	.2998	.3139
7/16	14	.4530	.3447	.0541	.0089	.006	.4500	.3507	.3670
1/2	13	.5166	.4000	.0582	.0096	.006	.5126	.4060	.4236
9/16	12	.5805	.4543	.0631	.0104	.007	.5875	.4613	.4802
5/8	11	.6447	.5069	.0689	.0114	.007	.6517	.5139	.5346
3/4	10	.7177	.5801	.0758	.0125	.007	.7247	.5871	.6099
7/8	9	.7891	.6307	.0842	.0139	.007	.7961	.6377	.6630
1 1/8	8	1.0271	.8370	.0947	.0156	.007	1.0341	.8446	.8731
1 1/4	7	1.1552	.9394	.1083	.0179	.007	1.1629	.9463	.9780
1 3/8	7	1.2890	1.0644	.1083	.0179	.007	1.2870	1.0714	1.1039

A = nominal diameter of bolt.

d = actual diameter of bolt.

h = diameter of bolt at bottom of thread.

n = number of threads per inch.

f = flat of bottom of thread.

D = depth of thread.

D' = diameters of tap.

H = in nut before tapping.

$$D = A + \frac{.2163}{n}$$

$$d = A - \frac{1.29604}{n}$$

$$h = \frac{.7577}{n} = \frac{D - d}{2}$$

$$f = \frac{.135}{n}$$

$$H = D' - \frac{1.288}{n} = D' - .85(2h.)$$

STANDARD SET-SCREWS AND CAP-SCREWS.

American, Hartford, and Worcester Machine-Screw Companies.
(Compiled by W. S. Dix.)

	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)
Diameter of Screw....	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Threads per Inch....	40	24	20	18	16	14	12
Size of Tap Drill*....	No. 43	No. 30	No. 5	17-64	21-64	27-64	27-64

	(H)	(I)	(J)	(K)	(L)	(M)	(N)
Diameter of Screw....	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	1	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Threads per Inch....	12	11	10	9	8	7	6
Size of Tap Drill*....	31-64	17-32	21-32	49-64	7/8	63-64	1 1/2

Set Screws.			Hex. Head Cap-screws.			Sq. Head Cap-screws.		
Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).
(C) $\frac{1}{4}$.35	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3	$\frac{7}{16}$.51	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3	$\frac{3}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3
(D) $\frac{5}{16}$.44	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.58	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.62	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3
(E) $\frac{3}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{9}{16}$.65	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$.71	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3
(F) $\frac{7}{16}$.63	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$.72	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{9}{16}$.80	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3
(G) $\frac{1}{2}$.71	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 4	$\frac{3}{4}$.87	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 4	1	.89	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 4
(H) $\frac{9}{16}$.80	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{13}{16}$.94	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{16}$.98	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$
(I) $\frac{5}{8}$.89	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 4	$\frac{7}{8}$	1.01	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	1.04	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 4
(J) $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06	1 to $4\frac{1}{2}$	1	1.15	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.24	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$
(K) $\frac{7}{8}$	1.34	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1.30	$1\frac{1}{8}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1.60	$1\frac{1}{8}$ to 5
(L) 1	1.42	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1.45	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1.77	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 5
(M) $1\frac{1}{8}$	1.60	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 5	$1\frac{3}{8}$	1.59	2 to 5	$1\frac{3}{8}$	1.85	2 to 5
(N) $1\frac{1}{4}$	1.77	2 to 5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1.73	2 to 5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2.13	$2\frac{1}{4}$ to 5

Round and Filister Head Cap-screws.**Flat Head Cap-screws.****Button-Head Cap-screws.**

Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (including Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).
(A) $\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$ (.225)	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $1\frac{3}{8}$
(B) $\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 2
(C) $\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3	$15-32$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$
(D) $\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$
(E) $\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$
(F) $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$	$13-16$	1 to 3	1	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 3
(G) $\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ to 4	$\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 3	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1 to 3
(H) $\frac{3}{4}$	1 to $4\frac{1}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 3
(I) $\frac{7}{8}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$1\frac{3}{8}$ to 3	1	$1\frac{1}{8}$ to 3
(J) 1	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	2 to 3	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 3
(K) $1\frac{1}{8}$	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 5				
(L) $1\frac{1}{4}$	2 to 5				

* For cast iron. For numbers of twist-drills see p. 29.

Threads are U. S. Standard. Cap screws are threaded $\frac{3}{4}$ length up to and including $1\frac{1}{2}$ diam. \times 4" long, and $\frac{1}{2}$ length above. Lengths increase by $\frac{1}{4}$ " each regular size between the limits given. Lengths of heads, except flat and button, equal diam. of screws.

The angle of the cone of the flat-head screw is 70°, the sides making angles of 35° with the top.

STANDARD MACHINE SCREWS.

(Am. Screw Co.'s Catalogue, 1883, 1892.)

Threads per Inch.	Diam. of Body.	Diam. of Flat Head.	Diam. of Round Head.	Diam. of Fillet Head.	Lengths.	
					From	To
56	.0842	.1631	.1544	.1432	3-16	$\frac{1}{16}$
32, 36, 40	.0973	.1894	.1786	.1545	3-16	$\frac{1}{8}$
32, 36, 40	.1105	.2158	.2028	.1747	3-16	$\frac{3}{16}$
30, 32	.1236	.2421	.2270	.1985	3-16	$\frac{1}{2}$
30, 32	.1368	.2684	.2512	.2175	3-16	1
30, 32	.1500	.2947	.2754	.2392	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
30, 32	.1631	.3210	.2936	.2610	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
24, 30, 32	.1763	.3474	.3238	.2805	$\frac{1}{4}$	1
24, 30, 32	.1894	.3737	.3480	.3035	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
20, 24	.2158	.4263	.3922	.3445	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
20, 24	.2421	.4700	.4364	.3885	$\frac{3}{8}$	1
16, 18, 20	.2684	.5316	.4866	.4300	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
16, 18	.2947	.5842	.5248	.4710	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
16, 18	.3210	.6368	.5690	.5200	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
16, 18	.3474	.6894	.6106	.5557	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
14, 16	.3737	.7420	.6522	.6005	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
14, 16	.4000	.7946	.6938	.6425	$\frac{3}{4}$	1
14, 16	.4263	.8473	.7354	.6920	$\frac{3}{4}$	1
14, 16	.4526	.8473	.7770	.7240	1	1

Lengths vary by 16ths from 3-16 to $\frac{1}{4}$, by 8ths from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$, by 4ths from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1.SIZES AND WEIGHTS OF SQUARE AND
HEXAGONAL NUTS.United States Standard Sizes. Chamfered and trimmed.
Punched to suit U. S. Standard Taps.

Width.	Thickness.	Diam. of Hole.	Long Diam. Sq. Nuts.	Long Diam. Hex. Nuts.	Square.		Hexagon.	
					No. in 100 lbs.	Wt. each in lbs.	No. in 100 lbs.	Wt. each in lbs.
$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	13-64	11-16	9-16	7270	.0198	7615	.0181
10-32	$\frac{5}{16}$	14	13-16	11-16	4700	.0231	5200	.0192
11-16	$\frac{3}{8}$	10-64	1	13-16	2350	.0426	3000	.0333
25-32	$\frac{7}{16}$	11-32	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	1690	.0613	2000	.050
3-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	25-64	$\frac{1}{16}$	1	1120	.0893	1490	.070
41-32	9-16	29-64	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	890	.1124	1100	.091
1-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	33-64	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	640	.156	740	.135
$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	39-64	$\frac{1}{8}$	1 7-16	380	.263	450	.222
1 7-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	47-64	1-16	1 11-16	280	.357	300	.324
$\frac{1}{4}$	1	53-64	2 5-16	$\frac{1}{8}$	170	.584	216	.463
1 13-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	59-64	2 9-16	2 1-16	130	.769	148	.676
2	$\frac{1}{4}$	1 1-16	2 13-16	2 5-16	96	1.04	111	.901
2 3-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	1 5-32	$\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	70	1.43	85	1.18
$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	1 9-32	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	58	1.72	68	1.47
2 9-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	1 13-32	$\frac{3}{8}$	2 15-16	44	2.27	56	1.79
3 1-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	3 3-16	34	2.94	40	2.50
3 15-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	20	3.33	37	2.70
$\frac{1}{2}$	2	1 23-32	4 7-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	23	4.35	29	3.45
$\frac{3}{4}$	2 1-16	1 15-16	4 15-16	4 1-10	19	5.28	21	4.70
$\frac{1}{2}$	2 3-16	2 9-16	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	12	8.93	15	6.67
$\frac{1}{2}$	2 7-16	2 7-16	0	4 15-16	9	11.11	11	9.09
$\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	0 5-16	7 1/2	13.04	8 1/2	11.76

SIZES OF WASHERS.

Diameter in inches.	Size of Hole, in inches.	Thickness, Birmingham Wire-gauge.	Bolt in inches.	No. in 100
$\frac{5}{8}$	5-16	No. 16	$\frac{1}{2}$	22,000
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	" 16	$\frac{5}{8}$ -16	18,000
1	$\frac{7}{8}$	" 14	$\frac{3}{4}$	7,000
$1\frac{1}{4}$	9-16	" 11	$\frac{7}{8}$	3,700
$1\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{4}$	" 11	1-16	2,100
$1\frac{7}{8}$	11-16	" 11	$\frac{5}{4}$	2,200
$1\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	" 11	$\frac{3}{2}$	1,000
2	31-32	" 10	$\frac{3}{2}$	1,100
$2\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{8}$	" 8	1	500
$2\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	" 8	$1\frac{1}{4}$	470
3	$1\frac{3}{8}$	" 7	$1\frac{3}{4}$	300
	$1\frac{1}{2}$	" 6	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	200

TRACK SPIKES.

Rails used.	Spikes.	Number in Keg, 300 lbs.	Kegs per Mile, Ties 24 in. between Cent.
45 to 85	$5\frac{1}{4} \times 9-16$	880	30
40 " 52	$5 \times 9-16$	400	27
35 " 40	$5 \times \frac{1}{4}$	400	22
24 " 35	$4\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$	550	20
24 " 80	$4\frac{1}{2} \times 7-16$	725	15
18 " 24	$4 \times 7-16$	820	13
16 " 20	$3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	1250	9
14 " 16	$3 \times \frac{3}{4}$	1350	8
8 " 12	$2\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	1550	7
8 " 10	$2\frac{1}{2} \times 5-16$	2300	5

STREET RAILWAY SPIKES.

Spikes.	Number in Keg, 300 lbs.	Kegs per Mile, Ties 24 in. between Centres.
$5\frac{1}{4} \times 9-16$	400	30
$5 \times \frac{1}{4}$	675	19
$4\frac{1}{4} \times 7-16$	800	13

BOAT SPIKES.

Number in Keg of 200 lbs.

Length.	$\frac{1}{4}$	5-16	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 inch.	2375			
6 "	2050	1230	940	
7 "	1825	1175	800	
8 "		900	650	
9 "		880	600	
10 "			525	
			475	

Number of Nails in Keg of 150 Po.....

Size.	$\frac{1}{4}$ in.	5-18 in.	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	7-15 in.	$\frac{3}{4}$ in.
ches.	2250				
12	1890	1908			
14	1650	1745			
16	1404	1664			
18	1380	1690	748		
20	1262	898	570		
22	1161	693	482	445	306
24		635	456	384	286
26		575	424	300	240
28			391	270	222
30				144	208
32				236	180

Disc.	Approx. Size of Wire Nails	Ap. No. in lb.	Size.	Approx. Size of Wire Nails.	Ap. No. in lb.
pike.....	3 in. No. 7	30	60d Spike.....	8 in. No. 1	10
62	3 1/4 in. No. 6	35	7 1/2 in. " "	8 1/2 in. " 1	9
63	4 " " No. 5	28	7 " " " "	8 " " " 0	7
64	4 1/2 " " No. 4	4	8 " " " " "	8 " " " 00	5
65	5 " " No. 3	15	9 " " " " "	9 " " " 00	4 1/2
66	5 1/2 " " No. 2	12			

[illegible]

SIZES, LENGTH, AND NUMBER TO THE POUND OF STANDARD STEEL WIRE NAILS.

(John A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

SIZES.	Length, inches.	Common Nails and Brads.	Barbed Common.	Clinch.	Fence.	Smooth and Barbed Finishing.	Fide.	Barrel.	Casing, and Smooth and Barbed Box.	Flooring Brads.	Barbed Oval Head Car Nail.		Slatting.	Barbed Roofing.	Shingle.	Tobacco.	Lathing.	Wire Spikes.	Length, inches.	SIZES.
											Light.	Heavy.								
2d	1 1/2	1300	876	110	1538	960	1550	1000	1850	1000	105	118	411	714	469	2100	1780	1 1/2	2d	
3d	1 1/4	720	899	489	960	960	1140	775	1850	500	105	118	411	714	469	1500	1500	1 1/4	3d	
4d	1 1/8	432	857	373	760	760	700	380	1850	300	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/8	4d	
5d	1 1/2	300	345	286	143	575	700	350	1850	300	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/2	5d	
6d	1 1/4	252	301	197	134	350	1140	875	1850	1000	105	118	411	714	469	1500	1500	1 1/4	6d	
7d	1 1/8	186	189	183	122	275	700	350	1850	300	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/8	7d	
8d	1 1/2	132	139	90	82	190	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/2	8d	
9d	1 1/4	105	100	90	62	173	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/4	9d	
10d	1 1/8	87	85	83	50	137	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/8	10d	
11d	1 1/2	66	65	64	38	98	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/2	11d	
12d	1 1/4	55	53	50	30	80	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/4	12d	
13d	1 1/8	45	43	41	24	64	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/8	13d	
14d	1 1/2	35	31	31	18	51	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/2	14d	
15d	1 1/4	25	23	23	12	37	700	350	1850	1000	105	118	251	251	251	274	235	1 1/4	15d	

APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF WIRE NAILS PER POUND.

Wire Gauge,
D. W. G.

Wire Gauge, D. W. G.	Length, inches.													
	1/4	5/8	1/2	3/4	1	1 1/4	1 1/2	1 3/4	2	2 1/4	3	3 1/2	4	4 1/2
0														
1														
2														
3														
4														
5														
6														
7														
8														
9														
10														
11														
12														
13														
14														
15														
16														
17														
18														
19														
20														

These approximate numbers are an average only, and the figures given may be varied either way by changes in the dimensions of the heads or points. Heads and no-head nails will run more to the pound than the table shows, and large or thick-headed nails will run less.

SIZE, WEIGHT, LENGTH, AND STRENGTH OF IRON WIRE.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

No. by Wire Gauge.	Diam. in Decimals of One Inch.	Area of Section in Decimals of One Inch.	Feet to the Pound.	Weight of One Mile in pounds.	Tensile Strength (Approximate) of One Mile of Iron Wire in Pounds.	
					Bright.	Annealed.
00000	.450	.15004	1,963	2832,248	15,000	9400
0000	.400	.12560	2,358	2238,578	9935	7100
000	.360	.10179	2,911	1818,574	8124	6000
00	.330	.08553	3,465	1522,801	6880	5100
0	.305	.07306	4,057	1301,678	5926	4415
1	.285	.06379	4,645	1136,078	5206	3900
2	.265	.05515	5,374	982,555	4570	3425
3	.245	.04714	6,286	839,942	3948	2980
4	.225	.03976	7,454	708,365	3374	2580
5	.205	.03301	8,976	588,189	2849	2175
6	.190	.02835	10,454	505,084	2476	1870
7	.175	.02405	12,322	428,472	2136	1600
8	.160	.02011	14,736	358,900	1813	1360
9	.145	.01651	17,950	291,488	1507	1130
10	.130	.01327	22,323	236,4384	1233	925
11	.1175	.01084	27,940	193,1424	1010	750
12	.105	.00866	34,219	154,2816	810	600
13	.0935	.00672	44,002	119,7504	631	475
14	.089	.00508	56,916	89,6016	474	350
15	.076	.00385	76,984	68,5872	372	280
16	.061	.00292	101,498	52,0060	292	220
17	.0525	.00216	137,154	38,4812	228	165
18	.045	.00159	186,335	28,9478	169	125
19	.040	.001256	235,084	22,3572	137	100
20	.035	.0009621	308,079	17,1389	107	80
21	.031	.0007347	392,752	13,4429		
22	.028	.0005757	481,234	10,9718		
23	.025	.0004469	603,803	8,7437		
24	.0225	.0003476	745,710	7,0905		
25	.020	.0002742	943,396	5,5968		
26	.018	.0002145	1164,680	4,5384		
27	.017	.0001957	1305,050	4,0490		
28	.016	.0001711	1476,869	3,5819		
29	.015	.0001467	1676,980	3,1485		
30	.014	.0001239	1925,321	2,7424		
31	.013	.0001037	2232,653	2,3640		
32	.012	.0008131	2620,607	2,0118		
33	.011	.0006450	3149,092	1,6938		
34	.010	.0005184	3773,584	1,3992		
35	.0095	.0004107	4482,508	1,2024		
36	.009	.0003262	4655,728	1,1396		
37	.0085	.0002575	5222,045	1,0111		
38	.008	.0002027	5896,147	.88549		
39	.0075	.0001548	6724,391	.78872		
40	.007	.0001198	7698,253	.68587		

The above figures on tensile strength are based upon tests made with good material from wire from Trenton blooms. The tensile strength of wire made of less than the best quality of iron, Swedish iron and such is about 10 per cent. less. Mild Bessemer steel is about 10 more. Ordinary crucible steel is about 25 per cent. greater than the figures in this table.

GALVANIZED IRON WIRE FOR TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE LINES.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

RIGHT PER MILE-OHM.—This term is to be understood as distinguishing *resistance of material only*, and means the weight of such material *needed per mile to give the resistance of one ohm*. To ascertain the *mileage resistance* of any wire, divide the "weight per mile-ohm" by the weight of wire per mile. Thus in a grade of Extra Best Best, of which the weight mile-ohm is 5000, the mileage resistance of No. 6 weight per mile 335 would be about 9½ ohms; and No. 14 steel wire, 6500 lbs. weight per ohm (95 lbs. weight per mile), would show about 69 ohms.

Uses of Wire used in Telegraph and Telephone Lines.

4. Has not been much used until recently; is now used on important where the multiplex systems are applied.
 5. Little used in the United States.
 6. Used for important circuits between cities.
 8. Medium size for circuits of 400 miles or less.
 9. For similar locations to No. 8, but on somewhat shorter circuits; lately was the size most largely used in this country.
 - 10, 11. For shorter circuits, railway telegraphs, private lines, police fire-alarm lines, etc.
 12. For telephone lines, police and fire-alarm lines, etc.
 - 13, 14. For telephone lines and short private lines: steel wire is used generally in these sizes.
- The coating of telegraph wire with zinc as a protection against oxidation is generally admitted to be the most efficacious method.
- The grades of line wire are generally known to the trade as "Extra Best," "E. B. B.," "Best Best" (B. B.), and "Steel."
- "Extra Best Best" is made of the very best iron, as nearly pure as any commercial iron, soft, tough, uniform, and of very high conductivity, its right per mile-ohm being about 5000 lbs.
- The "Best Best" is of iron, showing in mechanical tests almost as good as the E. B. B., but not quite as soft, and being somewhat lower in ductility; weight per mile-ohm about 5700 lbs.
- The Trenton "Steel" wire is well suited for telephone or short telegraph lines, and the weight per mile-ohm is about 6500 lbs.
- The following are (approximately) the weights per mile of various sizes of galvanized telegraph wire, drawn by Trenton Iron Co.'s gauge:
- | No. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| Lbs. | 720. | 610. | 525. | 450. | 375. | 310. | 250. | 200. | 160. | 125. | 95. |

TESTS OF TELEGRAPH WIRE.

The following data are taken from a table given by Mr. Prescott relating tests of E. B. B. galvanized wire furnished the Western Union Telegraph

No. of Wire.	Diam. Parts of One Inch.	Weight.		Length. Feet per pound.	Resistance, Temp. 75.8° Fahr.		Ratio of Breaking Weight to Weight per mile.
		Grains per foot.	Pounds per mile.		Feet per ohm.	Ohms per mile.	
4	.228	1043.2	880.6	6.00	958	5.51	
5	.220	891.3	673.0	7.85	727	7.26	
6	.203	758.9	573.2	9.20	618	8.54	3.05
7	.190	595.7	449.9	11.70	578	10.86	3.40
8	.165	501.4	375.1	14.00	469	12.92	3.67
9	.148	409.4	304.2	17.4	328	15.10	3.88
10	.134	330.7	249.4	21.9	269	19.60	3.37
11	.120	263.2	200.0	26.4	218	24.42	2.97
12	.109	213.8	165.6	32.0	179	29.60	3.43
14	.083	126.9	95.7	55.2	104	51.00	8.05

JOINTS IN TELEGRAPH WIRES.—The fewer the joints in a line the better. All joints should be carefully made and well soldered over, for a bad joint may cause as much *resistance to the electric current* as several miles of wire.

TABLE OF DIMENSIONS, WEIGHT, AND RESISTANCE OF COPPER WIRE.

Gauge Number.	Diameter, Inch.	Sectional Area in Circular Mil, πr^2	Weight.		Length.		Resistance.		Gauge Number.
			Lbs. per Foot.	Lbs. per Ohm.	Feet per Lb.	Feet per Ohm.	Ohms per Lb.	Ohms per Foot.	
0000	.454	804115	.629025	18480.73	1.0927	19866.56	.00089027	.000850684	0000
000	.435	789872	.58552	19581.13	2.3978	1545.15	.0001450	.00007152	000
0	.425	768250	.557107	20561.59	2.3978	13088.	.0002558	.0000883	1
1	.41	744000	.534928	21818.60	2.857	11198.17	.00041192	.000144701	2
2	.39	700000	.473105	23755.17	3.6706	9718.3	.00051229	.00015789	3
3	.374	653841	.444144	25341.52	4.6938	7813.16	.00073897	.00015396	4
4	.358	605841	.416884	27041.52	5.832	6487.11	.00091346	.00015385	5
5	.343	56644	.390482	28841.52	7.1855	5389.28	.00114345	.00015385	6
6	.328	52644	.364882	30841.52	8.6855	4589.61	.0014345	.00015385	7
7	.313	48644	.340882	33041.52	10.385	3939.59	.0017845	.00015385	8
8	.298	44644	.317882	35441.52	12.385	3389.59	.0021845	.00015385	9
9	.283	40644	.294882	38041.52	14.685	2939.59	.0026345	.00015385	10
10	.268	36644	.271882	40841.52	17.285	2539.59	.0031345	.00015385	11
11	.253	32644	.248882	43841.52	20.185	2189.59	.0036845	.00015385	12
12	.238	28644	.225882	47041.52	23.385	1889.59	.0042845	.00015385	13
13	.223	24644	.202882	50441.52	26.885	1639.59	.0049345	.00015385	14
14	.208	20644	.179882	54041.52	30.685	1439.59	.0056345	.00015385	15
15	.193	16644	.156882	58041.52	34.685	1239.59	.0063845	.00015385	16
16	.178	12644	.133882	62441.52	39.085	1089.59	.0071845	.00015385	17
17	.163	8644	.110882	67241.52	43.885	939.59	.0080345	.00015385	18
18	.148	6644	.087882	72441.52	49.085	809.59	.0089345	.00015385	19
19	.133	4644	.064882	78041.52	54.685	699.59	.0098845	.00015385	20
20	.118	2644	.041882	84041.52	60.685	609.59	.0108845	.00015385	21
21	.103	644	.018882	90441.52	67.085	529.59	.0119345	.00015385	22
22	.088	444	.005882	97241.52	73.885	459.59	.0130345	.00015385	23
23	.073	244	.002882	104441.52	81.085	399.59	.0141845	.00015385	24
24	.058	44	.000882	112441.52	88.685	349.59	.0153845	.00015385	25
25	.043	24	.000382	120441.52	96.685	309.59	.0166345	.00015385	26
26	.028	4	.000082	128441.52	105.085	269.59	.0179345	.00015385	27
27	.013	144	.000002	136441.52	113.885	229.59	.0192845	.00015385	28
28	.008	44	.000002	144441.52	123.085	189.59	.0206845	.00015385	29
29	.003	144	.000002	152441.52	132.685	149.59	.0221345	.00015385	30

Year	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040	2041	2042	2043	2044	2045	2046	2047	2048	2049	2050	2051	2052	2053	2054	2055	2056	2057	2058	2059	2060	2061	2062	2063	2064	2065	2066	2067	2068	2069	2070	2071	2072	2073	2074	2075	2076	2077	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082	2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2088	2089	2090	2091	2092	2093	2094	2095	2096	2097	2098	2099	2100																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																												
Population	5000	5100	5200	5300	5400	5500	5600	5700	5800	5900	6000	6100	6200	6300	6400	6500	6600	6700	6800	6900	7000	7100	7200	7300	7400	7500	7600	7700	7800	7900	8000	8100	8200	8300	8400	8500	8600	8700	8800	8900	9000	9100	9200	9300	9400	9500	9600	9700	9800	9900	10000	10100	10200	10300	10400	10500	10600	10700	10800	10900	11000	11100	11200	11300	11400	11500	11600	11700	11800	11900	12000	12100	12200	12300	12400	12500	12600	12700	12800	12900	13000	13100	13200	13300	13400	13500	13600	13700	13800	13900	14000	14100	14200	14300	14400	14500	14600	14700	14800	14900	15000	15100	15200	15300	15400	15500	15600	15700	15800	15900	16000	16100	16200	16300	16400	16500	16600	16700	16800	16900	17000	17100	17200	17300	17400	17500	17600	17700	17800	17900	18000	18100	18200	18300	18400	18500	18600	18700	18800	18900	19000	19100	19200	19300	19400	19500	19600	19700	19800	19900	20000	20100	20200	20300	20400	20500	20600	20700	20800	20900	21000	21100	21200	2																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																															
Area	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100</

TABLE OF DIMENSIONS, WEIGHT, AND RESISTANCE OF COPPER WIRE.
(Birmingham Gauge.)

No. wire.	Diameter, Inch.	Sectional Area, In Circular Mils. = diam. ² .	Weight.		Length.		Resistance.		Gauge Number.
			Lbs. per Foot.	Lbs. per Ohm.	Feet per Lb.	Feet per Ohm.	Ohms per Lb.	Ohms per Foot.	
454	.454	592116	.452935	12466.73	1.0927	19966.15	.00004927	.00000004	0000
455	.455	186935	.454676	6560.13	1.8255	17496.16	.00000005	.00000005	001
38	.38	144400	.347107	6256.69	2.2978	13088.1	.00001083	.000000149	002
34	.34	115600	.340928	3918.69	2.85.7	11198.17	.00002098	.000014701	1
30	.30	90000	.324335	3373.17	3.6766	8718.3	.00003102	.000025799	2
26	.26	67600	.307254	2873.17	4.5858	7158.15	.00004129	.000036565	3
22	.22	46614	.292564	1318.28	4.927	6435.15	.00005185	.000046955	4
18	.18	32400	.271455	940.862	5.8252	5437.11	.000062345	.000057325	5
14	.14	22500	.253742	658.494	6.8255	4588.61	.000072869	.000068015	6
12	.12	15840	.237142	497.631	8.0065	3989.26	.000083469	.000079067	7
10	.10	11025	.221742	359.857	9.1875	3437.39	.000094083	.000090173	8
9	.09	87855	.20841	277.358	10.1852	3037.39	.00010473	.000100773	9
8	.08	67855	.196245	214.754	11.6818	2622.83	.000115473	.000111513	10
7	.07	50025	.185154	164.53	13.3979	2279.4	.000126213	.000122253	11
6	.06	37025	.175154	124.53	15.3911	1994.53	.000136953	.000132993	12
5	.05	27025	.166154	90.808	17.5856	1749.56	.000147693	.000143733	13
4	.04	19025	.158119	65.857	20.0046	1514.53	.000158433	.000154473	14
3	.03	13025	.151119	48.857	22.6946	1304.53	.000169173	.000165213	15
2	.02	9025	.145119	35.857	25.6946	1114.53	.000179913	.000175953	16
1	.01	6025	.140119	25.857	29.0046	974.53	.000190653	.000186693	17
0	.00	4025	.136119	18.857	32.6946	854.53	.000201393	.000197433	18
19	.019	3645	.132857	16.857	35.6946	754.53	.000212133	.000208173	19
18	.018	3265	.129595	14.857	38.6946	664.53	.000222873	.000218913	20
17	.017	2885	.126333	12.857	41.6946	584.53	.000233613	.000229653	21
16	.016	2505	.123071	10.857	44.6946	514.53	.000244353	.000240393	22
15	.015	2125	.119809	8.857	47.6946	454.53	.000255093	.000251133	23
14	.014	1745	.116547	6.857	50.6946	394.53	.000265833	.000261873	24
13	.013	1365	.113285	4.857	53.6946	334.53	.000276573	.000272613	25
12	.012	985	.110023	2.857	56.6946	274.53	.000287313	.000283353	26
11	.011	605	.106761	.857	59.6946	214.53	.000298053	.000294093	27
10	.01	225	.103499	.157	62.6946	154.53	.000308793	.000304833	28
9	.009	85	.100237	.157	65.6946	94.53	.000319533	.000315573	29
8	.008	45	.096975	.157	68.6946	34.53	.000330273	.000326313	30
7	.007	5	.093713	.157	71.6946	14.53	.000341013	.000337053	31
6	.006	1	.090451	.157	74.6946	4.53	.000351753	.000347793	32
5	.005	1	.087189	.157	77.6946	1.53	.000362493	.000358533	33
4	.004	1	.083927	.157	80.6946	.53	.000373233	.000369273	34
3	.003	1	.080665	.157	83.6946	.13	.000383973	.000380013	35
2	.002	1	.077403	.157	86.6946	.03	.000394713	.000390753	36
1	.001	1	.074141	.157	89.6946	.00	.000405453	.000401493	37
0	.000	1	.070879	.157	92.6946	.00	.000416193	.000412233	38

HARD-DRAWN COPPER TELEGRAPH WIRE.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

Wound in half-mile coils, either bare or insulated.

B. & S. Gauge.	Resistance in Ohms per Mile.	Breaking Strength.	Weight per Mile.	Approximate Size of E. R. B. Iron Wire equal to Copper.
	4.30	625	200	3
	5.40	525	160	3 3/4
	6.90	430	131	4
	8.70	390	104	6
	10.90	270	83	6 3/4
	13.70	213	66	8
	17.40	170	52	9
	22.10	130	41	10

Iron-wire Gauge

Requiring this wire the greatest care should be observed to avoid kinks, scratches, or cuts. Joints should be made only with McIntire Con-

nections, account of its conductivity being about five times that of Ex. R. B. Wire, and its breaking strength over three times its weight per mile. It may be used of which the section is smaller and the weight less than that of the best Iron wire, allowing a greater number of wires to be strung on a pole.

For this advantage, the reduction of section materially decreases the static capacity, while its non-magnetic character lessens the self-induction of the line, both of which features tend to increase the possible rate of signalling in telegraphing, and to give greater clearness of enunciation over telephone lines, especially those of great length.

INSULATED COPPER WIRES.

Weight per 1000 feet.

Weather-proof Line Wire.	Underwriters' Line Wire.	B. & S. Gauge.	Weather-proof Line Wire.	Underwriters' Line Wire.	B. & S. Gauge.	Weather-proof Line Wire.	Underwriters' Line Wire.
671.	701.	5	115.	121.	13	28.	26.5
537.	565.	6	101.	99.	14	20.5	20.
436.	447.	7	77.	80.	15	17.	20.
342.	364.	8	64.	67.	16	14.	15.
274.	294.	9	53.	54.	17	12.	13.
220.	241.	10	44.	45.	18	10.75	11.
178.	185.	11	37.	37.	19	9.	10.
141.	147.	12	30.	31.	20	7.5	8.

D-ENCASED ANTI-INDUCTION TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH CABLES. (Roebling's.)

FOR CABLES, LEAD ENCASED.		FOR METALLIC CIRCUIT.		FOR TELEGRAPH CIRCUITS.	
Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	No. of Pairs.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	No. of Wires.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	No. of Wires.
18	3	18	3	14	14
18	15	18	4	14	14
18	25	18	7	14	14
18	50	18	10	14	14
18	75	18	20	14	14
			50	14	14
			100	14	14

FLEXIBLE CABLES.

Area Circ. Mils.	No. of Wires.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	Approximate Size of Equivalent Solid Wire.	Area Circ. Mils.	No. of Wires.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	Diameter of Solid Wire. Inches.
15590.6	40	25	8 B. & S.	272410.6	133	17	522.
34063.0	49	23	6 "	433154.4	133	15	636.
39698.9	49	21	4 "	688727.2	133	13	830.
63116.9	49	19	3 "	808476.7	133	12	932.
				1095145.3	133	11	1046.
				210964.6	108	17	459.
				420427.2	129	15	649.
				657656.8	127	13	811.
				835827.2	128	12	914.
				1062108.9	129	11	1035.

WEATHERPROOF AERIAL CABLES.

No. of Con- ductors.	Weight per Conductor per 1000 feet.	No. of Con- ductors.	Weight per Conductor per 1000 feet.	No. of Con- ductors.	Weight per Conductor per 1000 feet.
1	10.75 lbs.	8	9.25 lbs.	15	9.25 lbs.
2	18.00 "	9	9.25 "	16	9.25 "
3	13.00 "	10	9.25 "	17	9.25 "
4	10.75 "	11	9.25 "	18	9.25 "
5	10.00 "	12	9.25 "	19	9.25 "
6	9.50 "	13	9.25 "	20	9.25 "
7	9.25 "	14	9.25 "		

LEAD-ENCASED ELECTRIC-LIGHT CABLES.

Single Wires,
(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

Size, B. & S. Gauge.	Diameter of Solid Cop- per Wire, Mils.	Area, Circular Mils.	Nearest Ap- proximate Birming- ham Wire- gauge No.	Approximate Weight per Foot of Cable, Oz.	Approximate Diameter of Cable Mils.
30	31.96	1021.	21	1.63	170
19	35.29	1252.	20	1.70	175
18	40.70	1624.	19	1.75	180
17	45.25	2048.	18½	1.84	185
16	50.82	2583.	18	2.00	245
15	57.07	3257.	17	2.20	260
14	64.08	4107.	16	3.38	275
13	71.96	5178.	15	3.58	285
12	80.80	6530.	14	5.00	310
11	90.74	8234.	13½	5.23	320
10	101.69	10391.	13¼	5.68	335
9	114.33	12964.	11½	5.95	345
8	128.49	16569.	10½	6.25	360
7	144.28	20816.	9	6.90	375

As tested by the Bell Telephone Co. of Philadelphia, the insulation can be stated at 2000 megohms per mile, with an electrostatic capacity of microfarad,

GALVANIZED STEEL-WIRE STRAND.**For Smokestack Guys, Signal Strand, etc.**

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

Strand is composed of 7 wires, twisted together into a single strand.

			7 Wires.			
Diameter.	Weight per 100 Feet.	Estimated Breaking Strength.		Diameter.	Weight per 100 Feet.	Estimated Breaking Strength.
in.	lbs.	lbs.	No. 15	in.	lbs.	lbs.
$\frac{1}{2}$	52	8,330	16	$\frac{1}{4}$	10	1,600
15-32	42	6,720	17	7-32	8	1,280
7-16	36	5,760	18	8-16	6	960
$\frac{3}{4}$	29	4,640	19	11-64	4 3-10	688
3-16	21	3,360	20	0-64	3 3-10	528
9-32	16	2,560	21	2 4-10	2 4-10	384
17-64	12	1,920	22	3-32	1 1-2	320

For special purposes these strands can be made of 50 to 100 per cent tensile strength. When used to run over sheaves or pulleys the use of iron stock is advisable.

FLEXIBLE STEEL-WIRE CABLES FOR VESSELS.

(Trenton Iron Co., 1886.)

Numerous disadvantages, the system of working ships' anchors with cables is still in vogue. A heavy chain cable contributes to the holding power of the anchor, and the facility of increasing that resistance by pulling the cable is prized as an advantage. The requisite holding-power is obtained, however, by the combined action of a comparatively small anchor and a correspondingly great mass of chain of little service in relation to its weight or to the weight of the anchor. If the weight and the anchor were increased so as to give the greatest holding-power, and if it were attached by means of a light wire cable, the combined weight of the cable and anchor would be much less than the total weight of the anchor and chain, and the facility of handling would be much greater. Shipbuilders have taken the initiative in this direction, and many of the best and most serviceable vessels afloat are fitted with steel-wire cables. They have given complete satisfaction.

Trenton Iron Co.'s cables are made of crucible cast-steel wire, and are fitted to fulfill Lloyd's requirements. They are composed of 72 wires twisted into six strands of twelve wires each. In order to obtain great flexibility, hempen centres are introduced in the strands as well as in the end cable.

FLEXIBLE STEEL-WIRE HAWSERS.

Hawsers are extensively used. They are made with six strands of wires each, hempen centres being inserted in the individual strands as in the completed rope. The material employed is crucible cast steel, and, and guaranteed to fulfill Lloyd's requirements. They are only used for the weight of hempen hawsers; and are sufficiently pliable to work over bits to which hempen rope of equivalent strength can be applied. A tarred Russian hemp hawser weighs about 39 lbs. per fathom, a white manila hawser weighs about 20 lbs. per fathom, and a steel chain weighs about 10 lbs. per fathom.

A galvanized steel hawser weighs about 12 lbs. per fathom, and the above named has about the same tensile strength.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR GALVANIZED IRON WIRE
Issued by the British Postal Telegraph Authorities.

Weight per Mile.			Diameter.			Tests for Strength and Ductility.						
Required Standard.			Allowed.			Breaking Weight.	No. of Twists in 6 in.		For Breaking Weight not less than—		Resistance per sq. in. of the Standard size of 10 ft. length.	
Minimum.	Maximum.		Minimum.	Maximum.			Minimum.	Minimum.	For Breaking Weight not less than—	Minimum.		
lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	mils.	mils.	mils.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	ohms.		
800	767	833	242	237	247	2480	15	2550	14	2620	13	0.75
600	571	629	200	204	214	1860	17	1910	16	1960	15	0.90
450	424	477	181	176	186	1390	19	1425	18	1460	17	1.00
400	377	424	171	166	176	1240	21	1270	20	1300	19	1.10
300	190	213	121	118	125	620	30	698	28	655	25	2.00

STRENGTH OF PIANO-WIRE.

The average strength of English piano-wire is given as follows by Messrs. Horsfalls & Lean:

Numbers in Music-wire Gauge.	Equivalents in Fractions of Inches in Diameters.	Ultimate Tensile Strength in Pounds.	Numbers in Music-wire Gauge.	Equivalents in Fractions of Inches in Diameters.	Ultimate Tensile Strength in Pounds.
12	.029	225	11	.041	280
13	.031	250	10	.043	300
14	.033	285	9	.045	320
15	.035	305	8	.047	340
16	.037	340	7	.052	380
17	.039	360			

These strengths range from 300,000 to 340,000 lbs. per sq. in. The composition of this wire is as follows: Carbon, 0.570; silicon, 0.000; sulphur, 0.000; phosphorus, 0.018; manganese, 0.125.

"PLOUGH"-STEEL WIRE.

The term "plough," given in England to steel wire of high quality, is derived from the fact that such wire is used for the construction of mould-boards for ploughing purposes. It is to be hoped that the term will not be used in this country, as it tends to confusion of terms. Plough-steel is known here in some steel-works as the quality of plate steel used for mould-boards of ploughs, for which a very ordinary grade is good enough.

Experiments by Dr. Percy on the English plough-steel (so-called "grey" steel) gave the following results: Specific gravity, 7.814; carbon, 0.828 per cent; manganese, 0.487 per cent; silicon, 0.143 per cent; sulphur, 0.000 per cent; phosphorus, nil; copper, 0.030 per cent. No traces of chromium, titanium, tungsten were found. The breaking strains of the wire were as follows:

Diameter, inch	.093	.192	.159	.101
Per sq. inch	314,000	257,000	234,000	201,000

and the breaking strains were usually from 0.75 to 1.1 per cent.

WIRE OF DIFFERENT METALS AND ALLOYS.

(J. Bucknall Smith's Treatise on Wire.)

Wire is commonly composed of an alloy of 1 3/4 to 2 parts of copper to 1 part of zinc. The tensile strength ranges from 30 to 40 tons per square inch, increasing with the percentage of zinc in the alloy.

Copper or Nickel Silver, an alloy of copper, zinc, and nickel, is a brass whitened by the addition of nickel. It has been drawn into wire as .002" diam.

Platinum Wire may be drawn into the finest sizes. On account of its use is practically confined to precise scientific instruments and appliances in which resistances to high temperature, oxygen, and acid are essential. It expands less than other metals when heated, which permits its being sealed in glass without fear of cracking. It is used in incandescent electric lamps.

Phosphor-bronze Wire contains from 2 to 6 per cent of tin and 1 to 3 per cent of phosphorus. The presence of phosphorus is essential to electric conductivity.

Gun-metal wire is made from an alloy of copper, iron, and zinc. It ranges from 45 to 62 tons per square inch. It is used for some fire rope, also for wire gauze. It is not subject to deposits of verdigris, has great toughness, even when its tensile strength is over 60 tons per square inch.

Gun Wire.—Specific gravity .868. Tensile strength only 25 tons per square inch. It has been drawn as fine as 11,400 yards to the lb. or .042 grains per yard.

Gun Bronze, 90 copper, 10 aluminum, has high strength and is inoxidizable, sonorous. Its electric conductivity is 12.6 per cent of pure copper.

Phosphor-bronze, patented in 1882 by L. Weller of Paris, is made as follows: Silicate of potash, pounded glass, chloride of sodium and carbonate of soda and lime, are heated in a plumbago crucible, and reaction takes place the contents are thrown into the molten iron to be treated. Silicon-bronze wire has a conductivity of from 40 to 50 per cent of that of copper wire and four times more than that of iron. Its tensile strength is nearly that of steel, or 28 to 55 tons per square inch. The conductivity decreases as the tensile strength increases. Wire whose conductivity equals 50 per cent of that of pure copper has a tensile strength of 28 tons per square inch but when its conductivity is 40 per cent of pure copper, its strength is 50 tons per square inch. It is only used for telegraph wires. It has great resistance to oxidation.

Hard Drawn and Annealed Copper Wire has a strength of from 20 to 30 tons per square inch.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR HARD-DRAWN COPPER WIRE.

The Post Office authorities require that hard-drawn copper wire should be of the lengths, sizes, weights, strengths, and conditions set forth in the annexed table.

No.	Statute Title.	Approximate Equivalent Diameter.			Minimum Breaking Weight.	Minimum No. of Twists in 3 Inches.	Maximum Resistance per Mile of Wire (when hard) at 60° Fahr.	Minimum Weight of each Piece (or Cost) of Wire.
		Standard.	Minimum.	Maximum.				
		lbs.	mls.	mls.	lbs.		ohms.	lbs.
1	1021	70	78	80	330	30	9.10	50
2	1534	97	95 1/2	98	390	25	6.05	50
3	208	113	110 1/2	113 1/2	650	20	4.53	50
4	410	158	155 1/2	160 1/2	1300	10	2.27	50

WIRE ROPES.

List adopted by manufacturers in 1892. See pamphlets of The Co., John A. Roebling's Sons Co., and other makers.

Pliable Hoisting Rope.

With 6 strands of 19 wires each.

IRON.

Trade Number.	Diameter.	Circumference in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds. Rope with Hemp Centre.	Breaking Strain, tons of 3000 lbs.	Proper Working Load in tons of 3000 lbs.	Circumference of new Manila Rope of equal strength.
1	2 1/4	6 3/4	8.00	74	15	14
2	2	6	6.80	65	13	13
3	1 3/4	5 1/4	5.25	54	11	12
4	1 1/2	5	4.10	44	9	11
5	1 1/4	4 3/4	3.65	39	8	10
5 1/2	1 3/8	4 3/8	3.00	33	6 1/2	9 1/4
6	1 1/8	4	2.50	25	5 1/2	8 1/4
7	1 1/8	3 1/2	2.00	20	4	7 1/4
8	1	3 1/8	1.58	16	3	6 1/4
9	7/8	2 3/4	1.20	11.50	2 1/4	5 1/4
10	3/4	2 1/4	0.88	8.64	1 3/4	4 1/4
10 1/4	3/4	2	0.60	5.13	1 1/4	3 3/4
10 1/2	9-10	1 5/8	0.44	4.27	1 1/8	3 1/4
10 3/4	1 1/8	1 1/2	0.35	3.48	1 1/4	3
10 1/2	7-10	1 3/8	0.29	3.00	1 1/8	2 3/4
10 3/4	3/8	1 1/4	0.26	2.50	1 1/4	2 1/4

CAST STEEL.

1	2 1/4	6 3/4	8.00	155	31	15
2	2	6	6.80	125	25	13
3	1 3/4	5 1/4	5.25	106	21	12
4	1 1/2	5	4.10	86	17	11
5	1 1/4	4 3/4	3.65	77	15	10
5 1/2	1 3/8	4 3/8	3.00	63	12	9 1/4
6	1 1/8	4	2.50	52	10	8 1/4
7	1 1/8	3 1/2	2.00	42	8	7 1/4
8	1	3 1/8	1.58	33	6	6 1/4
9	7/8	2 3/4	1.20	25	5	5 1/4
10	3/4	2 1/4	0.88	16	3 1/2	4 1/4
10 1/4	3/4	2	0.60	12	2 3/4	3 3/4
10 1/2	9-10	1 5/8	0.44	9	2 1/8	3 1/4
10 3/4	1 1/8	1 1/2	0.35	7	1 3/4	3
10 1/2	7-10	1 3/8	0.29	5 1/2	1 1/8	2 3/4
10 3/4	3/8	1 1/4	0.26	4 1/2	1 1/4	2 1/4

Cable-Traction Ropes.

According to English practice, cable-traction ropes, of about the same circumference, are commonly constructed with six strands of seven wires, the lays in the strands varying from, say, 3 in. to 3 1/2 in. In the United States, the lays in the ropes from, say, 7/16 in. to 9 in. In the United States, the strands of nineteen wires are generally preferred as being more pliant, but, on the other hand, the smaller external wires wear out more rapidly. The Market Street Street Railway Company, San Francisco, has used 1 1/4 in. in diameter, composed of six strands of nineteen steel wires, 1/16 in. thick per foot. The longest continuous length being 24,125 ft. The same company has employed cables of 1 1/2 in. diameter, composed of six strands of 19 wires, 1/16 in. thick per foot. On the New York and New Haven Railroad, 1,500 ft. long, containing 114 wires, have been used.

Transmission and Standing Rope.

With 6 strands of 7 wires each.

IRON.

Diameter.	Circumference.	Weight per foot in pounds of Rope with Hemp Centre.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 lbs	Proper Working Load in tons of 2000 lbs.	Circumference of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.	Min Size of Drum or Sheave in feet.
1 1/2	45 5/8	3.37	36	9	10	13
1 3/4	47 1/4	2.77	30	7 1/2	9	12
1 7/8	49 1/4	2.35	25	6 1/4	8 1/4	10 3/4
2	51 1/4	1.82	20	5	7 1/2	9 1/4
2 1/8	53	1.50	16	4	6 1/2	8 1/4
2 1/2	54 5/8	1.12	12 1/2	3 1/2	5 3/4	7 1/4
2 3/4	56 1/4	0.88	8 1/2	2 3/4	4 3/4	6 3/4
3	58 1/4	0.70	7 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/2	6
3 1/8	60 1/4	0.57	5 1/2	1 1/2	4	5 1/4
3 1/2	62 1/4	0.41	4 1/2	1	3 1/4	4 1/2
3 3/4	64 1/4	0.31	2 1/2	3/4	2 3/4	4
4	66 1/4	0.23	2 1/2	3/4	2 1/2	3 1/2
4 1/8	68 1/4	0.19	1 1/2	3/4	2 1/4	3 1/4
4 1/2	70 1/4	0.16	1 1/2	3/4	2	2 1/2
4 3/4	72 1/4	0.125	1.03	3/4	1 3/4	2 1/4

CAST STEEL.

1 1/2	45 5/8	3.37	62	13	13	8 1/2
1 3/4	47 1/4	2.77	44	10	12	8
1 7/8	49 1/4	2.35	44	9	11	7 1/4
2	51 1/4	1.82	36	7 1/2	10	6 3/4
2 1/8	53	1.50	30	6	9	5 3/4
2 1/2	54 5/8	1.12	22	4 1/2	8	5
2 3/4	56 1/4	0.88	17	3 1/2	7	4 1/2
3	58 1/4	0.70	14	3	6	4
3 1/8	60 1/4	0.57	11	2 1/2	5 1/2	3 1/2
3 1/2	62 1/4	0.41	8	1 3/4	4 3/4	3
3 3/4	64 1/4	0.31	6	1 1/4	4	2 1/2
4	66 1/4	0.23	4 1/2	1 1/2	3 1/2	2 1/2
4 1/8	68 1/4	0.19	4	1	3 1/4	2
4 1/2	70 1/4	0.16	3	3/4	2 3/4	1 3/2
4 3/4	72 1/4	0.125	2	3/4	2 3/4	1 1/2

Plough-Steel Rope.

Ropes of very high tensile strength, which are ordinarily called "Steel Ropes," are made of a high grade of crucible steel, which, in the form of wire, will bear a strain of from 100 to 150 tons per inch.

When it is necessary to use very long or very heavy ropes, a reduction of weight of ropes becomes a matter of serious consideration.

Efforts to reduce all kinds to a minimum, and to use somewhat smaller sheaves than are suitable for an ordinary crucible rope, have brought up the question of adaptability. Before using Plough-Steel Ropes, it is best to have advice on the subject of adaptability.

Plough-Steel Rope.

With 6 strands of 19 wires each.

Trade Number.	Diameter in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 lbs.	Proper Working Load.	Min. Dr. Str.
1	2 1/4	8.00	240	48	
2	2	6.30	189	37	
3	1 3/4	5.25	157	31	
4	1 1/2	4.10	123	25	
5	1 1/4	3.65	110	22	
5 1/2	1 3/8	3.00	90	18	
6	1 1/4	2.50	75	15	
7	1 1/4	2.00	60	12	
8	1	1.58	47	9	
9	3/4	1.30	37	7	
10	3/4	0.88	27	5	
10 1/2	6/8	0.60	18	3 1/2	
10 1/2	9-10	0.44	14	2	
10 3/4	3/4	0.35	10	1 1/2	

With 7 Wires to the Strand.

15	1	1.50	45	9	
16	3/4	1.12	33	6 1/2	
17	5/8	0.88	25	4 1/2	
18	11-16	0.70	21	4	
19	3/4	0.57	16	3 1/2	
20	9-16	0.41	12	2	
21	1 1/2	0.31	9	1 1/2	
22	1-16	0.23	5	1 1/4	
23	5/8	0.19	4	1 1/4	

Galvanized Iron Wire Rope.

For Ships' Rigging and Guys for Derricks.

CHARCOAL ROPE.

Circumference in inches.	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Clr. of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 pounds.	Circumference in inches.	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Clr. of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.
5 1/4	26 1/2	11	43	2 1/4	5 1/2	5
5 1/2	24 1/2	10 1/4	40	2 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2
6	22	10	35	2	3 1/2	4 1/4
4 1/2	21	9 1/4	33	1 3/4	2 1/2	3 1/2
4 1/4	19	9	30	1 1/2	2	3
4 1/2	16 1/4	8 1/4	25	1 1/4	1 3/4	2 1/2
4	14 1/4	8	23	1 1/2	1 1/2	2 1/4
3 1/2	12 1/4	7 1/4	20	1	1 1/4	2 1/4
3 1/4	10 1/2	6 1/4	16	3/4	1 1/4	1 3/4
3 1/4	9 1/4	6	14	3/4	1 1/4	1 3/4
3	8	5 1/4	12	3/4	1 1/4	1 3/4
2 1/2	7	5 1/4	10	3/4	1 1/4	1 3/4

Galvanized Cast-steel Yacht Rigging.

Weight per Fath- om in pounds.	Cir. of new Manilla Rope of equal Strength.	Break- ing Strain in tons of 2000 pounds	Circum- ference in inches	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Cir. of new Manilla Rope of equal Strength.	Break- ing Strain in tons of 2000 pounds
14½	13	66	2	3¼	0¼	14
100	11	41	1¾	2½	5¼	10
6	9¼	32	1½	2	4¾	8
6¼	8½	27	1¾	1¾	4¼	6¼
5¼	8	22	1½	1¾	3¾	5¼
4¾	7	18	1	¾	3	4¾

Steel Hawseers.

For Mooring, Sea, and Lake Towing.

Breaking Strength.	Size of Manilla Haw- ser of equal Strength.	Circumfer- ence.	Breaking Strength.	Size of Manilla Haw- ser of equal Strength.
Tons.	Inches.	Inches.	Tons.	Inches.
15	6½	3½	29	9
18	7	4	35	10
22	8¼			

Steel Flat Ropes.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons' Co.)

Steel Flat Ropes are composed of a number of strands, alternately laid to the right and left, laid alongside of each other, and sewed together with iron wires. These ropes are used at times in place of round ropes in shafts of mines. They wind upon themselves on a narrow winding-drum, which takes up less room than one necessary for a round rope. The iron sewing-wires wear out sooner than the steel strands, and then it is necessary to sew the rope with new iron wires.

Weight per foot in pounds.	Strength in pounds.	Width and Thickness in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds.	Strength in pounds.
1.19	35,700	¾ × 8	2.38	71,400
1.86	55,800	¾ × 8½	2.07	89,000
2.00	60,000	¾ × 4	3.50	99,000
2.50	75,000	¾ × 4½	4.00	120,000
2.86	85,000	¾ × 6	4.27	128,000
3.12	93,000	¾ × 5½	4.82	144,000
3.40	100,000	¾ × 6	5.10	153,000
3.60	110,000	¾ × 7	5.03	177,000

Safe working load allow from one fifth to one seventh of the breaking

"Lang Lay" Rope.

The rope, as ordinarily made, the component strands are laid up into a direction opposite to that in which the wires are laid into strands; that is, if the wires in the strands are laid from right to left, the strands are laid from left to right. In the "Lang Lay," sometimes known as "parallel Lay," the wires are laid into strands and the strands into rope in the same direction; that is, if the wire is laid in the strands from right to left, the strands are also laid into rope from right to left. Its use has been considerable under certain conditions and for certain purposes, mostly in plants, inclined planes, and street railway cables, although it is also used for vertical hoists in mines, etc. Its advantages are that

GALVANIZED STEEL CABLES.

For Suspension Bridges, (Roebbing's.)

Diameter in inches.	Ultimate Strength in tons of 2000 pounds.	Weight per foot.	Diameter in inches.	Ultimate Strength in tons of 2000 pounds.	Weight per foot.	Diameter in inches.	Ultimate Strength in tons of 2000 pounds.
$\frac{5}{8}$ "	220	13	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	155	R. 54	$\frac{13}{16}$ "	95
$\frac{7}{8}$ "	290	11.3	$\frac{7}{8}$ "	110	6.5	$\frac{15}{16}$ "	73
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	180	10	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	100	5.6	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	65

COMPARATIVE STRENGTHS OF FLEXIBLE GALVANIZED STEEL-WIRE HAWSERS,

With Chain Cable, Tarred Russian Hemp, and Manila Ropes. (Trenton Iron Co.)

Patent Flexible Steel-wire Hawsers and Cables.				Chain Cable.				Tarred Russian Hemp Rope.			
Size.	Circumference.	Weight per Fathom.	Guaranteed Breaking Strain.	Diameter of Barrel or Sheave round which it may be worked.	Size.	Weight per Fathom.	Proof Strain.	Breaking Strain.	Size.	Weight per Fathom.	Breaking Strain.
1	$\frac{1}{4}$ "	3	$\frac{1}{4}$ "	6							
1	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	24	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	11	43	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	34	3
1	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	33	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	9					$\frac{1}{2}$ "	24	3
1	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	13	4	9					$\frac{1}{2}$ "	13	4
2	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	22	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	10	9-16	17	53	74	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	22	5
2	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	33	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	12					$\frac{3}{4}$ "	33	6
2	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	13	5	12	10-18	21	7	94	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	13	7
2	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	24	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	13					$\frac{3}{4}$ "	24	8
3	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	21	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	15	11-18	25	61	129	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	21	9
3	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	33	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	16	12-18	30	104	174	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	33	11
3	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	13	15	16	13-18	35	117	194	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	13	12
3	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	22	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	17	13-18	35	117	194	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	22	14
3	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	9	20	17	13-18	35	117	194	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	9	15
4	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	12	31	24		15	8-10	23	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	12	16
4	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	18	38	27	1	51	18	27	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	18	18
4	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	15	30	27	$\frac{1}{4}$ "	69	229	344	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	15	20
5	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	21	64	30	1	72	112	373	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	21	23
5	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	33	71	33	$\frac{1}{4}$ "	113	171	551	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	33	26
5	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	17	88	36	$\frac{1}{4}$ "	166	254	771	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	17	27
6	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	24	102	39	1	15-18	304	941	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	24	30
6	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	37	116	42	1	1-18	317	107	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	37	33
7	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	17	130	45	1	3-16	250	821	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	17	35
7	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	27	160	48	1	5-16	290	941	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	27	38

MAGNESIA BRICKS.

"Foreign Abstracts" of the Institution of Civil Engineers, 1893, gives a paper by C. Bischof on the production of magnesia bricks. The material used at present is the magnesite of Styria which, although less considered as a source of magnesia than the Greek, has the property of fusing at a high temperature without melting. The composition of the substances, in the natural and burnt states, is as follows:

	Magnesite.	Styrian.	Greek.
Carbonate of magnesia	90.0 to 96.0%	91.46%
" " lime	0.5 to 2.0	4.49
" " iron	8.0 to 6.0	Fer) 0.08
Silica	1.0	0.52
Manganous oxide	0.5	Water 0.54

Burnt Magnesite.

Magnesia	77.0	92.10-93.36
Lime	7.3	0.63-10.32
Alumina and ferric oxide	13.0	0.56-3.54
Silica	1.2	0.73-7.98

At a red heat magnesium carbonate is decomposed into carbonic acid and anhydrous magnesia, which resembles lime in becoming hydrated and re-carbonated when exposed to the air, and possesses a certain plasticity, so that it can be moulded when subjected to a heavy pressure. By long-continued stronger heating the material becomes dead-burnt, giving a form of magnesia of high density, sp. gr. 3.8, as compared with 3.0 in the plastic form, which is unalterable in the air but devoid of plasticity. A mixture of two measures of dead-burnt with one of plastic magnesia can be moulded into bricks which contract but little in firing. Other binding materials that have been used are: clay up to 10 or 15 per cent; gas-tar, perfectly freed from water, soda, silica, vinegar as a solution of magnesium acetate which is easily decomposed by heat, and carbolates of alkalies or lime. Among magnesium compounds a weak solution of magnesium chloride may also be used. For setting the bricks lightly burnt, caustic magnesia, with a small proportion of silica to render it less refractory, is recommended. The strength of the bricks may be increased by adding iron, either as oxide or carbonate. If a porous product is required, sawdust or starch may be added to the mixture. When dead-burnt magnesia is used alone, soda is said to be the best binding material.

See also papers by A. E. Hunt, Trans. A. I. M. E., xvi, 720, and by T. Egleson, Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv, 458.

Asbestos.—J. T. Donald, Eng. and M. Jour., June 27, 1891.

ANALYSIS.

	Italian.	Canadian.	Broughton, Templeton.
Silica	40.30%	40.57%	40.52%
Magnesia	43.37	41.60	42.05
Ferrous oxide	.87	2.84	1.97
Alumina	2.27	.90	2.10
Water	13.72	13.55	13.46
	100.63	99.83	100.10

Chemical analysis throws light upon an important point in connection with asbestos, i.e., the cause of the harshness of the fibre of some varieties. Asbestos is principally a hydrous silicate of magnesia, i.e., silicate of magnesia combined with water. When harsh fibre is analyzed it is found to contain less water than the soft fibre. In fibre of very fine quality from Black Lake analysis showed 14.38% of water, while a harsh fibred sample gave only 11.72%. If soft fibre be heated to a temperature that will drive off a portion of the combined water, there results a substance so brittle that it can be crumbled between thumb and finger. There is evidently some connection between the consistency of the fibre and the amount of water in its composition.

STRENGTH OF MATERIALS.

Stress and Strain.—There is much confusion among writers as to the definition of these terms. An external force applied to a body, so as to pull it apart, is resisted by an internal force, or resistance, and the action of these forces causes a displacement of the molecules, or deformation. By some writers the external force is called a stress, and the internal force a strain; others call the external force a strain, and the internal force a stress: this confusion of terms is not of importance, as the words stress and strain are quite commonly used synonymously, but the use of the word strain to mean molecular displacement, deformation, or distortion, as is the custom of some, is a corruption of the language. See *Engineering News*, June 23, 1892. Definitions by leading authorities are given below.

Stress.—A stress is a force which acts in the interior of a body, and resists the external forces which tend to change its shape. A deformation is the amount of change of shape of a body caused by the stress. The word strain is often used as synonymous with stress and sometimes it is also used to designate the deformation. (Merriman.)

The force by which the molecules of a body resist a strain at any point is called the stress at that point.

The summation of the displacements of the molecules of a body for a given point is called the distortion or strain at the point considered. (Burr.)

Stresses are the forces which are applied to bodies to bring into action their elastic and cohesive properties. These forces cause alterations of the forms of the bodies upon which they act. Strain is a name given to the kind of alteration produced by the stresses. The distinction between stress and strain is not always observed, one being used for the other. (Wood.)

Stresses are of different kinds, viz.: *tensile, compressive, transverse, torsional, and shearing stresses.*

A *tensile stress*, or pull, is a force tending to elongate a piece. A *compressive stress*, or push, is a force tending to shorten it. A *transverse stress* tends to bend it. A *torsional stress* tends to twist it. A *shearing stress* tends to force one part of it to slide over the adjacent part.

Tensile, compressive, and shearing stresses are called *simple stresses*. Transverse stress is compounded of tensile and compressive stresses, and torsional of tensile and shearing stresses.

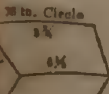
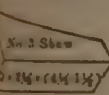
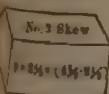
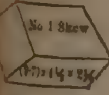
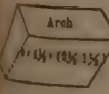
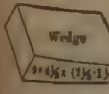
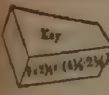
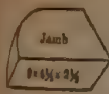
To these five varieties of stresses might be added *tearing stress*, which is either tensile or shearing, but in which the resistance of different portions of the material are brought into play in detail, or one after the other, instead of simultaneously, as in the simple stresses.

Effects of Stresses.—The following general laws for cases of simple tension or compression have been established by experiment. (Merriman.)

1. When a small stress is applied to a body, a small deformation is produced, and on the removal of the stress the body springs back to its original form. For small stresses, then, materials may be regarded as perfectly elastic.
2. Under small stresses the deformations are approximately proportional to the forces or stresses which produce them, and also approximately proportional to the length of the bar or body.
3. When the stress is great enough a deformation is produced which is partly permanent, that is, the body does not spring back entirely to its original form on removal of the stress. This permanent part is termed a set. In such cases the deformations are not proportional to the stress.
4. When the stress is greater still the deformation rapidly increases and the body finally ruptures.
5. A sudden stress, or shock, is more injurious than a steady stress or than a stress gradually applied.

Elastic Limit.—The elastic limit is defined as that point at which the deformations cease to be proportional to the stresses, or, the point at which the rate of stretch (or other deformation) begins to increase. It is also defined as the point at which the first permanent set becomes visible. The last definition is not considered as good as the first, as it is found that with some materials a set occurs with any load, no matter how small, and with others a set which might be called permanent vanishes with lapse of time, and as it is impossible to get the point of first set without re-

SIZES OF FIRE-BRICK.



9-inch straight.....	9 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4 inches.
Soap.....	9 x 2 1/4 x 2 1/4 "
Checker.....	9 x 3 x 3 "
2-inch.....	9 x 4 1/4 x 2 "
Split.....	9 x 1 1/2 x 1 1/4 "
Jamb.....	9 x 1 1/2 x 2 1/4 "
No. 1 key.....	9 x 2 1/4 thick x 4 1/2 to 4 inches wide.

No. 2 key 118 bricks to circle 12 feet inside diam.
9 x 2 1/4 thick x 4 1/2 to 3 1/4 inches wide.

No. 3 key 68 bricks to circle 6 ft. inside diam.
9 x 2 1/4 thick x 4 1/2 to 2 inches wide.

No. 4 key 88 bricks to circle 3 ft. inside diam.
9 x 2 1/4 thick x 4 1/2 to 2 1/4 inches wide.

No. 1 wedge (or bullhead). 25 bricks to circle 1 1/4 ft. inside diam.
9 x 1 1/4 wide x 2 1/4 to 2 in. thick, tapering lengthwise.

No. 2 wedge..... 98 bricks to circle 5 ft. inside diam.
9 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4 to 1 1/2 in. thick.

No. 1 arch..... 60 bricks to circle 2 1/4 ft. inside diam.
9 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4 to 2 in. thick, tapering breadthwise.

No. 2 arch..... 72 bricks to circle 4 ft. inside diam.
9 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4 to 1 1/4.

No. 1 skew..... 42 bricks to circle 2 ft. inside diam.
9 to 7 x 4 1/4 to 2 1/4. Bevel on one end.

No. 2 skew..... 9 x 2 1/4 x 4 1/4 to 2 1/4. Equal bevel on both edges.

No. 3 skew..... 9 x 2 1/4 x 4 1/4 to 1 1/4. Taper on one edge.

24-inch circle..... 8 1/4 to 5 1/4 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4. Edges curved, 9 bricks line a 24-inch circle.

36-inch circle..... 8 1/4 to 6 1/4 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4. 19 bricks line a 36-inch circle.

48-inch circle..... 8 1/4 to 7 1/4 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/4. 17 bricks line a 48-inch circle.

13 1/4-inch straight..... 13 1/4 x 2 1/4 x 6

13 1/4-inch key No. 1..... 13 1/4 x 2 1/4 x 6 to 5 inch. 90 bricks turn a 12-ft. circle.

13 1/4-inch key No. 2..... 13 1/4 x 2 1/4 x 6 to 4 1/2 inch. 52 bricks turn a 6-ft. circle.

Bridge wall, No. 1..... 13 x 6 1/4 x 6.

Bridge wall, No. 2..... 13 x 6 1/4 x 3.

Mill tile..... 18, 20, or 24 x 6 x 3.

Stock-hole tiles..... 18, 20, or 24 x 9 x 4.

18-inch block..... 18 x 9 x 6.

Flat back..... 9 x 6 x 2 1/4.

Flat back arch..... 9 x 6 x 3 1/4 to 2 1/4.

22-inch radius, 50 bricks to circle.

Locomotive tile..... 32 x 10 x 3.

..... 34 x 10 x 3.

..... 34 x 8 x 3.

..... 36 x 8 x 3.

..... 40 x 10 x 3.

Tiles, slabs, and blocks, various sizes 12 to 30 inches long, 8 to 30 inches wide, 2 to 6 inches thick.

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stresses, the coefficient of elasticity is constant, but beyond the elastic limit it decreases rapidly.

In cast iron there is generally no apparent limit of elasticity, the deflections increasing at a faster rate than the stresses, and a permanent set is produced by small loads. The coefficient of elasticity therefore is constant during any portion of a test, but grows smaller as the load increases. The same is true in the case of timber. In wrought iron and steel, however, there is a well-defined elastic limit, and the coefficient of elasticity up to that limit is nearly constant.

Resilience, or Work of Resistance of a Material.—The work done by a load applied gradually up to the elastic limit, the resistance increasing uniformly from zero stress at the elastic limit, the work done by a load applied gradually up to one half the product of the final stress by the extension or other deflection. Beyond the elastic limit, the extensions increasing more rapidly than the loads, and the strain diagram approximating a parabolic form, the work done is approximately equal to two thirds the product of the maximum stress by the extension.

The amount of work required to break a bar, measured usually in foot-pounds, is called its resilience; the work required to strain it to the elastic limit is called its elastic resilience.

Under a load applied suddenly the momentary elastic distortion is twice that caused by the same load applied gradually.

When a solid material is exposed to percussive stress, as when a weight falls upon a beam transversely, the work of resistance is measured by the product of the weight into the total fall.

Elevation of Ultimate Resistance and Elastic Limit.—This was first observed by Prof. R. H. Thurston, and Commander L. A. Lee, U. S. N., independently, in 1873, that if wrought iron be subjected to a stress beyond its elastic limit, but not beyond its ultimate resistance, then allowed to "rest" for a definite interval of time, a considerable increase of elastic limit and ultimate resistance may be experienced. In other words, the application of stress and subsequent "rest" increases the strength of wrought iron.

This "rest" may be an entire release from stress or a simple holding test-piece at a given intensity of stress.

Commander Beardslee prepared twelve specimens and subjected them to an intensity of stress equal to the ultimate resistance of the material, but breaking the specimens. These were then allowed to rest, entirely free from stress, from 24 to 30 hours, after which period they were again tested until broken. The gain in ultimate resistance by the rest was found to be from 4.4 to 17 per cent.

This elevation of elastic and ultimate resistance appears to be peculiar to iron and steel; it has not been found in other metals.

Relation of the Elastic Limit to Endurance under Repeated Stresses. (condensed from *Engineering*, August 5, 1877.) When engineers first began to test materials, it was soon recognized that if a specimen was loaded beyond a certain point it did not recover its original dimensions on removing the load, but took a permanent set; this was called the elastic limit. Since below this point a bar appeared to completely its original form and dimensions on removing the load, it appeared obvious that it had not been injured by the load, and hence the safe load might be deduced from the elastic limit by using a small factor of safety.

Experience showed, however, that in many cases a bar would not safely sustain a stress anywhere near the elastic limit of the material as deduced by these experiments, and the whole theory of any connection between the elastic limit of a bar and its working load became almost discarded. Engineers employed the ultimate strength only in deducing the safe working load, so which their structures might be subjected. Still, as experience accumulated it was observed that a higher factor of safety was required for a load than for a dead one.

In 1871 Wöhler published the results of a number of experiments on iron and steel subjected to live loads. In these experiments the loads were put on and removed from the specimens without impact, but nevertheless, found that the breaking stress of the materials was at least one half as much as the static breaking load. Thus, a bar of Krupp steel having a tensile strength of 48,000 lbs. per square inch broke with a stress of 24,000 lbs. per square inch when the load was completely removed and the specimen was allowed to rest for some time. These experiments were made on a

best brands of iron and steel, and the results were concordant that a bar would break with an alternating stress of only a fractional breaking strength of the material, if the repetitions are sufficiently numerous. At the same time, however, it appears a general trend of the experiments that a bar would stand on an average of alternations of stress, provided the stress was kept

below the elastic limit as the point at which stress is directly proportional to strain, the latter being measured with a microscope reading to $\frac{1}{50000}$ th of a millimetre, or about $\frac{1}{100000}$ in.

Below the yield-point, and may on occasion be zero. On the other hand, above the yield-point, this point rises with the stress, and the yield-point may, after weeks, months, and possibly for years if the bar is left at rest. On the other hand, when a bar is loaded beyond its true yield-point, this limit rises, but reaches a maximum point, is approached, and then falls rapidly, reaching even below the yield-point at rest under a stress exceeding that of its yield-point. The elastic limit begins to rise again, and after a sufficient time, rise to a point much exceeding its previous

value. The elastic limit of changing with the history of a bar has been credited it than anything else, nevertheless it now seems as if every property, were once more to take its former place in the hands of engineers, and this time with fixity of tenure. It had long been known that the limit of elasticity might be raised, as we have said, to a point within the breaking load of a bar. Thus, in some experiments on cast-iron, the elastic limit of a puddled-steel bar was raised by subjecting the bar to a load exceeding its primitive elastic

limit of elasticity, one for tension and one for compression. A number of bars in tension until stress ceased to be proportional to strain. The load was then removed and the bar was put in compression until the elastic limit in this direction had been exceeded. The process raises the elastic limit in compression, as would be the case if the bar in compression a second time. In place of this, the bar was now again tested in tension, when it was found that the elastic limit in tension had lowered that in tension below its original value. By repeating the process of alternately testing in tension and compression, the two limits took up points at equal distances from the original limits of no load, both in tension and compression. These limits are the natural elastic limits of the bar, which for wrought iron is about 85 tons per square inch, but this is practically the limit to which a bar of the same material can be strained alternately in tension and compression, without breaking when the loading is repeated often, as determined by Wohler's method.

From the rolls the elastic limit of the bar in tension is above the elastic limit of the bar as defined by Bruschinger, having been lowered by the deformations to which it has been subjected in the manufacture. Hence, when subjected to alternating stresses, the elastic limit is immediately lowered, while that in compression is not lowered. Both correspond to equal loads. Hence, in Wohler's experiments, the bars broke at loads nominally below the elastic limit of the material, there is every reason for concluding that the loads were below the true elastic limits of the material. This is particularly so in the case of the connecting rods of engines, which of course work under stresses of equal intensity. Careful experiments on old rods show that the elastic limit in compression is the same as that in tension, and is far below the tension elastic limit of the material as determined by the rolls.

It is a common opinion that straining a metal beyond its elastic limit injures it. It is not the mere straining of a metal beyond one limit that injures it, but the straining, many times repeated, beyond the elastic limit. Sir Benjamin Baker has shown that in bending a shell of metal, if the metal is of necessity strained beyond its elastic limit, it will stand as much as 7 tons to 15 tons per square inch may obtain from the rolls, and unless the plate is annealed after it has been bent into the boiler. In such a case, the plate is subjected to the additional stress due to the pressure of the steam.

the boiler, the overstrained portions of the plate will relieve themselves by stretching and taking a permanent set, so that probably after a year or two very little difference could be detected in the stresses in a plate in the boiler as it came from the bending rolls, and in one which had been annealed, before riveting into place, and the first, in spite of its having been strained beyond its elastic limits, and not subsequently annealed, was as strong as the other.

Resistance of Metals to Repeated Shocks.

More than twelve years were spent by Wöhler at the instance of the Prussian Government in experimenting upon the resistance of iron and steel to repeated stresses. The results of his experiments are expressed in a law known as Wöhler's law, which is given in the following words in a translation of Weyrauch:

"Rupture may be caused not only by a steady load which exceeds the carrying strength, but also by repeated applications of stresses, the maximum of which are equal to the carrying strength. The differences of these stresses are measures of the disturbance of continuity, in so far as by their repetition the minimum stress which is still necessary for rupture diminishes."

A practical illustration of the meaning of the first portion of this law is given thus: If 50,000 pounds once applied will just break a bar of steel, a stress very much less than 50,000 pounds will break it if repeated sufficiently often.

This is fully confirmed by the experiments of Fairbairn and Spang, as well as those of Wöhler; and, as is remarked by Weyrauch, it is considered as a long-known result of common experience. It particularly counts for what Mr. Holley has called the "intrinsically ridiculous factor of safety of six."

Another "long-known result of experience" is the fact that rupture is caused by a succession of shocks or impacts, none of which alone would be sufficient to cause it. Iron axles, the piston-rods of steam engines, and other pieces of metal subject to continuously repeated shocks, invariably break after a certain length of service. They have a "life" which is limited.

Several years ago Fairbairn wrote: "We know that in some cases iron subjected to continuous vibration assumes a crystalline structure, that the cohesive powers are much deteriorated, but we are ignorant of the causes of this change." We are still ignorant, not only of the causes of this change, but of the conditions under which it takes place. What is the effect of vibration wrought iron subjected to very slight continuous vibration? Will it endure forever? or whether to insure final rupture each of the continuous shocks must amount at least to a certain percentage of single heavy shocks (both measured in foot pounds), which would cause rupture with one application? Wöhler found in testing iron by repeated stresses (not impacts) that in one case 400,000 applications of a stress of 500 centners to the square inch caused rupture, while a similar bar remained sound after 48,000,000 applications of a stress of 300 centners to the square inch (1 centner = 110 lb.).

Who knows whether or not a similar law holds true in regard to other metals? Suppose that a bar of iron would break under a single impact of 1000 foot-pounds, how many times would it be likely to bear the repetition of 100 foot-pounds, or would it be safe to allow it to remain for years subjected to a continual succession of blows of even 10 foot-pounds?

Mr. William Metcalf published in the *Metalurgical Review*, Dec. 1887, the results of some tests of the life of steel of different percentages of carbon under impact. Some small steel pitmans were made, the specifications of which required that the unloaded machine should run $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours at 1200 revolutions per minute before breaking.

The steel was all of uniform quality, except as to carbon. Here are the results: The

.30 C.	ran 1 h. 21 m.	Heated and bent before breaking.
.40 C.	" 1 h. 24 m.	" " " "
.48 C.	" 4 h. 37 m.	Broke without heating.
.65 C.	" 3 h. 50 m.	Broke at weld where imperfect.
.80 C.	" 5 h. 40 m.	" " " "
.84 C.	" 18 h.	" " " "
.87 C.	Broke in weld near the end.	" " " "
.94 C.	" 4.55 m.	and the machine broke down.

by Mr. Metcalf confirmed his conclusions.

low-carbon steel was better adapted to resist repeated shocks and vibrations, however, would scarcely be sufficient to induce any endur-

of carbon steel in a car axle or a bridge-rod. Further experiments are needed to confirm or overthrow them.

tion of proposed apparatus for such an investigation in the paper in *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vol. viii, p. 76, from which the above is taken.

Produced by Suddenly Applied Forces and Shocks.

Wansfield Merriman, *R. R. & Eng. Jour.*, Dec. 1880.)

A weight which is dropped from a height h upon the end of a bar will produce a maximum elongation which is produced. The work done by the falling weight, then, is

$$W = P(h + y),$$

where y is equal to the internal work of the resisting molecular stresses. The stress in the bar, which is at first 0, increases up to a certain limit Q , greater than P ; and if the elastic limit be not exceeded the elongation is uniform with the stress, so that the internal work is equal to the stress $1/2Q$ multiplied by the total elongation y , or

$$W = 1/2 Qy.$$

Equating the work that may be dissipated in heat,

$$1/2 Qy = Ph + Py.$$

The elongation due to the static load P , within the elastic limit is

$$Q = P \left(1 + \sqrt{1 + 2 \frac{h}{e}} \right), \quad \therefore \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

the momentary maximum stress. Substituting this value of Q ,

$$y = e \left(1 + \sqrt{1 + 2 \frac{h}{e}} \right), \quad \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

the value of the momentary maximum elongation.

Results when the force P , before its action on the bar, is moving, as is the case when a weight P falls from a height h . The results show that this height h may be small if e is a small quantity, even for great stresses and deformations be produced. For instance, if $e = 4e$, then $Q = 4P$ and $y = 4e$; also let $h = 12e$, then $Q = 6P$.

Or take a wrought-iron bar 1 in. square and 5 ft. long; under a load of 5000 lbs. this will be compressed about 0.0012 in., supposing a flexure occurs; but if a weight of 5000 lbs. drops upon its end from a height of 0.0048 in. there will be produced the stress of 30,000 lbs.

A suddenly applied force is one which acts with the uniform intensity P along the length of the bar, but which has no velocity before acting upon it, as in the case of $h = 0$ in the above formulas, and gives $Q = 2P$ for the maximum stress and maximum deformation. Production of a rapidly-moving train upon a bridge produces stresses of this nature.

On the Tensile Strength of Iron Bars by Twisting.

Ernest L. Ransome of San Francisco has obtained an English patent of 1888, for an "improvement in strengthening and testing of iron and steel rods or bars, consisting in twisting the same in a direction opposite to the direction of the lamination of the metal which would be concealed is revealed by twisting, and imperfections are shown by the treatment may be applied to bolts, suspension-rods or bars of any tensile strength of any description."

Results of this process were reported by Lieutenant F. P. Gilmore, in a paper read before the Technical Society of the Pacific Coast, in the Transactions of the Society for the month of December,

made in 1889 in the University of California. The experiments were made with thirty-nine bars, twenty-nine of which were

riously twisted, from three-eighths of one turn to six turns per foot. The test-pieces were cut from one and the same bar, and accurately measured and numbered. From each lot two pieces without twist were tested for tensile strength and ductility. One group of each set was twisted until the pieces broke, as a guide for the amount of twist to be given those tested for tensile strain.

The following is the result of one set of Lieut. Gilmore's tests, on bars 8 in. long, .719 in. diameter.

No. of Bars.	Conditions.	Twists in Turns.	Twists per ft.	Tensile Strength.	Tensile per sq. in.	Gain in Weight.
2	Not twisted.	0	0	22,000	34,730	
2	Twisted cold.	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	23,000	39,920	
2	" "	1	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	25,800	43,500	
2	" "	2	3	26,300	44,740	
1	" "	2 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	26,400	45,000	

TENSILE STRENGTH.

The following data are usually obtained in testing by tension in a testing machine a sample of a material of construction:

The load and the amount of extension at the elastic limit.

The maximum load applied before rupture.

The elongation of the piece, measured between gauge-marks placed at a stated distance apart before the test; and the reduction of area at the point of fracture.

The load at the elastic limit and the maximum load are recorded in pounds per square inch of the original area. The elongation is recorded as a percentage of the stated length between the gauge-marks, and the reduction of area as a percentage of the original area. The coefficient of elasticity is calculated from the ratio the extension within the elastic limit per inch length bears to the load per square inch producing that extension.

On account of the difficulty of making accurate measurements of the fractured area of a test-piece, and of the fact that elongation is more valuable than reduction of area as a measure of ductility and of resistance to fracture of resistance before rupture, modern experimenters are abandoning the custom of reporting reduction of area. The "strength per square inch of fractured section" formerly frequently used in reporting tests is now almost entirely abandoned. The data now calculated from the results of a tensile test for commercial purposes are: 1. Tensile strength in pounds per square inch of original area. 2. Elongation per cent of a stated length between gauge-marks, usually 8 inches. 3. Elastic limit in pounds per square inch of original area.

The short or grooved test specimen gives with most metals, especially with wrought iron and steel, an apparent tensile strength much less than the real strength. This form of test-piece is now almost entirely abandoned.

The following results of the tests of six specimens from the same 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " bar illustrate the apparent elevation of elastic limit and the change in other properties due to change in length of stems which were turned in each specimen to .798" diameter. (Jas. E. Howard, Eng. Congress, Section G.)

Description of Stem	Elastic Limit, Lbs. per Sq. In.	Tensile Strength, Lbs. per Sq. In.	Contraction of Area, per cent.
1.00" long.....	64,000	94,400	49.0
.50 "	65,320	97,500	43.4
.25 "	68,000	102,430	39.6
Semicircular groove, 4" radius.....	75,000	116,380	31.6
Semicircular groove, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " radius.....	86,000, about	134,960	23.8
V-shaped groove.....	90,000, about	117,000	Indeterminate

made by the author in 1879 of straight and grooved test-pieces of steel cut from the same gave the following results:

Straight pieces, 56,605 to 59,012 lbs. T. S. Aver. 57,566 lbs.

Grooved " 64,341 to 67,400 " " 65,452 "

the short or grooved specimen, 21 per cent, or 12,114 lbs.

Method of Elongation.—In order to be able to compare elongation, it is necessary not only to have a uniform length of gauge-marks (say 8 inches), but to adopt a uniform method of the elongation to compensate for the difference between the elongation when the piece breaks near one of the gauge-marks, or breaks midway between them. The following method is recommended. A. S. M. E., vol. xi, p. 622:

Divide specimen into divisions of 1/2 inch each. After fracture measure length of fracture the length of 8 of the marked spaces on each side (or 7 + on one side and 8 + on the other if the fracture is in the marks). The sum of these measurements, less 8 inches, is the elongation of 8 inches of the original length. If the fracture is so near one of the specimen that 7 + spaces are not left on the shorter side, take the measurement of as many spaces (with the fractional part of the fracture) as are left, and for the spaces lacking add the length of as many corresponding spaces of the longer portion as are needed to make the 7 + spaces.

Specimens for Tensile Tests.—The shapes shown are recommended by the author in 1882 when he was connected

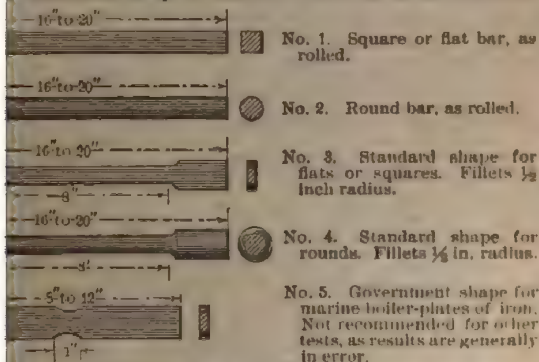


FIG. 75.

though Testing Laboratory. They are now in most general use, with 5 inches or less in length between shoulders. Entirely abandoned.

Points Required in making Tensile Tests.—The line itself should be tested, to determine whether it is weighing accurately, and whether it is so made and adjusted that in the properly made specimen the line of strain of the testing-machine is in line with the axis of the specimen.

Specimens should be so shaped that it will not give an incorrect record of uniform minimum section for not less than five inches of

length. It is to be had to the time occupied in making tests of certain materials that iron and soft steel can be made to show a higher than their true strength by keeping them under strain for a great length

of time. In the case of alloys, copper, tin, zinc, and the like, which flow under strain, the highest apparent strength is obtained by testing them after a long time. In the case of such materials the length of time occupied in the test should be stated.

For very accurate measurements of elongation, corresponding increments of load during the tests, the electric contact micrometer in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. vi., p. 479, will be found convenient. Readings of elongation are then taken during the test, a strain diagram plotted from the reading, which is useful in comparing the qualities of different specimens. Such strain diagrams are made automatically by Olsen testing-machine, described in *Jour. Frank. Inst.* 1891.

The coefficient of elasticity should be deduced from measurements between fixed increments of load per unit section, say between 12,000 pounds per square inch or between 1000 and 11,000 pounds of between 0 and 10,000 pounds.

COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH.

What is meant by the term "compressive strength" has not been settled by the authorities, and there exists more confusion in regard to this term than in regard to any other used by writers on strength of materials. The reason of this may be easily explained. The effect of a compressive stress upon a material varies with the nature of the material, and the shape and size of the specimen tested. While the effect of a tensile stress to produce rupture or separation of particles in the direction of the strain, the effect of a compressive stress on a piece of material may be to cause it to fly into splinters, to separate into two or more wedge-shaped pieces and fly apart, to bulge, buckle, or bend, or to flatten out and resist rupture or separation of particles. A piece of steel under a compressive stress will exhibit no change of appearance until rupture takes place, and then it will fly to pieces as suddenly as if blown apart by powder. A piece of cast iron or of stone will generally split into wedge-shaped fragments. A piece of wrought iron will buckle or bend. A piece of wood or zinc may bulge, but its action will depend upon its shape. A piece of lead will flatten out and resist compression till the last, that is, the more it is compressed the greater becomes its resistance.

Air and other gaseous bodies are compressible to any extent, and they retain the gaseous condition. Water not confined in a vessel is pressed by its own weight to the thickness of a mere film, while when confined in a vessel it is almost incompressible.

It is probable, although it has not been determined experimentally, that solid bodies when confined are at least as incompressible as water. If they are not confined, the effect of a compressive stress is not to shorten them, but also to increase their lateral dimensions or bulge. Lateral strains are therefore induced by compressive stresses.

The weight per square inch of original section required to produce a given amount or percentage of shortening of any material is not a constant quantity, but varies with both the length and the sectional area, and with the shape of this sectional area, and with the relation of the area to the length. The "compressive strength" of a material, if this term be supposed to mean the weight in pounds per square inch necessary to cause rupture, is not a constant with every size and shape of specimen experimented upon. Still, it is not difficult to state what is the "compressive strength" of a material, which does not rupture at all, but flattens out. Suppose we have a cylinder of a soft metal like lead, two inches in length and one inch in diameter. A certain weight will shorten it one per cent, another weight will shorten it five per cent, another fifty per cent, but no weight that we can place upon it will rupture it, for it will flatten out to a thin sheet. What, then, is its compressive strength? Again, a similar cylinder of soft wrought iron will compress a few per cent, bulging evenly all around; it would then begin to bend, but at first the bend would be imperceptible to the touch, and too small to be measured. Soon this bend would be great enough to be noticed, and finally the piece might be bent nearly double, or otherwise deformed. What is the "compressive strength" of this piece of iron? It is the weight per square inch which compresses the piece one per cent, that which causes the first bending (impossible to be determined), or that which causes a perceptible bend.

As showing the confusion concerning the definitions of compressive strength, the following statements from different authorities on the strength of wrought iron are of interest.

Wood's *Resistance of Materials* states, "comparatively few experiments have been made to determine how much wrought iron will sustain a load of".

Dickinson gives 65,000, Rondulet 70,000, &c.

the diameter, does not vary much, provided the length of the specimen is less than one and does not exceed four or five diameters, and that which will just crush a short prism whose base equals one and whose height is not less than 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ and does not exceed $1\frac{1}{2}$ is called the crushing strength of the material. It would seem that experimenters would all agree upon some such definition of the crushing strength," and insist that all experiments which are made for the purpose of testing the relative values of different materials in compression should be made on specimens of exactly the same shape and size. An area of section and shape should be assumed and agreed upon for this purpose. The area mentioned by Stoney is definite as regards area of section, one square inch, but is indefinite as regards length, viz., from one to five diameters. In some metals a specimen five diameters long would bend, and show a lower apparent strength than a specimen having a length of one diameter. The words "will just crush" are also indefinite for ductile materials, in which the resistance increases without limit if the piece tested is long enough. In such cases the weight which causes a certain percentage of compression, as five, ten, or fifty per cent, should be assumed as the crushing strength.

In experiments on crushing strength three things are desirable: first, a uniform standard shape and size of test specimen for comparison with others. Secondly, a standard limit of compression for ductile materials shall be considered equivalent to fracture in brittle materials. Thirdly, an accurate knowledge of the relation of the crushing strength of a specimen of standard shape and size to the crushing strength of specimens of all other shapes and sizes. The latter can only be obtained by a very extensive and accurate series of experiments upon all materials, and on specimens of a great number of different shapes

and sizes. Mr. Stoney proposes, as a standard shape and size, for a compressive test on all metals, a cylinder one inch in length, and one-half square inch in cross-sectional area, or 0.708 inch diameter; and for the limit of compression to fracture, ten per cent of the original length. The term "crushing strength," or "compressive strength of standard specimen," shall mean the weight per square inch required to fracture by compression a cylinder one inch long and 0.708 inch diameter, or to reduce its length to 0.9 inch if fracture does not take place before that reduction.

The Committee on Standard Tests of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers say (vol. xi., p. 624):

"Although compression tests have heretofore been made on double sample pieces, it is highly desirable that tests be also made on long pieces from 10 to 20 diameters in length, corresponding more nearly with practice, in order that elastic strain and change of shape may be determined by using proper measuring apparatus.

The elastic limit, modulus or coefficient of elasticity, maximum and ultimate resistances, should be determined, as well as the increase of section at various points, viz., at bearing surfaces and at crippling point.

The use of long compression-test pieces is recommended, because investigation of short cubes or cylinders has led to no direct appreciation of the constants obtained by their use in computation of actual strength, which have always been and are now designed according to empirical results obtained from a few tests of long columns."

COLUMNS, PILLARS, OR STRUTS.

Hodgkinson's Formula for Columns.

P = crushing weight in pounds; d = exterior diameter in inches; d_i = interior diameter in inches; L = length in feet.

Kind of Column.	Both ends rounded, the length of the column exceeding 15 times its diameter.	Both ends flat, length of the column exceeding 20 times its diameter.
Solid cylindrical columns of cast iron.....	$P = 33,380 \frac{d^{3.75}}{L^{1.75}}$	$P = 28,920 \frac{d^{3.75}}{L^{1.75}}$
Hollow cylindrical columns of cast iron.....	$P = 39,130 \frac{d^{3.75} - d_i^{3.75}}{L^{1.75}}$	$P = 99,320 \frac{d^{3.75} - d_i^{3.75}}{L^{1.75}}$
Solid cylindrical columns of wrought iron.....	$P = 95,350 \frac{d^{3.75}}{L^{1.75}}$	$P = 229,600 \frac{d^{3.75}}{L^{1.75}}$
Solid square pillar of Dantzle oak (dry).....	$P = 24,540 \frac{d^3}{L^3}$
Solid square pillar of red deal (dry).....	$P = 17,510 \frac{d^3}{L^3}$

The above formulæ apply only in cases in which the length is so great the column breaks by bending and not by simple crushing. If the column be shorter than that given in the table, and more than four or five times diameter, the strength is found by the following formula:

$$W = \frac{PCK}{P + \frac{3}{4}CK^2}$$

in which P = the value given by the preceding formulas, K = the transverse section of the column in square inches, C = the ultimate compressive resistance of the material, and W = the crushing strength of the column.

Hodgkinson's experiments were made upon comparatively short columns, the greatest length of cast-iron columns being 60½ inches, of wrought-iron 90¾ inches.

The following are some of his conclusions:

1. In all long pillars of the same dimensions, when the force is applied in the direction of the axis, the strength of one which has flat ends is three times as great as one with rounded ends.

2. The strength of a pillar with one end rounded and the other flat is an arithmetical mean between the two given in the preceding case of the same dimensions.

3. The strength of a pillar having both ends firmly fixed is the same as one of half the length with both ends rounded.

4. The strength of a pillar is not increased more than one seventh by

Formulas deduced from Hodgkinson's experiments are more accurate than Hodgkinson's own. They are:

1. **Both ends fixed or flat,** $P = \frac{fS}{1 + \frac{a^2}{r^2}}$;

2. **One end flat, the other end round,** $P = \frac{fS}{1 + 1.8\frac{a^2}{r^2}}$;

3. **Both ends round, or hinged,** $P = \frac{fS}{1 + 4\frac{a^2}{r^2}}$;

S = cross-section in inches;

f = resistance of column, in pounds;

a = strength of the material in lbs. per square inch;

r = radius of gyration, in inches, $r^2 = \frac{\text{Moment of inertia}}{\text{area of section}}$;

a = length of column in inches;

P = load depending upon the material;

f and a are taken as constants; they are really empirical variables, depending upon the dimensions and character of the column as well as upon the material.

For iron columns, values commonly taken are: $f = 36,000$ to $40,000$ lbs. per square inch.

For steel columns, $f = 80,000$, $a = \frac{1}{6400}$.

For iron columns, fixed ends, $P = \frac{80,000}{1 + \frac{1}{800} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$, l = length and d = diameter in same unit, and P = strength in lbs. per square inch.

For steel, $f = 67,000$ lbs., $a = \frac{1}{23,400}$.

For wrought steel, $f = 114,000$ lbs., $a = \frac{1}{14,400}$.

These are only loose approximations for the ultimate resistance.

For wrought steel, $f = 72,000$ lbs., $a = 1/3000$.

For cast iron, $f = 72,000$ lbs., $a = 1/3000$.

INERTIA AND RADIUS OF GYRATION.

Moment of inertia of a section is the sum of the products of the area of the section into the square of its distance from an axis, as the neutral axis.

Radius of gyration of the section equals the square root of the moment of inertia divided by the area of the section. If I = moment of inertia and A = area,

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}. \quad I = AR^2.$$

Moments of inertia of various sections are as follows:

d = outside diameter; d_1 = inside diameter; h = breadth; b = inside breadth and diameter;

1. $\frac{1}{12}bh^3$; Hollow rectangle $I = \frac{1}{12}(bh^3 - b_1h_1^3)$;

2. $\frac{1}{12}bd^3$; Hollow square $I = \frac{1}{12}(bd^3 - b_1d_1^3)$;

3. $\frac{1}{64}\pi d^4$; Hollow cylinder $I = \frac{1}{64}\pi(d^4 - d_1^4)$.

Moment and Radius of Gyration for Various Sections.

Their Use in the Formulas for Strength of Columns. The strength of sections to resist strains, as columns, depends not only on the area but also on the shape and the property of the section which forms the basis of the formulas for strength of girders and beams. The most important property of the form is its moment of inertia about the axis of resistance of any section to transverse strain.

is its moment of inertia divided by the distance from the neutral axis to the fibres farthest removed from that axis; or

$$\text{Moment of resistance} = \frac{\text{Moment of inertia}}{\text{Distance of extreme fibre from axis}}$$

Moment of Inertia of Compound Shapes. (See Works.)—The moment of inertia of any section about any axis is equal to the moment of inertia about a parallel axis passing through its centre of gravity + the area of the section \times the square of the distance between the axes.

By this rule, the moments of inertia or radii of gyration of any section being known, corresponding values may be obtained for any other section of these sections.

Radius of Gyration of Compound Shapes.—In the case of any shape without a web the value of R can always be found by considering the moment of inertia.

The radius of gyration for any section around an axis parallel to the axis passing through its centre of gravity is found as follows:

Let r = radius of gyration around axis through centre of gravity; R = radius of gyration around another axis parallel to above; d = distance between axes:

$$R = \sqrt{d^2 + r^2}.$$

When r is small, R may be taken as equal to d without material error.

Graphical Method for Finding Radius of Gyration.—F. La Rue, *Eng. News*, Feb. 2, 1883, gives a short graphical method for finding the radius of gyration of hollow, cylindrical, and rectangular columns, as follows:

For cylindrical columns:

Lay off to a scale of 4 (or 40) a right-angled triangle, in which the base equals the outer diameter, and the altitude equals the inner diameter of column, or *vice versa*. The hypotenuse, measured to a scale of 10, will be the radius of gyration sought.

This depends upon the formula

$$G = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Mom. of Inertia}}{\text{Area}}} = \frac{\sqrt{D^2 + d^2}}{4},$$

in which A = area and D = diameter of outer circle, a = area and a = moment of inner circle, and G = radius of gyration. $\sqrt{D^2 + d^2}$ is the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, in which D and d are base and altitude.

The sectional area of a hollow round column is $.7854(D^2 - d^2)$. Constructing a right-angled triangle in which D equals the hypotenuse, the base equals the altitude, the base will equal $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{D^2 - d^2}$. Calling the result B , the area will equal $.7854B^2$.

Value of G for square columns:

Lay off as before, but using a scale of 10, a right-angled triangle, in which the base equals D or the side of the outer square, and the altitude equals the side of the inner square. With a scale of 3 measure the hypotenuse, which will be, approximately, the radius of gyration.

This process for square columns gives an excess of slightly more than 4% from the result, a close approximation will be obtained.

A very close result is also obtained by measuring the hypotenuse on the same scale by which the base and altitude were laid off, and multiplying the decimal 0.29; more exactly, the decimal is 0.28867.

The formula is

$$G = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Mom. of inertia}}{\text{Area}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}} \sqrt{D^2 + d^2} = 0.28867 \sqrt{D^2 + d^2}.$$

This may also be applied to any rectangular column by using the dimensions of an unsupported column, and the greater diameter if the column is supported in the direction of its least dimensions.

ELEMENTS OF USUAL SECTIONS.

Moments refer to horizontal axis through centre of gravity. The values intended for convenient application where extreme accuracy is not required. Some of the terms are only approximate; those marked * are values for radius of gyration in flanged beams apply to standard I-sections only. A = area of section; b = breadth; h = depth; D =

Form.	Moment of Inertia.	Moment of Resistance.	Square of Least Radius of Gyration.	Least Radius of Gyration.
Rect.	$\frac{bh^3}{12}$	$\frac{bh^3}{6}$	$\frac{(Least\ side)^2}{12}$	$\frac{Least\ side}{3.46}$
* Rect.	$\frac{bh^3 - b_1h_1^3}{12}$	$\frac{bh^3 - b_1h_1^3}{6h}$	$\frac{h^3 + h_1^3}{12}$	$\frac{h + h_1}{4.80}$
Circle.	$\frac{AD^3}{16}$	$\frac{AD^3}{8}$	$\frac{D^2}{16}$	$\frac{D}{4}$
* Circle. Dia. of section; dia. of base section	$\frac{AD^3 - ad^3}{16}$	$\frac{AD^3 - ad^3}{8D}$	$\frac{D^2 + d^2}{16}$	$\frac{D + d}{5.64}$
Triangle.	$\frac{bh^3}{36}$	$\frac{bh^3}{24}$	The least of of the two: $\frac{h^3}{18}$ or $\frac{b^3}{24}$	The least of the two: $\frac{h}{4.24}$ or $\frac{b}{4.9}$
Angle.	$\frac{Ah^3}{10.2}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{7.2}$	$\frac{b^3}{25}$	$\frac{b}{5}$
* Angle.	$\frac{Ah^3}{9.6}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{6.5}$	$\frac{(hb)^2}{13(h^2 + b^2)}$	$\frac{hb}{2.6(h + b)}$
Gross.	$\frac{Ah^3}{19}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{9.5}$	$\frac{h^3}{22.5}$	$\frac{h}{4.74}$
Tree.	$\frac{Ah^3}{11.1}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{8}$	$\frac{b^3}{22.5}$	$\frac{b}{4.74}$
o.	$\frac{Ah^3}{6.68}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{8.2}$	$\frac{b^3}{21}$	$\frac{b}{4.58}$
ed.	$\frac{Ah^3}{7.34}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{8.07}$	$\frac{b^3}{12.5}$	$\frac{b}{8.54}$
Beam.	$\frac{Ah^3}{6.0}$	$\frac{Ah^3}{4}$	$\frac{b^3}{10.5}$	$\frac{b}{6}$

from centre of gravity, solid triangle, $\frac{h}{5}$; even angle, $\frac{h}{3.3}$;
even tee, $\frac{h}{3.3}$; deck beam, $\frac{h}{2.8}$; all other shapes given in

Solid Cast-Iron Columns.

Table gives the following values based on Hodgkinson's formula.

The figures are the safe load or $\frac{1}{2}$ of the breaking weight in tons, columns being fixed at each end.

Diameter in inches	Length of Column in Feet							
	6.	8.	10.	12.	14.	16.	18.	20.
1	32	50	64	80	95	110	125	140
1½	143	225	280	344	404	464	524	584
2	312	496	625	768	912	1056	1200	1344
2½	552	864	1072	1296	1536	1776	2016	2256
3	864	1368	1712	2072	2432	2792	3152	3512
3½	1248	1968	2464	2984	3504	4024	4544	5064
4	1728	2752	3456	4192	4928	5664	6400	7136
4½	2304	3712	4640	5584	6528	7472	8416	9360
5	2976	4768	5952	7168	8384	9592	10800	12008
5½	3744	5984	7456	8960	10464	11968	13472	14976
6	4608	7392	9216	11072	12928	14784	16640	18496
6½	5568	8896	11072	13280	15472	17664	19856	22048
7	6624	10592	13120	15680	18240	20800	23360	25920
7½	7776	12416	15360	18432	21488	24544	27600	30656
8	9024	14368	17728	21216	24992	28768	32544	36320
8½	10368	16448	20384	24224	28224	32448	36672	40896
9	11808	18656	22912	27360	31776	36224	40704	45232
9½	13344	21008	25824	30816	35456	40144	45072	50000
10	14976	23504	28960	34592	39472	44512	49552	54592
10½	16704	26144	32320	38688	44000	49600	55072	60544
11	18528	28928	35936	42912	48832	54656	60688	66720
11½	20448	31856	39712	47360	53984	60000	66048	72000
12	22464	34928	43744	52032	59376	65536	72064	78608

The correction for short columns should be applied where the length is less than 30 diameters.

$$\text{Strength in tons of short columns} = \frac{SC}{10S + \frac{3}{4}C}$$

S being the strength for long columns given in the above table, and C being the sectional area of the metal in inches.

Hollow Columns.—The strength nearly equals the difference between that of two solid columns the diameters of which are equal to external and internal diameters of the hollow one.

Ultimate Strength of Hollow, Cylindrical Wrought Cast-Iron Columns, when fixed at the ends.

(Pottsville Iron and Steel Co.)

$$\text{Computed by Gordon's formula, } p = \frac{f}{1 + C \left(\frac{l}{d} \right)^2}$$

p = Ultimate strength in lbs. per square inch;

l = Length of column, d both in same units;

d = Diameter of column;

f = 40,000 lbs. for wrought iron; 40,000 lbs. for cast-iron;

C = 1,300 for wrought iron, and 1,900 for cast-iron.

For cast-iron,
$$p = \frac{80000}{1 + \frac{1}{800} \left(\frac{l}{d} \right)^2}$$

For wrought-iron,
$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{3000} \left(\frac{l}{d} \right)^2}$$

HOLLOW CYLINDRICAL COLUMNS.

Maximum Load per sq. in.

Safe Load per square inch.

Cast Iron.	Wrought Iron.	Cast Iron. Factor of 6.	Wrought Iron. Factor of 4.
74075	89164	12946	9791
71110	84710	11851	9677
67796	80468	10990	9542
64256	75516	10109	9386
60606	70854	10101	9243
56938	66100	9489	9025
54432	63294	8889	8823
49845	64442	8307	8610
46510	62556	7751	8389
43460	60643	7226	8161
40404	61712	6731	7928
37616	60768	6274	7692
35088	59820	5848	7455
32718	58874	5453	7218
30584	57932	5097	6983
28520	57002	4753	6750
26595	56086	4444	6522
24662	55188	4160	6297
23006	54310	3899	6077
21546	53454	3658	5863
20018	52620	3436	5655
18592	51818	3262	5454
18242	51036	3047	5259
17222	50284	2870	5071
16260	49556	2710	4880
15368	48856	2561	4714
14544	48180	2424	4545

Ultimate Strength of Wrought-Iron Columns.

p = ultimate strength per square inch;

l = length of column in inches;

r = least radius of gyration in inches.

End-bearings,

$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{40000} \left(\frac{l}{r} \right)^2}$$

Pin and one square bearing,

$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{30000} \left(\frac{l}{r} \right)^2}$$

Pin-bearings,

$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{20000} \left(\frac{l}{r} \right)^2}$$

Working load on these columns use a factor of 4 when used in
for which subjected to dead load only; but when used in to
should be 5.

WROUGHT-IRON COLUMNS.

$\frac{l}{r}$	Ultimate Strength in lbs. per square inch.			$\frac{l}{r}$	Safe Strength in lbs. per square inch—Factor	
	Square Ends.	Pin and Square End.	Pin Ends.		Square Ends.	Pin and Square End.
10	39944	39666	39800	10	7989	7973
15	39770	39702	39554	15	7955	7940
20	39604	39473	39214	20	7921	7894
25	39394	39182	38798	25	7877	7836
30	39118	38831	38278	30	7821	7767
35	38810	38490	37690	35	7762	7696
40	38460	37974	37036	40	7692	7595
45	38072	37470	36322	45	7614	7494
50	37646	36928	35535	50	7529	7386
55	37182	36396	34734	55	7437	7267
60	36697	35714	33898	60	7339	7143
65	36182	34978	33024	65	7230	6996
70	35634	34184	32129	70	7117	6857
75	35076	33322	31218	75	7015	6736
80	34482	32466	30288	80	6906	6593
85	33883	31596	29344	85	6777	6447
90	33261	31466	28470	90	6653	6299
95	32636	30750	27562	95	6527	6150
100	32000	30000	26606	100	6400	6000
105	31357	29250	25786	105	6271	5850

Maximum Permissible Stresses in columns used in buildings.
(Building Ordinances of City of Chicago, 1893.)

Maximum permissible loads:

For cast-iron round columns:

$$S = \frac{10000a}{1 + \frac{l^2}{600r^2}}, \quad \begin{array}{l} l = \text{length of column in inches;} \\ d = \text{diameter of column in inches;} \\ a = \text{area of column in square inches.} \end{array}$$

For cast-iron rectangular columns:

$$S = \frac{10000a}{1 + \frac{l^2}{800r^2}}, \quad \begin{array}{l} l \text{ and } a \text{ as before;} \\ d = \text{least horizontal dimension of column.} \end{array}$$

For riveted or other forms of wrought iron columns:

$$S = \frac{12000a}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30000r^2}}, \quad \begin{array}{l} l = \text{and } a \text{ as before;} \\ r = \text{least radius of gyration in inches.} \end{array}$$

For riveted or other steel columns, if more than 60' in length:

$$S = 17,000 - \frac{90l}{r}, \quad l \text{ and } r \text{ as before.}$$

If less than 60' in length:

$$S = 13,500a, \quad a \text{ as before.}$$

For wooden posts:

$$S = \frac{ac}{1 + \frac{l^2}{2500d^2}}, \quad \begin{array}{l} a = \text{area of post in square inches;} \\ d = \text{least side of rectangular post in inches;} \\ l = \text{length of post in inches;} \\ c = \begin{cases} 650 & \text{for white or Norway pine;} \\ 800 & \text{for oak;} \\ 900 & \text{for long-leaf yellow pine.} \end{cases} \end{array}$$

LOAD OF HOLLOW CYLINDRICAL CAST-IRON COLUMNS. (New Jersey Steel Iron Co.)

(One fifth the breaking weight.)

Following tables give the safe load in tons of 2,000 lbs., for columns of cast-iron, and bases accurately turned to a true plane, and having a true bearing on these surfaces. In the case of columns having flanges, but set only with the degrees of care usual in ordinary building, half of these loads should be taken; and for columns not turned at the rounded ends, one third of these amounts should be taken for load. Columns having one end accurately turned to a true plane, the other rounded, may be loaded to two thirds the amount given in the

Load, in Tons of 2000 lbs. for Cast-Iron Columns with Turned Capitals and Bases.

Outside Diameter, inches.	Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 3 inches.			Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 4 inches.			Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 4 inches.				
		Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.				
		1/4	3/8	1		1/4	3/8	1		1/4	3/8	1	1 1/4	
17.2	17	3.0	3.6	8.0	7	24.9	32.0	38.3	41.7	17	7.0	8.9	10.1	10.7
14.0	18	2.8	3.3	3.5	8	21.7	28.4	33.0	35.8	18	6.4	8.1	9.1	9.7
11.4	19	2.5	3.0	3.2	9	19.0	24.8	28.7	31.0	19	5.8	7.3	8.3	8.8
9.6	20	2.3	2.7	2.9	10	17.4	22.0	24.9	26.3	20	5.3	6.8	7.8	8.1
8.1	21	2.1	2.5	2.7	11	14.8	18.7	21.1	22.4	21	4.9	6.2	7.0	7.5
7.0	22	1.9	2.3	2.5	12	12.7	16.2	18.2	19.3	22	4.6	5.8	6.6	6.9
6.1	23	1.8	2.1	2.3	13	11.1	14.1	15.9	16.8	23	4.2	5.3	6.0	6.4
5.4	24	1.7	2.0	2.1	14	9.8	12.4	14.0	14.9	24	3.9	5.0	5.6	5.9
4.8	25	1.6	1.9	2.0	15	8.7	11.1	12.5	13.2	25	3.7	4.6	5.2	5.5
4.3					16	7.8	9.9	11.2	11.8					

Inside Diameter, 6 inches.		Outside Diameter, 6 inches.				Outside Diameter, 7 inches.			
Length in inches.		Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.			
1	1 1/4	1/4	1	1 1/4	1 1/2	1/4	1	1 1/4	1 1/2
65.0	73.3	77.3	95.5	110.3	132.1	102.4	128.7	150.7	169.4
57.3	61.4	69.7	85.2	98.7	108.8	89.6	117.0	136.0	153.5
50.7	50.8	62.8	77.1	88.5	97.3	80.6	106.7	121.0	129.3
45.1	50.4	56.9	69.0	79.6	87.4	73.4	97.5	113.5	120.6
40.3	44.2	51.6	63.0	71.9	78.7	67.1	89.2	103.6	115.3
36.2	40.3	46.0	57.2	65.2	71.2	60.0	81.7	94.8	105.3
32.2	35.3	42.0	52.1	59.3	64.6	53.7	75.1	87.0	96.5
28.3	31.0	38.3	47.6	54.1	58.9	48.0	69.2	80.0	88.6
24.6	27.6	34.8	43.9	49.0	52.6	42.8	63.9	73.8	81.6
21.4	24.7	31.0	39.4	44.0	47.2	38.1	59.3	68.9	75.1
18.5	22.3	28.8	35.6	39.7	42.5	34.0	54.0	63.2	69.8
16.5	20.4	27.0	32.2	36.0	38.6	30.9	50.9	57.8	61.0
14.4	18.4	24.6	29.1	32.8	35.2	28.2	46.4	52.7	57.4
13.4	16.9	22.6	26.9	30.1	32.5	25.9	42.5	48.3	52.6
12.4	15.5	20.7	24.8	27.7	29.7	23.9	39.1	44.5	48.4
11.4	14.1	19.2	22.9	25.6	27.4	22.1	36.2	41.1	44.7
10.3	12.8	17.8	21.2	23.7	25.1	20.7	33.5	38.5	41.5
9.3	11.8	16.6	19.7	22.1	23.7	19.5	31.2	35.4	38.6
8.3	10.8	15.4	18.4	20.6	22.1	18.0	29.1	33.1	36.0

Safe Load, in Tons of 2000 lbs. for Cast-Iron Columns with Turned Capitals and Bases.

Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 8 inches.				Outside Diameter, 9 inches.				Outside Diameter, 10 inches.			
	Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.			
	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$
7	128.3	162.0	193.0	219.5	154.8	197.7	238.6	271.4	181.6	233.4	278.4	311.4
8	118.7	150.1	177.7	201.8	144.7	184.5	220.2	252.0	171.1	219.5	261.4	294.4
9	109.8	138.5	163.6	185.2	135.0	171.8	204.7	233.9	160.9	206.2	244.4	277.4
10	101.5	127.8	150.7	170.2	126.0	160.0	190.3	217.0	151.2	193.4	227.4	259.4
11	94.0	118.0	139.0	156.7	117.5	149.0	177.0	201.4	142.0	181.4	211.4	240.4
12	87.0	109.2	128.2	144.3	109.6	138.8	164.5	187.0	133.4	170.1	197.4	224.4
13	80.7	101.1	118.5	133.2	102.4	129.4	153.2	173.9	125.3	159.6	183.4	208.4
14	75.0	93.8	109.8	123.2	95.7	120.8	142.8	161.9	117.8	149.8	171.4	194.4
15	69.8	87.1	101.9	114.3	89.5	112.9	133.3	150.9	110.8	140.7	160.4	181.4
16	65.0	81.1	94.7	106.1	83.9	105.7	124.0	140.9	104.3	132.4	150.4	170.4
17	60.7	75.7	88.3	98.7	78.7	99.0	116.7	131.8	98.3	124.6	140.4	158.4
18	56.8	70.7	82.4	92.1	73.9	92.9	109.4	123.5	92.7	117.4	134.4	150.4
19	53.2	66.2	77.1	86.1	69.6	87.4	102.7	118.9	87.5	110.8	126.4	140.4
20	51.1	62.7	72.1	79.5	65.5	82.3	96.7	108.9	82.7	104.6	120.4	133.4
21	47.0	57.7	66.4	73.2	61.8	75.5	91.0	102.6	78.3	99.0	113.4	125.4
22	43.5	53.3	61.3	67.6	58.4	73.2	85.9	96.7	74.2	93.7	107.4	118.4
23	40.3	49.4	56.8	62.7	55.9	69.3	80.4	90.5	70.1	88.9	101.4	111.4
24	37.5	46.0	52.9	58.3	53.0	64.4	74.8	84.7	66.6	84.3	96.4	105.4
25	35.0	42.9	49.3	54.4	48.5	60.1	69.8	77.7	64.9	81.0	91.4	99.4

Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 11 inches.				Outside Diameter, 12 inches.				Outside Diameter, 13 inches.			
	Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.			
	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2
7	269.1	325.0	377.6	469.5	306.3	370.8	431.7	540.9	341.5	414.4	478.4	594.4
8	255.1	308.1	356.8	442.2	290.9	352.8	410.2	512.8	327.0	396.3	457.4	567.4
9	241.2	290.8	336.3	415.0	276.6	335.0	389.1	485.0	312.4	378.4	437.4	544.4
10	227.8	271.2	316.7	390.3	262.7	317.7	368.6	458.3	298.0	360.6	417.4	521.4
11	214.9	258.4	308.1	366.3	249.2	301.0	348.8	432.9	284.0	344.4	398.4	498.4
12	202.7	243.5	289.5	343.9	236.3	285.1	330.0	408.6	270.5	326.7	377.4	473.4
13	191.2	229.1	274.0	322.8	223.9	270.0	312.2	385.7	257.5	310.8	358.4	450.4
14	180.6	216.2	258.5	309.3	212.3	255.6	295.3	364.1	245.0	295.5	340.4	428.4
15	170.3	203.9	243.1	295.1	201.2	242.1	279.4	343.9	233.2	281.1	323.4	408.4
16	160.9	192.4	230.7	268.3	190.8	229.4	264.5	325.0	222.0	267.3	307.4	384.4
17	152.1	181.7	218.2	252.7	181.1	217.5	250.6	307.4	211.3	254.4	291.4	364.4
18	143.9	171.7	206.7	238.3	171.9	206.3	237.5	290.9	201.3	242.1	277.4	344.4
19	136.2	162.5	195.9	225.0	163.3	195.8	225.3	275.6	191.8	230.6	264.4	328.4
20	129.1	153.0	186.0	212.6	155.2	186.0	212.0	261.3	182.8	219.7	250.4	312.4
21	122.4	145.0	166.7	201.2	147.7	176.9	203.2	247.9	174.4	209.5	237.4	296.4
22	116.3	138.4	158.1	190.6	140.6	168.3	193.3	235.5	166.5	199.9	227.4	284.4
23	110.5	131.5	150.1	180.7	134.0	160.3	184.0	224.0	159.0	190.6	218.4	274.4
24	105.2	125.1	142.7	171.6	127.8	152.8	175.3	213.2	152.0	182.3	208.4	264.4
25	100.2	119.1	135.7	163.1	122.0	145.8	167.1	203.1	145.4	174.3	197.4	254.4

Safe Load of Cast-Iron Columns—(Continued).

Diameter, inches.	Outside Diameter, 15 inches.				Outside Diameter, 10 inches.			
	Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.			
	1 1/4	2	1 1/4	2	1 1/4	2	1 1/4	2
1	530.0	684.6	413.7	506.1	594.0	756.7	449.8	551.1
2	718.0	915.2	559.3	687.9	873.2	1107.7	635.3	782.8
3	926.3	1227.0	741.4	909.5	1150.1	1468.4	842.5	1044.1
4	1154.6	1568.5	949.7	1151.0	1428.2	1809.3	1056.6	1314.9
5	1393.4	1950.7	1155.1	1408.0	1606.3	2140.9	1269.0	1571.7
6	1632.6	2343.6	1340.6	1655.0	1812.8	2504.0	1459.3	1863.4
7	1871.5	2747.7	1506.6	1877.6	2045.5	2859.9	1614.4	2105.1
8	2110.3	3163.0	1657.7	2077.7	2297.7	3249.9	1759.5	2368.8
9	2349.1	3589.4	1808.8	2257.8	2517.8	3674.0	1894.6	2644.9
10	2588.0	4026.8	1959.9	2437.9	2737.9	4124.0	2029.7	2921.0
11	2826.9	4474.2	2111.0	2618.0	2958.0	4599.0	2159.8	3207.1
12	3065.8	4931.6	2262.1	2798.1	3178.1	5099.0	2289.9	3493.2
13	3304.7	5399.0	2413.2	2978.2	3398.2	5624.0	2415.0	3779.3
14	3543.6	5876.4	2564.3	3158.3	3618.3	6164.0	2540.1	4065.4
15	3782.5	6363.8	2715.4	3338.4	3838.4	6719.0	2665.2	4351.5
16	4021.4	6861.2	2866.5	3518.5	4058.5	7289.0	2790.3	4637.6
17	4260.3	7368.6	3017.6	3698.6	4278.6	7874.0	2915.4	4923.7
18	4499.2	7886.0	3168.7	3878.7	4498.7	8474.0	3040.5	5209.8
19	4738.1	8413.4	3319.8	4058.8	4718.8	9089.0	3165.6	5495.9
20	4977.0	8950.8	3470.9	4238.9	4938.9	9719.0	3290.7	5782.0
21	5215.9	9498.2	3622.0	4419.0	5159.0	10364.0	3415.8	6068.1
22	5454.8	10055.6	3773.1	4599.1	5379.1	11024.0	3540.9	6354.2
23	5693.7	10623.0	3924.2	4779.2	5599.2	11699.0	3666.0	6640.3
24	5932.6	11190.4	4075.3	4959.3	5819.3	12389.0	3791.1	6926.4
25	6171.5	11767.8	4226.4	5139.4	6039.4	13094.0	3916.2	7212.5
26	6410.4	12355.2	4377.5	5319.5	6259.5	13814.0	4041.3	7500.6
27	6649.3	12952.6	4528.6	5499.6	6479.6	14549.0	4166.4	7788.7
28	6888.2	13560.0	4679.7	5679.7	6699.7	15299.0	4291.5	8076.8
29	7127.1	14177.4	4830.8	5859.8	6919.8	16064.0	4416.6	8364.9
30	7366.0	14804.8	4981.9	6039.9	7139.9	16844.0	4541.7	8653.0
31	7604.9	15442.2	5133.0	6220.0	7360.0	17639.0	4666.8	8941.1
32	7843.8	16089.6	5284.1	6400.1	7580.1	18449.0	4791.9	9229.2
33	8082.7	16747.0	5435.2	6580.2	7800.2	19274.0	4917.0	9517.3
34	8321.6	17414.4	5586.3	6760.3	8020.3	20114.0	5042.1	9805.4
35	8560.5	18091.8	5737.4	6940.4	8240.4	20969.0	5167.2	10093.5
36	8799.4	18779.2	5888.5	7120.5	8460.5	21839.0	5292.3	10381.6
37	9038.3	19476.6	6039.6	7300.6	8680.6	22724.0	5417.4	10669.7
38	9277.2	20184.0	6190.7	7480.7	8900.7	23624.0	5542.5	10957.8
39	9516.1	20901.4	6341.8	7660.8	9120.8	24539.0	5667.6	11245.9
40	9755.0	21628.8	6492.9	7840.9	9340.9	25469.0	5792.7	11534.0
41	9993.9	22366.2	6644.0	8021.0	9561.0	26414.0	5917.8	11822.1
42	10232.8	23113.6	6795.1	8201.1	9781.1	27374.0	6042.9	12110.2
43	10471.7	23871.0	6946.2	8381.2	10001.2	28349.0	6168.0	12398.3
44	10710.6	24638.4	7097.3	8561.3	10221.3	29339.0	6293.1	12686.4
45	10949.5	25415.8	7248.4	8741.4	10441.4	30344.0	6418.2	12974.5
46	11188.4	26203.2	7399.5	8921.5	10661.5	31364.0	6543.3	13262.6
47	11427.3	27000.6	7550.6	9101.6	10881.6	32399.0	6668.4	13550.7
48	11666.2	27808.0	7701.7	9281.7	11101.7	33449.0	6793.5	13838.8
49	11905.1	28625.4	7852.8	9461.8	11321.8	34514.0	6918.6	14126.9
50	12144.0	29452.8	8003.9	9641.9	11541.9	35594.0	7043.7	14415.0
51	12382.9	30290.2	8155.0	9822.0	11762.0	36689.0	7168.8	14703.1
52	12621.8	31137.6	8306.1	10002.1	11982.1	37799.0	7293.9	14991.2
53	12860.7	31995.0	8457.2	10182.2	12202.2	38924.0	7419.0	15279.3
54	13099.6	32862.4	8608.3	10362.3	12422.3	40064.0	7544.1	15567.4
55	13338.5	33739.8	8759.4	10542.4	12642.4	41219.0	7669.2	15855.5
56	13577.4	34627.2	8910.5	10722.5	12862.5	42389.0	7794.3	16143.6
57	13816.3	35524.6	9061.6	10902.6	13082.6	43574.0	7919.4	16431.7
58	14055.2	36432.0	9212.7	11082.7	13302.7	44774.0	8044.5	16719.8
59	14294.1	37349.4	9363.8	11262.8	13522.8	45989.0	8169.6	17007.9
60	14533.0	38276.8	9514.9	11442.9	13742.9	47219.0	8294.7	17296.0

ECCENTRIC LOADING OF COLUMNS.

When a rectangular cross-section, such as a masonry joint under pressure, will be distributed uniformly over the section only when the pressure passes through the centre of the section; any deviation from such position will bring a maximum unit pressure to one edge and a minimum to the other; when the distance of the resultant from one edge is equal to the entire width of the joint, the pressure at the nearer edge is the mean pressure, while that at the farther edge is zero, and that the resultant approaches still nearer to the edge the pressure at the farther edge becomes less than zero; in fact, becomes a tension if the material, etc., is unable of resisting tension. Or, if, as usual in masonry joints, the material is practically incapable of resisting tension, the pressure at the nearer edge, when the resultant approaches it nearer than half of the width, increases very rapidly and dangerously, becoming practically infinite when the resultant reaches the edge.

In a given position of the resultant relatively to one edge of the joint or a similar redistribution of the pressures throughout the section may be brought about by simply adding to or diminishing the width of the

P = the total pressure on any section of a bar of uniform thickness.
 A = the width of that section = the area of the section, when thickness

p = the mean unit pressure on the section.

P_{max} = the maximum unit pressure on the section.

P_{min} = the minimum unit pressure on the section.

e = the eccentricity of the resultant = its distance from the centre of section.

$$M = p \left(1 + \frac{6e}{w} \right) \text{ and } m = p \left(1 - \frac{6e}{w} \right).$$

$$\text{If } e = \frac{1}{6}w \text{ then } M = 2p \text{ and } m = 0.$$

If e is greater than $1/6w$, the resultant in that case being less than half of the width from one edge, p becomes negative. (J. C. Trautwine, *Engineering News*, Nov. 23, 1893.)

BUILT COLUMNS.

From experiments by T. D. Lovett, discussed by Burr, the values of f in several cases are determined, giving empirical forms of Gordon's formula as follows: p = pounds crushing strength per square inch of section; l = length of column in inches; r = radius of gyration in inches.

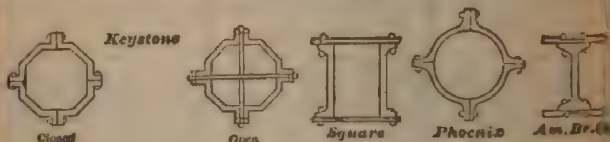


FIG. 76

Flat Ends.

Keystone Columns.	Square Columns.	Phoenix Columns.	American Bridge Co. Columns.
$p = \frac{39,500}{1 + \frac{1}{18,300} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (1)$	$p = \frac{39,000}{1 + \frac{1}{35,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (4)$	$p = \frac{42,000}{1 + \frac{1}{50,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (6)$	$p = \frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{46,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}}$

Flat Ends, Swelled.

$p = \frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{18,300} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (2)$
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Pin Ends.

$p = \dots \dots \dots$	$\frac{39,000}{1 + \frac{1}{17,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (5)$	$\frac{42,000}{1 + \frac{1}{22,700} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (7)$	$\frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{21,500} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (8)$
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Pin Ends, Swelled.

$p = \frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{18,300} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (3)$
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Round Ends.

$p = \dots \dots \dots$	$\frac{42,000}{1 + \frac{1}{12,500} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (8)$	$\frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{11,500} \frac{l^2}{r^2}}$
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With great variations of stress a factor of safety of as high as 8 or 9 may be used, or it may be as low as 3 or 4, if the condition of stress is uniform essentially so.

Burr gives the following general principles which govern the resistance built columns:

The material should be disposed as far as possible from the neutral axis of the cross-section, thereby increasing r ;

There should be no initial internal stress;

The individual portions of the column should be mutually supporting; The individual portions of the column should be so firmly secured together that no relative motion can take place, in order that the column shall fail as a whole, thus maintaining the original value of r .

Stoney says: "When the length of a rectangular wrought iron tube column does not exceed 30 times its least breadth, it fails by the bulging or buckling of a short portion of the plates, not by the flexure of the pillar as a whole."

In Trans. A. S. C. E., Oct. 1880, are given the following formulae for ultimate resistance of wrought-iron columns designed by C. Shaler Smith:

Flat Ends.

	Phoenix Column.	American Bridge Co. Column.	Common Column.
(12)	$\frac{42,500}{1 + \frac{1}{4500} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$	(15) $\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{3750} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$	(18) $\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{2700} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (21)

One Pin End.

(13)	$\frac{40,000}{1 + \frac{1}{2250} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$	(16) $\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{2250} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$	(19) $\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{1500} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (22)
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Two Pin Ends.

(14)	$\frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{1500} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$	(17) $\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{1750} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$	(20) $\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{1200} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (23)
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Common "column" consists of two channels, opposite, with flanges with a plate on one side and a lattice on the other.

Formula for "square" columns may be used without much error for an chord section composed of two channel-bars and plates, with the pin passing through the centre of gravity of the cross-bar.

Iron members composed of two channels connected by zigzag may be treated by formulæ 4 and 5, using $f = 36,000$ instead of

tests on full-sized Phoenix columns in 1873 showed a close agreement results with formulæ 6-8. Experiments on full-sized Phoenix the Watertown testing-machine in 1881 showed considerable difference when the value of $l + r$ became comparatively small. The modified form of Gordon's formula gave tolerable results through range of experiments:

$$\text{columns, flat end, } p = \frac{40,000 \left(1 + \frac{2r}{l}\right)}{1 + \frac{50,000}{r^2}} \dots \dots \dots (24)$$

results of three series of experiments on Phoenix columns, a formula than Gordon's is reached as follows:

columns, flat ends, $p = 39,640 - 46 \frac{l}{r}$, when $l + r$ is from 30 to 140;

$$p = 64,700 - 4600 \sqrt{\frac{l}{r}} \text{ when } l + r \text{ is less than 30.}$$

Dimensions of Phoenix Columns.

(Phoenix Iron Co.)

Dimensions are subject to slight variations, which are unavoidable in shapes.

Series of columns given are those of the 4, 6, or 8 segments of iron are composed. The rivet-heads add from 2 to 5 per cent to the weight. Rivets are spaced 3, 4, or 6 inches apart from centre to somewhat more closely at the ends than towards the centre of

Series have 8 segments, E columns 6 segments, C, B², B¹, and A have Least radius of gyration = $D \times .3838$,

One Segment.		Diameters in inches.			One Column.		
Thickness in inches.	Weight in lbs. per yard.	d Inside.	D Outside.	D ₁ Over Flanges.	Area of Cross-section, sq. inches.	Weight per ft. in pounds.	Least Radius of Gyration, in inches.
3-16	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	A 3 $\frac{5}{8}$	4	6 1-16	3.8	12.6	1.45
$\frac{1}{4}$	12		4 $\frac{1}{8}$	6 3-16	4.8	16.0	1.50
$\frac{3}{8}$	14 $\frac{1}{2}$		4 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 5-16	5.8	19.3	1.55
$\frac{1}{2}$	17		4 $\frac{3}{8}$	6 7-16	6.8	22.6	1.60
$\frac{1}{4}$	10	B ¹ 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 5-10	8 1-10	6.4	21.3	1.92
$\frac{3}{8}$	14 $\frac{1}{2}$		5 7-10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.9	26.0	1.96
$\frac{1}{2}$	23		5 9-10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.2	30.6	2.02
$\frac{3}{4}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$		5 11-10	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	10.6	35.8	2.07
$\frac{1}{2}$	30		5 13-10	8 7-10	12.0	40.0	2.11
$\frac{3}{4}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$		5 15-10	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	13.4	44.6	2.16
$\frac{1}{2}$	37	B ₂ 5 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 1-10	9 $\frac{1}{8}$	14.8	49.3	2.20
$\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 7-10	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	7.4	24.6	2.34
$\frac{3}{8}$	22 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 9-10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.0	30.0	2.39
$\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 11-10	9 5-10	10.6	35.3	2.43
$\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 13-10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.2	40.6	2.48
$\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 15-10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.8	46.0	2.52
$\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	C 7 $\frac{1}{8}$	7 1-10	10 $\frac{1}{8}$	15.4	51.3	2.57
$\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$		7 3-10	9 11-10	17.0	56.6	2.61
$\frac{1}{4}$	25 $\frac{1}{2}$		7 11-10	11 9-10	10.2	34.	2.60
$\frac{3}{8}$	31		7 13-10	11 $\frac{1}{8}$	12.4	41.3	2.65
$\frac{1}{2}$	36		7 15-10	11 11-10	14.4	48.0	2.70
$\frac{3}{4}$	41		8 1-10	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	16.4	54.6	2.74
$\frac{1}{2}$	46	E 11	8 3-10	11 13-10	18.4	61.3	2.78
$\frac{3}{4}$	51		8 5-10	11 $\frac{3}{8}$	20.4	68.	2.83
$\frac{1}{2}$	56		8 7-10	12	22.4	74.6	2.88
$\frac{3}{4}$	62		8 9-10	12 1-10	24.8	82.6	2.92
$\frac{1}{2}$	68		8 11-10	12 3-10	27.2	90.6	2.96
$\frac{3}{4}$	73		8 13-10	12 5-10	29.2	97.3	3.01
$\frac{1}{2}$	78		8 15-10	12 7-10	31.2	104.	3.06
$\frac{3}{4}$	80		9 3-10	12 9-10	35.6	118.6	3.14
$\frac{1}{2}$	86		9 7-10	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	39.6	132.	3.23
$\frac{3}{4}$	100		9 11-10	12 15-10	43.6	145.8	3.32
$\frac{1}{4}$	28	F 14 $\frac{1}{8}$	11 $\frac{1}{8}$	15 7-10	16.8	56.	4.18
$\frac{3}{8}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$		11 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 9-10	19.5	65.	4.23
$\frac{1}{2}$	37		11 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 11-10	22.2	74.	4.28
$\frac{3}{4}$	42		11 $\frac{3}{4}$	15 13-10	25.2	84.	4.32
$\frac{1}{2}$	47		12	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	28.2	94.	4.36
$\frac{3}{4}$	52		12 $\frac{1}{8}$	16	31.2	104.	4.40
$\frac{1}{2}$	57		12 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 1-10	34.2	114.	4.45
$\frac{3}{4}$	62		12 $\frac{3}{8}$	16 3-10	37.2	124.	4.50
$\frac{1}{2}$	68		12 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 5-10	40.2	136.	4.55
$\frac{3}{4}$	73		12 $\frac{3}{4}$	16 7-10	43.8	146.	4.60
$\frac{1}{2}$	78	G 14 $\frac{3}{8}$	13 $\frac{1}{8}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	46.8	156.	4.64
$\frac{3}{4}$	83		13 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 $\frac{3}{4}$	49.8	166.	4.78
$\frac{1}{2}$	88		13 $\frac{1}{2}$	17	52.8	176.	4.82
$\frac{3}{4}$	94		13 $\frac{3}{4}$	17 3-16	55.8	186.	4.87
$\frac{1}{2}$	104		14 $\frac{1}{8}$		58.8	196.	4.91
$\frac{3}{4}$	109		14 $\frac{1}{4}$		61.8	206.	4.96
$\frac{1}{4}$	31	H 14 $\frac{3}{4}$	15	19 $\frac{1}{8}$	24.8	82.6	5.43
$\frac{3}{8}$	36		15 $\frac{1}{4}$	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.8	96.	5.50
$\frac{1}{2}$	41		15 $\frac{1}{2}$	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	32.8	109.3	5.56
$\frac{3}{4}$	46		15 $\frac{3}{4}$	19 7-16	36.8	122.6	5.62
$\frac{1}{2}$			16	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	40.8	136.	5.68
$\frac{3}{4}$			16 $\frac{1}{2}$	19 $\frac{3}{4}$	44.8	149.3	5.74

Segment.	Diameters in inches.			One Column.			Safe Load in net tons for 16-foot Lengths.
	d inside.	D Outside.	D _o Over Flanges.	Area of Cross-Section, sq. inches.	Weight per ft. in pounds.	Least Radius of Gyration, in inches.	
61	G 14%	15%	19%	48.8	162.6	5.72	325.21
66		15%	19%	52.8	176	5.77	352.03
71		16	20	56.8	189.3	5.82	378.85
76		16%	20%	60.8	202.6	5.87	405.70
86		16%	20%	64.8	229.3	5.95	464.54
96		16%	20%	70.8	256	6.04	513.17
106		16%	20%	84.8	282.6	6.14	567.00
116		17%	21	94.8	309.3	6.23	620.26

Working Formulae for Wrought-iron and Steel Struts of various Forms.—Burr gives the following practical formulae, which are found to possess advantages over Gordon's:

Kind of Strut.	p = Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. in. of Section.		p _w = Working Strength = 1/5 Ultimate, lbs. per sq. in. of Section.	
Fixed end iron angles and tees	44000	$140 \frac{l}{r}$ (1)	8800	$28 \frac{l}{r}$ (2)
Fixed end iron angles and tees	40000	$175 \frac{l}{r}$ (3)	9200	$35 \frac{l}{r}$ (4)
Fixed end iron channels and I beams	40000	$110 \frac{l}{r}$ (5)	8000	$22 \frac{l}{r}$ (6)
Fixed end mild-steel angles	52000	$180 \frac{l}{r}$ (7)	10400	$36 \frac{l}{r}$ (8)
Fixed end high-steel angles	76000	$290 \frac{l}{r}$ (9)	15200	$58 \frac{l}{r}$ (10)
Fixed end solid wrought iron columns	33000	$80 \frac{l}{r}$ (11)	6400	$16 \frac{l}{r}$ (12)
	53000	$277 \frac{l}{d}$	6400	$55 \frac{l}{d}$

Formulations (1) to (4) are to be used only between $\frac{l}{r} = 40$ and $\frac{l}{r} = 200$

(5) and (6) " " " " " " " " = 20 " " = 200
 (7) to (10) " " " " " " " " = 40 " " = 200
 (11) and (12) " " " " " " " " = 20 " " = 200

or $\frac{l}{d} = 6$ and $\frac{l}{d} = 65$

Columns, properly made, of steel ranging in specimens from 65,000 to 100,000 lbs. per square inch should give a resistance 35 to 38 per cent in excess of that of wrought iron columns with the same value of $l + r$, provided $l + r$ does not exceed 140.

The unsupported width of a plate in a compression member should not exceed 30 times its thickness.

The distance between the transverse distance between centre lines of rivets in plates to angles or channels, etc., should not exceed 35 times the thickness. If this width is exceeded, longitudinal buckling of the

plate takes place, and the column ceases to fall as a whole, by detail).

The same tests show that the thickness of the leg of an angle laticing is riveted should not be less than $1/9$ of the length of the side if the column is purely and wholly a compression member. A limit may be passed somewhat in stiff ties and compression members to carry transverse loads.

The panel points of laticing should not be separated by a greater than 60 times the thickness of the angle leg to which the laticing if the column is wholly a compression member.

The rivet pitch should never exceed 16 times the thickness of the material pierced by the rivet, and if the plates are very thick it should be nearly equal that value.

Merriman's Rational Formula for Columns (July 19, 1894).

$$C = \frac{B}{1 + \frac{nB}{\pi^2 E} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \dots \dots \dots$$

$$B = \frac{C}{1 + \frac{nC}{\pi^2 E} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \dots \dots \dots$$

B = unit-load on the column = total load P ÷ area of cross-section;
 C = maximum compressive unit-stress on the concave side of the column;
 l = length of the column; r = least radius of gyration of the cross-section;
 E = coefficient of elasticity of the material; $n = 1$ for both ends fixed;
 $n = 4/9$ for one end round and one fixed; $n = 1/4$ for both ends round;
 the formula is for use with strains within the elastic limit only; it holds good when the strain C exceeds the elastic limit.

Prof. Merriman takes the mean value of E for timber = 1,500,000; iron = 15,000,000, for wrought-iron = 25,000,000, and for steel = 30,000,000, and for steel $\pi^2 = 10$ as a close enough approximation. With these values he computes the following tables from formula (1):

I.—Wrought-Iron Columns with Round Ends.

Unit-load.	Maximum Compressive Unit-stress C .							
$\frac{P}{A}$ or B .	$\frac{l}{r} = 20$	$\frac{l}{r} = 40$	$\frac{l}{r} = 60$	$\frac{l}{r} = 80$	$\frac{l}{r} = 100$	$\frac{l}{r} = 120$	$\frac{l}{r} = 140$	$\frac{l}{r} = 160$
5,000	5,040	5,170	5,390	5,730	6,250	6,980	7,950	9,200
6,000	6,055	6,240	6,560	7,090	7,890	8,900	10,150	11,700
7,000	7,080	7,300	7,780	8,530	9,730	11,010	12,550	14,400
8,000	8,100	8,430	9,010	10,020	11,660	13,440	15,400	17,700
9,000	9,130	9,560	10,340	11,690	14,060	16,360	18,700	21,500
10,000	10,160	10,680	11,680	13,440	16,070	18,900	22,000	25,800
11,000	11,200	11,770	12,670	15,310	18,640	21,700	25,000	29,200
12,000	12,240	12,800	14,500	17,330	21,080	24,800	28,500	33,000
13,000	13,280	14,180	15,990	19,480	23,800	27,800	31,800	36,500

6.010	6.060	6.130	6.210	6.350	6.570	6.900	7.050
5.020	7.080	7.180	7.340	7.530	7.780	8.110	8.530
8.025	8.100	8.210	8.430	8.700	9.040	9.490	10.060
9.040	9.130	9.300	9.550	9.890	10.340	10.940	11.690
10.040	10.160	10.370	10.710	11.110	11.680	12.440	13.440
11.040	11.300	11.450	11.820	12.360	13.070	14.030	15.310
12.050	12.340	12.510	13.000	13.640	14.510	15.690	17.320
13.070	13.380	13.640	14.210	14.940	15.990	17.410	19.490
14.080	14.320	14.740	15.380	16.280	17.530	19.320	21.820

III.—Steel Columns with Round Ends.

Maximum Compressive Unit-stress C .

$= 20$	$\frac{l}{r} = 40$	$\frac{l}{r} = 60$	$\frac{l}{r} = 80$	$\frac{l}{r} = 100$	$\frac{l}{r} = 120$	$\frac{l}{r} = 140$	$\frac{l}{r} = 160$
6.050	6.203	6.470	6.860	7.500	8.430	9.870	12.300
7.070	7.370	7.650	8.230	9.130	10.540	12.300	17.400
8.090	8.390	8.770	9.650	10.970	12.990	16.760	24,590
9.110	9.470	10.080	11.110	12.850	15.850	20.990
10.130	10.560	11.360	12.710	15.000	19.390	28,850
11.150	11.580	12.670	14.370	17.370	23.200
12.200	12.820	14.030	16.130	20.000	28,800
13.240	13.970	15.400	18.000	22.940
14.250	15.130	16.830	19.060	26,250

IV.—Steel Columns with Fixed Ends.

Maximum Compressive Unit-stress C .

$= 20$	$\frac{l}{r} = 40$	$\frac{l}{r} = 60$	$\frac{l}{r} = 80$	$\frac{l}{r} = 100$	$\frac{l}{r} = 120$	$\frac{l}{r} = 140$	$\frac{l}{r} = 160$
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computing C by formula (1). If the agreement between the spectrometer values is not sufficiently close, new dimensions must be taken and the computation be repeated. By the use of the above tables the work will be shortened.

The formula (1) may be put in another form which in some cases will abbreviate the numerical work. For B substitute its value $P = 4$, $4r^2$ write I , the least moment of inertia of the cross-section; then

$$I = \frac{P}{C} r^2 = \frac{n Pl^3}{\pi^2 E}, \dots \dots \dots$$

in which I and r^2 are to be determined.

For example, let it be required to find the size of a square end with fixed ends when loaded with 24,000 lbs. and 16 ft. long, so that the maximum compressive stress C shall be 1000 lbs. per square inch. $I = 24,000$, $C = 1000$, $n = 4$, $\pi^2 = 10$, $E = 1,500,000$, $l = 16 \times 12$, inches comes

$$I = 24r^2 = 14.75.$$

Now let x be the side of the square; then

$$I = \frac{x^4}{12} \quad \text{and} \quad r^2 = \frac{x^2}{12},$$

so that the equation reduces to $x^4 - 24x^2 = 177$, from which x^2 is found to be 29.92 sq. in., and the side $x = 5.47$ in. Thus the unit-load B is 4500 lbs. per square inch.

WORKING STRAINS ALLOWED IN BRIDGE MEMBERS.

Theodore Cooper gives the following in his Bridge Specifications: Compression members shall be so proportioned that the maximum strain shall in no case cause a greater strain than that determined by the following formula:

$$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{40,000r^2}} \quad \text{for square-end compression members;}$$

$$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30,000r^2}} \quad \text{for compression members with one pin and one square end;$$

$$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30,000r^2}} \quad \text{for compression members with pin-bearings;}$$

(These values may be increased in bridges over 150 ft. span. See Bridge Specifications.)

P = the allowed compression per square inch of cross-section;

l = the length of compression member, in inches;

r = the least radius of gyration of the section in inches.

No compression member, however, shall have a length exceeding six times its least width.

The Phoenix Bridge Company give the following:

The greatest working stresses in wrought-iron compression members shall be 150 feet in length and under shall be the following:

	Flat Ends.	Pin Ends.
Phoenix column.....	$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{50,000r^2}}$	$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{40,000r^2}}$
Latticed or common column.....	$P = \frac{9000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{40,000r^2}}$	$P = \frac{9000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30,000r^2}}$
.....	$P = 9000 - 30 \frac{l}{v}$	$P = 9000 - 40 \frac{l}{v}$

STRESS STRAINS ALLOWED IN BRIDGE MEMBERS. 263

ards shall be proportioned by the flat end formula.
between flat-end and pin-end results shall be used for one pin end
and.
ed transverse struts shall be designed by taking working stresses
and four tenths those given by the preceding formulæ.

Stresses allowed in Bridge Tension Members.

(Theodore Cooper's Specifications.)

of the structure shall be so proportioned that the maximum
in no case cause a greater tension than the following (except in
sliding 150 feet) :

	Pounds per sq. in.
al bracing.....	15,000
rolled beams, used as cross floor-beams and stringers.....	9,000
am chords and main diagonals (forged eye-bars).....	10,000
om chords and main diagonals (plates or shapes), net ion.....	8,000
ater rods and long verticals (forged eye-bars).....	8,000
ater and long verticals (plates or shapes), net section.....	6,500
om flange of riveted cross-girders, net section.....	8,000
om flange of riveted longitudinal plate girders over 1 long, net section.....	8,000
om flange of riveted longitudinal plate girders under 1 long, net section.....	7,000
beam hangers, and other similar members liable to den loading (bar iron with forged ends).....	6,000
beam hangers, and other similar members liable to den loading (plates or shapes), net section.....	5,000

subject to alternate strains of tension and compression shall be
ed to resist each kind of strain. Both of the strains shall, how-
considered as increased by an amount equal to 8/10 of the least of
ains, for determining the sectional area by the above allowed

nix Bridge Company specify : The greatest working stresses in
iron tensile members of railway spans 150 feet in length and
ll be as follows:

	Pounds per sq. in.
ater web members.....	8,000
verticals.....	8,000
web and lower-chord members (eye-bars).....	10,000
ension loops.....	7,000
ension plates (net section).....	7,000
ion members of lateral and transverse bracing.....	15,000
ater rods and long verticals of lattice girders (net sec- ion).....	7,000
er chords and main tension members of lattice girders (net section).....	8,000
om flange of plate girders (net section).....	8,000
om flange of rolled beams.....	8,000
iron lateral ties (net section).....	12,000

over 150 feet in length, the greatest working tensile stresses per
x of wrought iron, lower-chord and end main-web eye-bars, shall

$$8000 \left(1 + 0.9 \times \frac{\text{min. total stress}}{\text{max. total stress}} \right)$$

his quantity exceeds 10,000.

Working Stresses for Steel.

est allowed working stresses for steel tension members, for
feet in length and less, shall be as follows :

	Pounds
In counter web members.....	12,000
In long verticals.....	10,000
In all main-web and lower-chord eye-bars.....	12,000
In plate hangers (net section).....	9,000
In tension members of lateral and transverse bracing.....	10,000
In steel-angle lateral ties (net section).....	15,000
For spans over 200 feet in length the greatest allowed working stress per square inch, in lower-chord and end main-web eye-bars, shall be taken	

$$10,000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min. total stress}}{\text{max. total stress}} \right)$$

whenever this quantity exceeds 13,200.

The greatest allowable stress in the main-web eye-bars nearest the ends of such spans shall be taken at 13,200 pounds per square inch; and for the intermediate eye-bars shall be found by direct interpolation between the preceding values.

The greatest allowable working stresses in steel plate and lattice girders and rolled beams shall be taken as follows:

	Pounds
Upper flange of plate girders (gross section).....	10,000
Lower flange of plate girders (net section).....	10,000
In counters and long verticals of lattice girders (net section).....	9,000
In lower chords and main diagonals of lattice girders (net section).....	10,000
In bottom flanges of rolled beams.....	10,000
In top flanges of rolled beams.....	10,000

RESISTANCE OF HOLLOW CYLINDERS TO COLLAPSE.

Fairbairn's empirical formula (*Phil. Trans.* 1858) is

$$p = 9,675,600 \frac{t^{2.19}}{ld} \dots \dots \dots$$

where p = pressure in lbs. per square inch, t = thickness of cylinder in inches, d = diameter, and l = length, all in inches; or,

$$p = 800,600 \frac{t^{2.19}}{Ld}, \text{ if } L \text{ is in feet.} \dots \dots \dots$$

He recommends the simpler formula

$$p = 9,675,600 \frac{t^2}{ld} \dots \dots \dots$$

as sufficiently accurate for practical purposes, for tubes of constant diameter and length.

The diameters of Fairbairn's experimental tubes were 4", 6", 8", 10", 12", and their lengths, between the cast-iron ends, ranged between 15 and 60 inches.

His formula (3) has been generally accepted as the basis of rule ascertaining the strength of boiler flues. In some cases, however, fixed to its application by a supplementary formula.

Lloyd's Register contains the following formula for the strength of boiler flues, viz.,

$$P = \frac{89,000t^2}{Ld} \dots \dots \dots$$

The English Board of Trade prescribes the following formula for boiler flues, when the longitudinal joints are welded, or made with riveted straps, viz.,

$$P = \frac{60,000t^2}{(L+1)d} \dots \dots \dots$$

For lap joints, and for inferior workmanship the numerical factor 60,000,

Lloyd's Register, as well as those of the Board of Trade, pre-
that in no case the value of P must exceed the amount given
in equation, viz.,

$$P = \frac{8000t}{d} \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

(4), (5), (6) P is the highest working pressure in pounds per
and d are the thickness and diameter in inches, L is the
in feet measured between the strengthening rings, in case
each. Formula (4) is the same as formula (3), with a factor
In formula (5) the length L is increased by 1; the influence
tion has on the value of P is, of course, greater for short
long ones.

deduced from Fairbairn's experiments the following formula
ing strength of flues:

$$P = \frac{47T^2}{d \sqrt{L}} \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

d have the same meaning as in formula (1), L is the length in
the tensile strength of the metal in pounds per square inch.
to T the value 50,000, and express the length of the flue in
in (7) assumes the following form, viz.,

$$P = 692,800 \frac{t^2}{d \sqrt{L}} \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

iders a factor of safety of 4 sufficient in applying his formula.
Treatise on Steam Engineering," by J. W. Nyström, p. 106.
(4), and (8) have the common defect that they make the
ssure decrease indefinitely with increase of length, and vice
ve has deduced from Fairbairn's experiments an equation of
m, which, reduced to English measures, is as follows, viz.,

$$P = 5,858,150 \frac{t^2}{d^2} + 41,900 \frac{t^2}{d} + 1323 \frac{t}{d} \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

lation is the same as in formula (1).
e, in his "Manual of Rules," etc., p. 696, gives the dimensions of
ed from the reports of the Manchester Steam-Users' Associa-
which collapsed while in actual use in boilers. These flues
1 to 60 inches in diameter, and from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in thickness,
ed of rings of plates riveted together, with one or two longitudi-
al ribs of them unfortified by intermediate flanges or strength-
At the collapsing pressures the flues experienced compressions
1.53 to 2.17 tons, or a mean compression of 1.83 tons per square
in. From these data Clark deduced the following formula
age resisting force of common boiler-flues," viz.,

$$P = t^2 \left(\frac{50,000}{d} - 500 \right) \dots \dots \dots (10)$$

collapsing pressure in pounds per square inch, and d and t
ter and thickness expressed in inches.
er, in *Vin Nyström's Magazine*, March, 1881, discussing the
er formula, shows that experimental data are as yet insuffi-
fying the value of any of the formulae. He says that Nyström's
gives a closer agreement of the calculated with the actual col-
lapses in experiments on flues of every description than any of
others.

Force of Pressure of Plain Iron Tubes or Flues.

(Clark, S. E., vol. I, p. 643.)

orce to collapse of plain-riveted flues is directly as the square of
of the plate, and inversely as the square of the diameter. The
at the two ends of the flue does not practically extend over a length
less than twice or three times the diameter. The collapsing
ing flues is therefore practically independent of the length.

instances of collapsed flues of Cornish and Lancashire boilers, Clark, showed that the resistance to collapse of flues of $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plate 48 feet long, and 30 to 50 inches diameter, varied as the 1.75 power of diameter. Thus,

for diameters of	30	35	40	45	50	inches,
the collapsing pressures were.....	76	68	45	37	30	lbs. per
for 7-16-inch plates the collapsing						
pressures were.....			00	49	42	" "

For collapsing pressures of plain iron flue-tubes of Cornish and Lancashire steam-boilers, Clark gives:

$$P = \frac{200,000t^2}{d^{1.75}}$$

P = collapsing pressure, in pounds per square inch;
 t = thickness of the plates of the furnace tube, in inches.
 d = internal diameter of the furnace tube, in inches.

For short lengths the longitudinal tensile resistance may be considered as augmenting the resistance to collapse. Flues efficiently fortified by joints or hoops at intervals of 8 feet may be enabled to resist from 50 lbs. to 70 lbs. pressure per square inch more than plain tubes, according to the thickness of the plates.

Strength of Small Tubes.—The collapsing resistance of drawn tubes of small diameter, and from .134 inch to .109 inch in thickness, has been tested experimentally by Messrs J. Russell & Sons. The results for wrought-iron tubes varied from 14.33 to 30.07 tons per square inch of the metal, averaging 18.30 tons, as against 17.57 to 24.35 tons, according to the thickness of the plates.

(For strength of Segmental Crowns of Furnaces and Cylinders see S. E., vol. I, pp. 649-651 and pp. 627, 628.)

Formula for Corrugated Furnaces (*Eng'g*, July 11, 1902).—As the result of a series of experiments on the resistance to collapse of Fox's corrugated furnaces, the Board of Trade and Lloyd's Board altered their formulae for these furnaces in 1891 as follows:

Board of Trade formula is altered from

$$\frac{12,500 \times T}{D} = WP \text{ to } \frac{14,000 \times T}{D} = WP.$$

T = thickness in inches;
 D = mean diameter of furnace;
 WP = working pressure in pounds per square inch.
 Lloyd's formula is altered from

$$\frac{1000 \times (T^2)}{D} = WP \text{ to } \frac{1234 \times (T^2)}{D} = WP.$$

T = thickness in sixteenths of an inch;
 D = greatest diameter of furnace;
 WP = working pressure in pounds per square inch.

TRANSVERSE STRENGTH.

In transverse tests the strength of bars of rectangular section varies directly as the breadth of the specimen tested, as the square of the depth, and inversely as its length. The deflection under any load varies directly as the length, and inversely as the breadth and as the cube of the depth. Represented algebraically, if S = the strength and D the diameter, l the length, b the breadth, and d the depth,

$$S \text{ varies as } \frac{bd^2}{l} \text{ and } D \text{ varies as } \frac{l^2}{bd^2}.$$

For the purpose of reducing the strength of pieces of various sizes to a standard, the term modulus of rupture (represented by R) is obtained by experiment on a bar of rectangular

at the ends and loaded in the middle and substituting numerical values in the following formula :

$$R = \frac{3}{2} \frac{Pl}{bd^3},$$

P = the breaking load in pounds, l = the length in inches, b the breadth and d the depth.

Modulus of rupture is sometimes defined as the strain at the instant upon a unit of the section which is most remote from the neutral axis the side which first ruptures. This definition, however, is based on a theory which is yet in dispute among authorities, and it is better to use it as a numerical value, or experimental constant, found by the application of the formula above given.

Using the above formula, making l 12 inches, and b and d each 1 inch, it is found that the modulus of rupture is 18 times the load required to break a beam square, supported at two points one foot apart, the load being applied in the middle.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Modulus of transverse strength} &= \frac{\text{span in feet} \times \text{load at middle in lbs.}}{\text{breadth in inches} \times (\text{depth in inches})^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{18} \text{th of the modulus of rupture.} \end{aligned}$$

Fundamental Formulae for Flexure of Beams (Merriman).

Shear = vertical shear;

Bending moment = bending moment;

Resultant of tensile stresses = sum of compressive stresses;

Resultant of vertical shear = algebraic sum of all the vertical components of the internal stresses at any section of the beam.

A = the area of the section and S_v the shearing unit stress, then resultant = $A S_v$, and if the vertical shear = V , then $V = A S_v$.

Resultant of vertical shear is the algebraic sum of all the external vertical forces on one side of the section considered. It is equal to the reaction of one support considered as a force acting upward, minus the sum of all the vertical load forces acting between the support and the section.

Resultant of bending moment = algebraic sum of all the moments of the internal stresses at any section with reference to a point in that section.

$\frac{SI}{c}$, in which S = the horizontal unit stress, tensile or compressive

stress may be, upon the fibre most remote from the neutral axis, c = shortest distance from that fibre to said axis, and I = the moment of inertia of the cross-section with reference to that axis.

Bending moment M is the algebraic sum of the moment of the external forces on one side of the section with reference to a point in that section, minus the moment of the reaction of one support minus sum of moments of all the loads between the support and the section considered.

$$M = \frac{SI}{c}.$$

Bending moment is a compound quantity = product of a force by the distance of its point of application from the section considered, the distance measured on a line drawn from the section perpendicular to the line of the action of the force.

Concerning the above formula, Prof. Merriman, *Eng. News*, July 21, 1894,

The formula just quoted is true when the unit-stress S on the part of the beam farthest from the neutral axis is within the elastic limit of the material. It is not true when this limit is exceeded, because then the neutral axis does not pass through the centre of gravity of the cross-section, and also the different longitudinal stresses are not proportional to their distances from that axis, these two requirements being involved in the derivation of the formula. But in all cases of design the permissible unit-stress should not exceed the elastic limit, and hence the formula applies fully, without regarding the ultimate strength of the material or any other circumstances regarding rupture. Indeed so great reliance is placed on this formula that the practice of testing beams by rupture has been entirely abandoned, and the allowable unit-stresses are made based on tensile and compressive tests.

GENERAL FORMULÆ FOR TRANSVERSE STRENGTH OF BEAMS OF UNIFORM CROSS-SECTION.

Beam.	Rectangular Beam.		Beam of any Section.		
	Breaking Load.	Deflection for Load P or W .	Maximum Moment of Stress.	Moment of Rupture.	Deflection. Δ
Fixed at one end, load at the other.....	$P = \frac{1}{6} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{4Pl^3}{Eb d^3}$	$P l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{1}{8} \frac{Pl^3}{EI}$
Same with load distributed uniformly.....	$W = \frac{1}{8} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{3Wl^3}{2Eb d^3}$	$\frac{1}{2} W l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{1}{8} \frac{Wl^3}{EI}$
Supported at ends, loaded in middle.....	$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{Pl^3}{4Eb d^3}$	$\frac{1}{4} P l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{1}{48} \frac{Pl^3}{EI}$
Same loaded uniformly.....	$W = \frac{4}{8} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{5Wl^3}{32Eb d^3}$	$\frac{1}{8} W l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{5}{384} \frac{Wl^3}{EI}$
Same, loaded at middle, and also with uniform load.	$2P + W = \frac{4}{8} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{1}{4} \left(P + \frac{1}{8} W \right) \frac{l^3}{Eb d^3}$	$\left(\frac{1}{4} P + \frac{1}{8} W \right) l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{1}{48} \left(P + \frac{5}{8} W \right) \frac{l^3}{EI}$
Fixed at both ends, loaded in middle.....	$P = \frac{4}{8} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{1}{16} \frac{Pl^3}{Eb d^3}$	$\frac{1}{8} P l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{1}{192} \frac{Pl^3}{EI}$
Same, Barlow's Experiments.....	$P = \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$		$\frac{1}{8} P l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{W}{192} \frac{l^3}{EI}$
Same, uniformly loaded.....	$W = \frac{2Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{1}{32} \frac{Wl^3}{Eb d^3}$	$\frac{1}{16} W l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{1}{384} \frac{Wl^3}{EI}$
Fixed at one end, supported at the other, loaded at .6311 from fixed end, }		$\frac{.1148 Pl^3}{Eb d^3}$	$\frac{3}{8} \left(2 \sqrt{3} - 3 \right) Pl =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{P}{105} \frac{l^3}{EI}$ (nearly).
Same uniformly loaded.....	$W = \frac{4}{3} \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$	$\frac{.0448 Wl^3}{Eb d^3}$	$\frac{1}{3} W l =$	$\frac{Rl}{c}$	$\frac{W}{185} \frac{l^3}{EI}$ (nearly).

The above formulae for the strength and stiffness of rolled beam sections are intended for convenient application in cases where strict accuracy is not required.

The rules for rectangular and circular sections are correct, while the flanged sections are approximate, and limited in their application to standard shapes as given in the Pencoyd tables. When the section of a beam is increased above the standard minimum dimensions, the flange remaining unaltered, and the web alone being thickened, the tendency is for the load as found by the rules to be in excess of the actual; but within the limits that it is possible to vary any section in the rolling, the rules will apply without any serious inaccuracy.

The calculated safe loads will be approximately one half of loads which would injure the elasticity of the materials.

The rules for deflection apply to any load below the elastic limit, and than double the greatest safe load by the rules.

If the beams are long without lateral support, reduce the loads in the ratio of width to span as follows:

Length of Beam.			Proportion of Calculated Load forming Greatest Safe Load.	
30	times	flange width.	Whole	calculated load.
80	"	"	9-10	"
40	"	"	8-10	"
50	"	"	7-10	"
60	"	"	6-10	"
70	"	"	5-10	"

These rules apply to beams supported at each end. For beams supported otherwise, alter the coefficients of the table as described below, under the respective columns indicated by number.

Changes of Coefficients for Special Forms of Beams.

Kind of Beam.	Coefficient for Safe Load.	Coefficient for Deflection.
Fixed at one end, loaded at the other.	One fourth of the coefficient, col. II.	One sixteenth of the coefficient of col. IV.
Fixed at one end, load evenly distributed.	One fourth of the coefficient of col. III.	Five forty-eighths of coefficient of col. IV.
Both ends rigidly fixed, or a continuous beam, with a load in middle.	Twice the coefficient of col. II.	Four times the coefficient of col. IV.
Both ends rigidly fixed, or a continuous beam, with load evenly distributed.	One and one-half times the coefficient of col. III.	Five times the coefficient of col. V.

ELASTIC RESILIENCE.

In a rectangular beam tested by transverse stress, supported at the ends and loaded in the middle,

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{Rbd^2}{l};$$

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{4} \frac{Pl^3}{Ed^3};$$

In which, if P is the load in pounds at the elastic limit, R is the modulus of transverse strength, or the stress on the extreme fibre, at the elastic limit, E = modulus of elasticity, Δ = deflection, l , b , and d = length, breadth, and depth in inches. Substituting for P in (2) its value in (1), we have

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{6} \frac{Rl^3}{Ed^3}.$$

Resilience = half the product of the load and deflection = $\frac{1}{2} P \Delta$,
resilience per cubic inch

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{P \Delta}{l b d}.$$

If the values of P and Δ , this reduces to elastic resilience per cubic inch $= \frac{1}{2} \frac{R^2}{E}$, which is independent of the dimensions; and therefore resilience per cubic inch for transverse strain may be used as a measuring one valuable quality of a material.

or tension:

Elastic stress in pounds per square inch at the elastic limit;

Elongation per unit of length at the elastic limit;

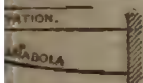
Modulus of elasticity = $P + e$; whence $e = P + E$.

Elastic resilience per cubic inch = $\frac{1}{2} P e = \frac{1}{2} \frac{P^2}{E}$.

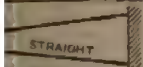
OF UNIFORM STRENGTH THROUGHOUT THEIR LENGTH.

It is supposed in all cases to be rectangular throughout. The beam is in plan are of uniform depth throughout. Those shown in are of uniform breadth throughout.

B = breadth of beam. D = depth of beam.



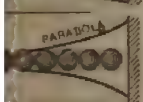
Fixed at one end, loaded at the other; curve parabolic, vertex at loaded end; BD^2 proportional to distance from loaded end. The beam may be reversed, so that the upper edge is parabolic, or both edges may be parabolic.



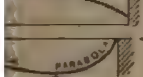
Fixed at one end, loaded at the other; triangle, apex at loaded end; BD^2 proportional to the distance from the loaded end.



Fixed at one end; load distributed; triangle, apex at unsupported end; BD^2 proportional to square of distance from unsupported end.



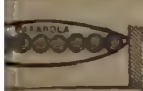
Fixed at one end; load distributed; curves two parabolas, vertices touching each other at unsupported end; BD^2 proportional to distance from unsupported end.



Supported at both ends; load at any one point; two parabolas, vertices at the points of support, bases at point loaded; BD^2 proportional to distance from nearest point of support. The upper edge or both edges may also be parabolic.



Supported at both ends; load at any one point; two triangles, apices at points of support, bases at point loaded; BD^2 proportional to distance from the nearest point of support.



Supported at both ends; load distributed; curves two parabolas, vertices at the middle of the beam; bases centre line of beam; BD^2 proportional to product of distances from points of support.



Supported at both ends; load distributed; curve semi-ellipse; BD^2 proportional to the product of the distances from the nearest support.

PROPERTIES OF ROLLED STRUCTURAL SHAPES.**Explanation of Tables of the Properties of Carnegie Beams, Channels, and Z Bars.**

The tables of I beams are calculated for the minimum weight each pattern can be rolled. The tables of channels are calculated for minimum and maximum weights of the various shapes, while the tables of Z bars are given for thicknesses differing by 1/16 inch.

Columns 11 and 13, in the tables for I beams and channels, give the safe uniformly distributed load may rest on the beam, determined. To do this, divide the coefficient given by the span of the beam between supports in feet. If the weight of the section is intermediate between the minimum and maximum weights given, add to the value for the minimum weight the value given in columns 12 or 14 (for an increase of weight), multiplied by the number of pounds the weight is heavier than the minimum.

If a section is to be selected (as will usually be the case) to carry a certain load, for a length of span already determined on, the coefficient which this load and span will require, and refer to the table for a section having a coefficient of this value. The coefficient is then multiplied by the load, in pounds uniformly distributed, by the length in feet.

In case the load is not uniformly distributed, but is concentrated in the middle of the span, multiply the load by 2 and then consider it as uniformly distributed. The deflection will be 8/10 of the deflection under the latter load.

For other cases of loading obtain the bending moment in foot-pounds, and multiply by 8 will give the coefficient required.

If the loads are quiescent, the coefficients for a fibre strain of 10,000 lbs. per square inch for steel and 12,000 lbs. for iron may be used. For moving loads are to be provided for, the coefficients for 12,500 lbs. respectively, should be taken. Inasmuch as the effects of moving loads are very considerable (the strains produced in an unyielding material by a load suddenly applied being double those produced by the same load in a quiescent state), it will sometimes be advisable to take smaller fibre strains than those given in the tables. In such case the coefficients can readily be determined by proportion. Thus, for a fibre strain of 8000 lbs. per square inch the coefficient will equal the coefficient for 10,000 lbs. fibre strain, from the table, multiplied by 8/10.

The moments of resistance given in column 9 are used to determine the fibre strain per square inch in a beam, or other shape, subjected to a bending or transverse strain, by dividing the same into the bending moment, expressed in inch-pounds.

For Carnegie Z bars, complete tables of moments of inertia, moments of resistance, radii of gyration, and values of the coefficients (C) are given for thicknesses varying by 1/16 inch. These coefficients may be explained above, for cases where the Z bars are subjected to a bending loading, as, for example, in the case of roof-purlins.

For more complete and detailed information concerning structural steel, consult the pocket-books and circulars issued by the manufacturers.

[A more correct term for what is called "moment of resistance" and also in the tables on pages 274-275, is "moment of resisting area" Johnson, *Eng'g News*, Feb. 27, 1896. Reuleaux calls it "section factor"]

Member in Tension or Compression		3 1/2" L		10" L				12" L		15" L		18" L		20" L		22" L		24" L		26" L		28" L		30" L		32" L		34" L		36" L		38" L		40" L		42" L		44" L		46" L		48" L		50" L		52" L		54" L		56" L		58" L		60" L		62" L		64" L		66" L		68" L		70" L		72" L		74" L		76" L		78" L		80" L		82" L		84" L		86" L		88" L		90" L		92" L		94" L		96" L		98" L		100" L		102" L		104" L		106" L		108" L		110" L		112" L		114" L		116" L		118" L		120" L		122" L		124" L		126" L		128" L		130" L		132" L		134" L		136" L		138" L		140" L		142" L		144" L		146" L		148" L		150" L		152" L		154" L		156" L		158" L		160" L		162" L		164" L		166" L		168" L		170" L		172" L		174" L		176" L		178" L		180" L		182" L		184" L		186" L		188" L		190" L		192" L		194" L		196" L		198" L		200" L		202" L		204" L		206" L		208" L		210" L		212" L		214" L		216" L		218" L		220" L		222" L		224" L		226" L		228" L		230" L		232" L		234" L		236" L		238" L		240" L		242" L		244" L		246" L		248" L		250" L		252" L		254" L		256" L		258" L		260" L		262" L		264" L		266" L		268" L		270" L		272" L		274" L		276" L		278" L		280" L		282" L		284" L		286" L		288" L		290" L		292" L		294" L		296" L		298" L		300" L		302" L		304" L		306" L		308" L		310" L		312" L		314" L		316" L		318" L		320" L		322" L		324" L		326" L		328" L		330" L		332" L		334" L		336" L		338" L		340" L		342" L		344" L		346" L		348" L		350" L		352" L		354" L		356" L		358" L		360" L		362" L		364" L		366" L		368" L		370" L		372" L		374" L		376" L		378" L		380" L		382" L		384" L		386" L		388" L		390" L		392" L		394" L		396" L		398" L		400" L																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																								
Length in feet	Area in sq. ins.	80 lbs.	64 lbs.	80 lbs.	60 lbs.	60 lbs.	41 lbs.	40 lbs.	32 lbs.	33 lbs.	25 1/2 lbs.	27 lbs.	18.2	13.9	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	256	257	258	259	260	261	262	263	264	265	266	267	268	269	270	271	272	273	274	275	276	277	278	279	280	281	282	283	284	285	286	287	288	289	290	291	292	293	294	295	296	297	298	299	300	301	302	303	304	305	306	307	308	309	310	311	312	313	314	315	316	317	318	319	320	321	322	323	324	325	326	327	328	329	330	331	332	333	334	335	336	337	338	339	340	341	342	343	344	345	346	347	348	349	350	351	352	353	354	355	356	357	358	359	360	361	362	363	364	365	366	367	368	369	370	371	372	373	374	375	376	377	378	379	380	381	382	383	384	385	386	387	388	389	390	391	392	393	394	395	396	397	398	399	400	401	402	403	404	405	406	407	408	409	410	411	412	413	414	415	416	417	418	419	420	421	422	423	424	425	426	427	428	429	430	431	432	433	434	435	436	437	438	439	440	441	442	443	444	445	446	447	448	449	450	451	452	453	454	455	456	457	458	459	460	461	462	463	464	465	466	467	468	469	470	471	472	473	474	475	476	477	478	479	480	481	482	483	484	485	486	487	488	489	490	491	492	493	494	495	496	497	498	499	500	501	502	503	504	505	506	507	508	509	510	511	512	513	514	515	516	517	518	519	520	521	522	523	524	525	526	527	528	529	530	531	532	533	534	535	536	537	538	539	540	541	542	543	544	545	546	547	548	549	550	551	552	553	554	555	556	557	558	559	560	561	562	563	564	565	566	567	568	569	570	571	572	573	574	575	576	577	578	579	580	581	582	583	584	585	586	587	588	589	590	591	592	593	594	595	596	597	598	599	600	601	602	603	604	605	606	607	608	609	610	611	612	613	614	615	616	617	618	619	620	621	622	623	624	625	626	627	628	629	630	631	632	633	634	635	636	637	638	639	640	641	642	643	644	645	646	647	648	649	650	651	652	653	654	655	656	657	658	659	660	661	662	663	664	665	666	667	668	669	670	671	672	673	674	675	676	677	678	679	680	681	682	683	684	685	686	687	688	689	690	691	692	693	694	695	696	697	698	699	700	701	702	703	704	705	706	707	708	709	710	711	712	713	714	715	716	717	718	719	720	721	722	723	724	725	726	727	728	729	730	731	732	733	734	735	736	737	738	739	740	741	742	743	744	745	746	747	748	749	750	751	752	753	754	755	756	757	758	759	760	761	762	763	764	765	766	767	768	769	770	771	772	773	774	775	776	777	778	779	780	781	782	783	784	785	786	787	788	789	790	791	792	793	794	795	796	797	798	799	800	801	802	803	804	805	806	807	808	809	810	811	812	813	814	815	816	817	818	819	820	821	822	823	824	825	826	827	828	829	830	831	832	833	834	835	836	837	838	839	840	841	842	843	844	845	846	847	848	849	850	851	852	853	854	855	856	857	858	859	860	861	862	863	864	865	866	867	868	869	870	871	872	873	874	875	876	877	878	879	880	881	882	883	884	885	886	887	888	889	890	891	892	893	894	895	896	897	898	899	900	901	902	903	904	905	906	907	908	909	910	911	912	913	914	915	916	917	918	919	920	921	922	923	924	925	926	927	928	929	930	931	932	933	934	935	936	937	938	939	940	941	942	943	944	945	946	947	948	949	950	951	952	953	954	955	956	957	958	959	960	961	962	963	964	965	966	967	968	969	970	971	972	973	974	975	976	977	978	979	980	981	982	983	984	985	986	987	988	989	990	991	992	993	994	995	996	997	998	999	1000

Properties of Carnegie I Beams—Steel.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Section Index.	Depth of Beam.	Weight per foot.	Area of Section.	Thickness of Web.	Width of Flange.	Increase of Thickness of Web for each inch of flange.	Moment of Inertia, Neutral Axis perpendicular to Web at Centre.	Moment of Resistance, Neutral Axis.	Radius of Gyration, Neutral Axis before.	Coefficient of Strength for Fibre Strain of 16,000 lbs. per sq. inch.	Add to Coeff. for every lb. increase in Wt. of Beam.	Coefficient of Strength for Fibre Strain of 12,500 lbs. per sq. inch.	Add to Coeff. for every lb. increase in Wt. of Beam.	Moment of Inertia, Neutral Axis, perpendicular to Web.	Radius of Gyration, Neutral Axis before.
			sq. in.	in.	in.	in.	I	R	r	C	Add to Coeff. for every lb. increase in Wt. of Beam.	C	Add to Coeff. for every lb. increase in Wt. of Beam.	F	r
B 1	34"	90	34.5	.50	6.95	.0123	2009.8	171.6	9.42	1899000	12800	143000	10000	41.6	1.84
B 2	30"	80	28.5	.60	7.00	.015	1419.9	144.9	7.83	1557000	10450	107400	8300	45.6	1.89
B 3	30"	64	23.8	.60	6.25	.015	1166.0	114.5	7.80	1224100	8650	95400	6300	27.3	1.80
B 4	18"	50	22.8	.77	6.41	.020	763.0	103.8	6.82	1177000	7800	77400	6100	42.3	1.85
B 5	18"	50	17.6	.54	5.75	.020	639.7	76.6	6.04	738500	7800	71800	6100	50.4	1.82
B 6	15"	50	14.7	.45	5.75	.025	433.1	58.6	5.94	628200	6800	58800	6100	51.0	1.80
B 7	12"	40	12.0	.40	5.50	.025	331.3	47.0	5.10	500100	6800	50700	4900	14.9	1.08
B 8	12"	32	9.4	.35	5.25	.020	221.3	37.0	4.45	385200	5800	38800	4900	16.8	1.20
B 9	10"	25.5	7.5	.32	4.75	.033	153.7	34.7	4.08	249800	5800	25200	4100	10.3	1.04
B 10	10"	22	6.8	.31	4.75	.033	110.6	24.6	3.72	222300	4600	20400	3600	17.3	1.10
B 11	8"	21	7.9	.31	4.60	.037	84.9	18.7	3.30	191600	4200	15900	3200	5.33	0.89
B 12	8"	18	6.8	.25	4.25	.037	71.9	14.4	3.30	151000	4200	14900	3200	5.50	0.97
B 13	7"	20	5.8	.25	4.25	.042	57.8	14.3	3.31	151000	3800	14900	2800	6.62	1.01
B 14	7"	15.5	4.6	.23	4.00	.049	49.7	11.0	3.01	117600	3800	114300	2800	5.32	0.91
B 15	6"	13	3.6	.23	3.63	.049	38.6	9.54	2.47	101800	3100	91900	2400	9.37	0.87
B 16	6"	13	3.6	.23	3.50	.039	28.6	7.83	2.48	73500	2900	65900	2400	9.54	0.83
B 17	5"	10	3.0	.22	3.13	.039	15.7	6.36	2.05	52000	2900	52000	2000	2.27	1.19
B 18	5"	10	3.0	.22	3.00	.074	12.4	5.86	1.62	41200	2100	41800	1600	6.77	0.72
B 19	4"	8	2.5	.24	2.75		9.9	5.00	1.02	32500	2100	32500	1600	1.27	0.96
B 20	4"	6	2.0	.23	2.50		6.9	3.80	1.03	21000	1600	21000	1000	0.75	0.85
B 21	4"	6	2.0	.23	2.50		6.9	3.80	1.03	21000	1600	21000	1000	0.75	0.85

PROPERTIES OF CARNEGIE Z BAR.
IRON OR STEEL.

Section Index.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
		in.	in.	in.	lb.	sq. ft.	sq. in.									
		Depth of Web.	Width of Flange.	Thickness of Metal.	Weight per foot, Iron.	Weight per foot, Steel.	Area of Section.		Moments of Inertia.	Moments of Resistance.	Radius of Gyration.					
									<i>I</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>r</i>				<i>C</i>	<i>C</i>
									Neutral Axis perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis perpendicular to Web.	Least Radius, Neutral Axis Diagonal.	For Fibre Strain of Perpendicular to Web at Centre.	For Fibre Strain of Perpendicular to Web at Centre.
1	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	15-3	15-6	4-59	25-33	0 11	8 44	9 77	3-35	1-41	0 88	90000	90000
2	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	18-0	18-3	5-39	29-80	10-85	9 58	9 77	3-35	1-43	0 88	108000	108000
3	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	20-4	21-0	6 10	34 36	12-87	11 32	9 77	3-35	1-47	0 88	126000	126000
4	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	22-8	23-7	6 68	39 63	14-42	12 52	9 77	3-35	1-51	0 88	144000	144000
5	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	25-2	26-4	7 36	44 88	16-34	14 10	9 77	3-35	1-55	0 88	162000	162000
6	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	27-6	28-9	8 04	50 12	18-26	15 68	9 77	3-35	1-59	0 88	180000	180000
7	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	30-0	31-3	8 72	55 36	20-18	17 26	9 77	3-35	1-63	0 88	198000	198000
8	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	32-4	33-8	9 40	60 60	22-10	18 84	9 77	3-35	1-67	0 88	216000	216000
9	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	34-8	36-3	10 08	65 84	24-02	20 40	9 77	3-35	1-71	0 88	234000	234000
10	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	37-2	38-7	10 76	71 08	25-94	21 96	9 77	3-35	1-75	0 88	252000	252000
11	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	39-6	41-1	11 44	76 32	27-86	23 52	9 77	3-35	1-79	0 88	270000	270000
12	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	42-0	43-5	12 12	81 56	29-78	25 08	9 77	3-35	1-83	0 88	288000	288000
13	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	44-4	46-0	12 80	87 80	31-70	26 64	9 77	3-35	1-87	0 88	306000	306000
14	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	46-8	48-5	13 48	93 04	33-62	28 20	9 77	3-35	1-91	0 88	324000	324000
15	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	49-2	51-0	14 16	98 28	35-54	29 76	9 77	3-35	1-95	0 88	342000	342000
16	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	51-6	53-5	14 84	103 52	37-46	31 32	9 77	3-35	1-99	0 88	360000	360000
17	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	54-0	56-0	15 52	108 76	39-38	32 88	9 77	3-35	2-03	0 88	378000	378000
18	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	56-4	58-5	16 20	114 00	41-30	34 44	9 77	3-35	2-07	0 88	396000	396000
19	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	58-8	61-0	16 88	119 24	43-22	36 00	9 77	3-35	2-11	0 88	414000	414000
20	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	61-2	63-5	17 56	124 48	45-14	37 56	9 77	3-35	2-15	0 88	432000	432000
21	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	63-6	66-0	18 24	129 72	47-06	39 12	9 77	3-35	2-19	0 88	450000	450000
22	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	66-0	68-5	18 92	134 96	48-98	40 68	9 77	3-35	2-23	0 88	468000	468000
23	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	68-4	71-0	19 60	140 20	50-90	42 24	9 77	3-35	2-27	0 88	486000	486000
24	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	70-8	73-5	20 28	145 44	52-82	43 80	9 77	3-35	2-31	0 88	504000	504000
25	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	73-2	76-0	20 96	150 68	54-74	45 36	9 77	3-35	2-35	0 88	522000	522000
26	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	75-6	78-5	21 64	155 92	56-66	46 92	9 77	3-35	2-39	0 88	540000	540000
27	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	78-0	81-0	22 32	161 16	58-58	48 48	9 77	3-35	2-43	0 88	558000	558000
28	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	80-4	83-5	23 00	166 40	60-50	50 04	9 77	3-35	2-47	0 88	576000	576000
29	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	82-8	86-0	23 68	171 64	62-42	51 60	9 77	3-35	2-51	0 88	594000	594000
30	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	85-2	88-5	24 36	176 88	64-34	53 16	9 77	3-35	2-55	0 88	612000	612000
31	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	87-6	91-0	25 04	182 12	66-26	54 72	9 77	3-35	2-59	0 88	630000	630000
32	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	90-0	93-5	25 72	187 36	68-18	56 28	9 77	3-35	2-63	0 88	648000	648000
33	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	92-4	96-0	26 40	192 60	70-10	57 84	9 77	3-35	2-67	0 88	666000	666000
34	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	94-8	98-5	27 08	197 84	72-02	59 40	9 77	3-35	2-71	0 88	684000	684000
35	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	97-2	101-0	27 76	203 08	73-94	60 96	9 77	3-35	2-75	0 88	702000	702000
36	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	99-6	103-5	28 44	208 32	75-86	62 52	9 77	3-35	2-79	0 88	720000	720000
37	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	102-0	106-0	29 12	213 56	77-78	64 08	9 77	3-35	2-83	0 88	738000	738000
38	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	104-4	108-5	29 80	218 80	79-70	65 64	9 77	3-35	2-87	0 88	756000	756000
39	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	106-8	111-0	30 48	224 04	81-62	67 20	9 77	3-35	2-91	0 88	774000	774000
40	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	109-2	113-5	31 16	229 28	83-54	68 76	9 77	3-35	2-95	0 88	792000	792000
41	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	111-6	116-0	31 84	234 52	85-46	70 32	9 77	3-35	2-99	0 88	810000	810000
42	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	114-0	118-5	32 52	239 76	87-38	71 88	9 77	3-35	3-03	0 88	828000	828000
43	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	116-4	121-0	33 20	245 00	89-30	73 44	9 77	3-35	3-07	0 88	846000	846000
44	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	118-8	123-5	33 88	250 24	91-22	75 00	9 77	3-35	3-11	0 88	864000	864000
45	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	121-2	126-0	34 56	255 48	93-14	76 56	9 77	3-35	3-15	0 88	882000	882000
46	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	123-6	128-5	35 24	260 72	95-06	78 12	9 77	3-35	3-19	0 88	900000	900000
47	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	126-0	131-0	35 92	265 96	96-98	79 68	9 77	3-35	3-23	0 88	918000	918000
48	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	128-4	133-5	36 60	271 20	98-90	81 24	9 77	3-35	3-27	0 88	936000	936000
49	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	130-8	136-0	37 28	276 44	100-82	82 80	9 77	3-35	3-31	0 88	954000	954000
50	9	0 1-10	8 9-10	3-16	133-2	138-5	37 96	281 68	102-74	84 36	9 77	3-35	3-35	0 88	972000	972000

Section Index	Depth of Web.	Width of Flange.	Thickness of Metal.	Weight per foot, Iron.	Weight per foot, Steel.	Area of Section.	Moments of Inertia.			Moments of Resistance.			Radii of Gyration.			Coefficient of Strength.		
	in.	in.	in.	sq. in.	sq. in.	sq. in.	Neutral Axis through Web.	Centr. of Gravity Perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis through Web.	Centr. of Gravity Perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis through Web.	Centr. of Gravity Perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis through Web.	Centr. of Gravity Perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis through Web.	For Three Strain of inch. Axis Perpendicular to Web at Centre.	For Three Strain of inch. Axis Perpendicular to Web at Centre.	For Three Strain of inch. Axis Perpendicular to Web at Centre.
1	1 1/4	3 5/8	10-11	27.8	3.98	8.33	14.85	31.44	4.84	1.88	1.81	0.57	1.81	0.57	1.81	12,000 lbs. per square inch.	12,000 lbs. per square inch.	12,000 lbs. per square inch.
2	1 1/2	4 1/8	11-12	31.2	4.58	9.41	16.85	35.84	5.44	2.12	2.04	0.64	2.04	0.64	2.04	13,000 lbs. per square inch.	13,000 lbs. per square inch.	13,000 lbs. per square inch.
3	1 3/4	4 3/4	12-13	34.8	5.18	10.48	18.85	40.24	6.04	2.36	2.28	0.71	2.28	0.71	2.28	14,000 lbs. per square inch.	14,000 lbs. per square inch.	14,000 lbs. per square inch.
4	2	5 1/8	13-14	38.4	5.78	11.55	20.85	44.64	6.64	2.60	2.52	0.78	2.52	0.78	2.52	15,000 lbs. per square inch.	15,000 lbs. per square inch.	15,000 lbs. per square inch.
5	2 1/4	5 3/4	14-15	42.0	6.38	12.62	22.85	49.04	7.24	2.84	2.76	0.85	2.76	0.85	2.76	16,000 lbs. per square inch.	16,000 lbs. per square inch.	16,000 lbs. per square inch.
6	2 1/2	6 1/8	15-16	45.6	6.98	13.69	24.85	53.44	7.84	3.08	2.99	0.92	2.99	0.92	2.99	17,000 lbs. per square inch.	17,000 lbs. per square inch.	17,000 lbs. per square inch.
7	2 3/4	6 3/4	16-17	49.2	7.58	14.76	26.85	57.84	8.44	3.32	3.24	0.99	3.24	0.99	3.24	18,000 lbs. per square inch.	18,000 lbs. per square inch.	18,000 lbs. per square inch.
8	3	7 1/8	17-18	52.8	8.18	15.83	28.85	62.24	9.04	3.56	3.48	1.06	3.48	1.06	3.48	19,000 lbs. per square inch.	19,000 lbs. per square inch.	19,000 lbs. per square inch.
9	3 1/4	7 3/4	18-19	56.4	8.78	16.90	30.85	66.64	9.64	3.80	3.72	1.13	3.72	1.13	3.72	20,000 lbs. per square inch.	20,000 lbs. per square inch.	20,000 lbs. per square inch.
10	3 1/2	8 1/8	19-20	60.0	9.38	17.97	32.85	71.04	10.24	4.04	3.96	1.20	3.96	1.20	3.96	21,000 lbs. per square inch.	21,000 lbs. per square inch.	21,000 lbs. per square inch.
11	3 3/4	8 3/4	20-21	63.6	9.98	19.04	34.85	75.44	10.84	4.28	4.20	1.27	4.20	1.27	4.20	22,000 lbs. per square inch.	22,000 lbs. per square inch.	22,000 lbs. per square inch.
12	4	9 1/8	21-22	67.2	10.58	20.11	36.85	79.84	11.44	4.52	4.44	1.34	4.44	1.34	4.44	23,000 lbs. per square inch.	23,000 lbs. per square inch.	23,000 lbs. per square inch.
13	4 1/4	9 3/4	22-23	70.8	11.18	21.18	38.85	84.24	12.04	4.76	4.68	1.41	4.68	1.41	4.68	24,000 lbs. per square inch.	24,000 lbs. per square inch.	24,000 lbs. per square inch.
14	4 1/2	10 1/8	23-24	74.4	11.78	22.25	40.85	88.64	12.64	5.00	4.92	1.48	4.92	1.48	4.92	25,000 lbs. per square inch.	25,000 lbs. per square inch.	25,000 lbs. per square inch.
15	4 3/4	10 3/4	24-25	78.0	12.38	23.32	42.85	93.04	13.24	5.24	5.16	1.55	5.16	1.55	5.16	26,000 lbs. per square inch.	26,000 lbs. per square inch.	26,000 lbs. per square inch.
16	5	11 1/8	25-26	81.6	12.98	24.39	44.85	97.44	13.84	5.48	5.40	1.62	5.40	1.62	5.40	27,000 lbs. per square inch.	27,000 lbs. per square inch.	27,000 lbs. per square inch.
17	5 1/4	11 3/4	26-27	85.2	13.58	25.46	46.85	101.84	14.44	5.72	5.64	1.69	5.64	1.69	5.64	28,000 lbs. per square inch.	28,000 lbs. per square inch.	28,000 lbs. per square inch.
18	5 1/2	12 1/8	27-28	88.8	14.18	26.53	48.85	106.24	15.04	5.96	5.88	1.76	5.88	1.76	5.88	29,000 lbs. per square inch.	29,000 lbs. per square inch.	29,000 lbs. per square inch.
19	5 3/4	12 3/4	28-29	92.4	14.78	27.60	50.85	110.64	15.64	6.20	6.12	1.83	6.12	1.83	6.12	30,000 lbs. per square inch.	30,000 lbs. per square inch.	30,000 lbs. per square inch.
20	6	13 1/8	29-30	96.0	15.38	28.67	52.85	115.04	16.24	6.44	6.36	1.90	6.36	1.90	6.36	31,000 lbs. per square inch.	31,000 lbs. per square inch.	31,000 lbs. per square inch.
21	6 1/4	13 3/4	30-31	99.6	15.98	29.74	54.85	119.44	16.84	6.68	6.60	1.97	6.60	1.97	6.60	32,000 lbs. per square inch.	32,000 lbs. per square inch.	32,000 lbs. per square inch.
22	6 1/2	14 1/8	31-32	103.2	16.58	30.81	56.85	123.84	17.44	6.92	6.84	2.04	6.84	2.04	6.84	33,000 lbs. per square inch.	33,000 lbs. per square inch.	33,000 lbs. per square inch.
23	6 3/4	14 3/4	32-33	106.8	17.18	31.88	58.85	128.24	18.04	7.16	7.08	2.11	7.08	2.11	7.08	34,000 lbs. per square inch.	34,000 lbs. per square inch.	34,000 lbs. per square inch.
24	7	15 1/8	33-34	110.4	17.78	32.95	60.85	132.64	18.64	7.40	7.32	2.18	7.32	2.18	7.32	35,000 lbs. per square inch.	35,000 lbs. per square inch.	35,000 lbs. per square inch.
25	7 1/4	15 3/4	34-35	114.0	18.38	34.02	62.85	137.04	19.24	7.64	7.56	2.25	7.56	2.25	7.56	36,000 lbs. per square inch.	36,000 lbs. per square inch.	36,000 lbs. per square inch.
26	7 1/2	16 1/8	35-36	117.6	18.98	35.09	64.85	141.44	19.84	7.88	7.80	2.32	7.80	2.32	7.80	37,000 lbs. per square inch.	37,000 lbs. per square inch.	37,000 lbs. per square inch.
27	7 3/4	16 3/4	36-37	121.2	19.58	36.16	66.85	145.84	20.44	8.12	8.04	2.39	8.04	2.39	8.04	38,000 lbs. per square inch.	38,000 lbs. per square inch.	38,000 lbs. per square inch.
28	8	17 1/8	37-38	124.8	20.18	37.23	68.85	150.24	21.04	8.36	8.28	2.46	8.28	2.46	8.28	39,000 lbs. per square inch.	39,000 lbs. per square inch.	39,000 lbs. per square inch.
29	8 1/4	17 3/4	38-39	128.4	20.78	38.30	70.85	154.64	21.64	8.60	8.52	2.53	8.52	2.53	8.52	40,000 lbs. per square inch.	40,000 lbs. per square inch.	40,000 lbs. per square inch.
30	8 1/2	18 1/8	39-40	132.0	21.38	39.37	72.85	159.04	22.24	8.84	8.76	2.60	8.76	2.60	8.76	41,000 lbs. per square inch.	41,000 lbs. per square inch.	41,000 lbs. per square inch.
31	8 3/4	18 3/4	40-41	135.6	21.98	40.44	74.85	163.44	22.84	9.08	9.00	2.67	9.00	2.67	9.00	42,000 lbs. per square inch.	42,000 lbs. per square inch.	42,000 lbs. per square inch.
32	9	19 1/8	41-42	139.2	22.58	41.51	76.85	167.84	23.44	9.32	9.24	2.74	9.24	2.74	9.24	43,000 lbs. per square inch.	43,000 lbs. per square inch.	43,000 lbs. per square inch.
33	9 1/4	19 3/4	42-43	142.8	23.18	42.58	78.85	172.24	24.04	9.56	9.48	2.81	9.48	2.81	9.48	44,000 lbs. per square inch.	44,000 lbs. per square inch.	44,000 lbs. per square inch.
34	9 1/2	20 1/8	43-44	146.4	23.78	43.65	80.85	176.64	24.64	9.80	9.72	2.88	9.72	2.88	9.72	45,000 lbs. per square inch.	45,000 lbs. per square inch.	45,000 lbs. per square inch.
35	9 3/4	20 3/4	44-45	150.0	24.38	44.72	82.85	181.04	25.24	10.04	9.96	2.95	9.96	2.95	9.96	46,000 lbs. per square inch.	46,000 lbs. per square inch.	46,000 lbs. per square inch.
36	10	21 1/8	45-46	153.6	24.98	45.79	84.85	185.44	25.84	10.28	10.20	3.02	10.20	3.02	10.20	47,000 lbs. per square inch.	47,000 lbs. per square inch.	47,000 lbs. per square inch.
37	10 1/4	21 3/4	46-47	157.2	25.58	46.86	86.85	189.84	26.44	10.52	10.44	3.09	10.44	3.09	10.44	48,000 lbs. per square inch.	48,000 lbs. per square inch.	48,000 lbs. per square inch.
38	10 1/2	22 1/8	47-48	160.8	26.18	47.93	88.85	194.24	27.04	10.76	10.68	3.16	10.68	3.16	10.68	49,000 lbs. per square inch.	49,000 lbs. per square inch.	49,000 lbs. per square inch.
39	10 3/4	22 3/4	48-49	164.4	26.78	49.00	90.85	198.64	27.64	11.00	10.92	3.23	10.92	3.23	10.92	50,000 lbs. per square inch.	50,000 lbs. per square inch.	50,000 lbs. per square inch.
40	11	23 1/8	49-50	168.0	27.38	50.07	92.85	203.04	28.24	11.24	11.16	3.30	11.16	3.30	11.16	51,000 lbs. per square inch.	51,000 lbs. per square inch.	51,000 lbs. per square inch.
41	11 1/4	23 3/4	50-51	171.6	27.98	51.14	94.85	207.44	28.84	11.48	11.40	3.37	11.40	3.37	11.40	52,000 lbs. per square inch.	52,000 lbs. per square inch.	52,000 lbs. per square inch.
42	11 1/2	24 1/8	51-52	175.2	28.58	52.21	96.85	211.84	29.44	11.72	11.64	3.44	11.64	3.44	11.64	53,000 lbs. per square inch.	53,000 lbs. per square inch.	53,000 lbs. per square inch.
43	11 3/4	24 3/4	52-53	178.8	29.18	53.28	98.85	216.24	30.04	11.96	11.88	3.51	11.88	3.51	11.88	54,000 lbs. per square inch.	54,000 lbs. per square inch.	54,000 lbs. per square inch.
44	12	25 1/8	53-54	182.4	29.78	54.35	100.85	220.64	30.64	12.20	12.12	3.58	12.12	3.58	12.12	55,000 lbs. per square inch.	55,000 lbs. per square inch.	55,000 lbs. per square inch.
45	12 1/4	25 3/4	54-55	186.0	30.38	55.42	102.85	225.04	31.24	12.44	12.36	3.65	12.36	3.65	12.36	56,000 lbs. per square inch.	56,000 lbs. per square inch.	56,000 lbs. per square inch.
46	12 1/2	26 1/8	55-56	189.6	30.98	56.49	104.85	229.44	31.84	12.68	12.60	3.72	12.60	3.72	12.60	57,000 lbs. per square inch.	57,000 lbs. per square inch.	57,000 lbs. per square inch.
47	12 3/4	26 3/4	56-57	193.2	31.58	57.56	106.85	233.84	32.44	12.92	12.84	3.79	12.84	3.79	12.84	58,000 lbs. per square inch.	58,000 lbs. per square inch.	58,000 lbs. per square inch.
48	13	27 1/8	57-58	196.8	32.18	58.63	108.85	238.24	33.04	13.16	13.08	3.86	13.08	3.86	13.08	59,000 lbs. per square inch.	59,000 lbs. per square inch.	59,000 lbs. per square inch.
49	13 1/4	27 3/4	58-59	200.4	32.78	59.70	110.85	242.64	33.64	13.40	13.32	3.93	13.32	3.93	13.32	60,000 lbs. per square inch.	60,000 lbs. per square inch.	60,000 lbs. per square inch.
50	13 1/2	28 1/8	59-60	204.0	33.38	60.77	112.85	247.04	34.24	13.64	13.56	4.00	13.56	4.00	13.56	61,000 lbs. per square inch.	61,000 lbs. per square inch.	61,000 lbs. per square inch.
51	13 3/4	28 3/4	60-61	207.6	33.98	61.84	114.85	251.44	34.84	13.88	13.80	4.07	13.80	4.07	13.80	62,000 lbs. per square inch.	62,000 lbs. per square inch.	62,000 lbs. per square inch.
52	14	29 1/8	61-62	211.2	34.58	62.91	116.85	255.84	35.44	14.12	14.04	4.14	14.04	4.14	14.04	63,000 lbs. per square inch.	63,000 lbs. per square inch.	63,000 lbs. per square inch.
53	14 1/4	29 3/4	62-63	214.8	35.18	63.98	118.85	260.24	36.04	14.36	14.28	4.21	14.28	4.21	14.28	64,000 lbs. per square inch.	64,000 lbs. per square inch.	64,000 lbs. per square inch.
54	14 1/2	30 1/8	63-64	218.4	35.78	65.05	120.85	264.64	36.64	14.60	14.52	4.28	14.52	4.28	14.52	65,000 lbs. per square inch.	65,000 lbs. per square inch.	65,000 lbs. per square inch.
55	14 3/4	30 3/4	64-65	222.0	36.38	66.12	122.85	269.04	37.24	14.84	14.76	4.35	14.76	4.35	14.76	66,000 lbs. per square inch.	66,000 lbs. per square inch.	66,000 lbs. per square inch.
56	15	31 1/8	65-66	225.6	36.98	67.19	124.85	273.44	37.84	15.08	15.00	4.42	15.00	4.42	15.00	67,000 lbs. per square inch.	67,000 lbs. per square inch.	67,000 lbs. per square inch.
57	15 1/4	31 3/4	66-67	229.2	37.58	68.26	126.85	277.84	38.44	15.32	15.24	4.49	15.24	4.49	15.24	68,000 lbs. per square inch.	68,000 lbs. per square inch.	68,000 lbs. per square inch.
58	15 1/2	32 1/8	67-68	232.8	38.18	6												

TRENTON IRON BEAMS AND CHANNELS

(New Jersey Steel and Iron Co.)

Height in inches.	Least Weight per Yard, in pounds.	Width of Flange, in inches.	Thickness of Web, in inches.	Coefficient in lbs. for Transverse Strength.	Height in inches.	Least Weight per Yard, in pounds.	Width of Flange, in inches.	Thickness of Web, in inches.
I Beams.					Channels.			
20	272	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	11-16	1,320,000	15	120	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
20	200	6	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	990,000	15	120	4	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	200	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	6	748,000	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	140	4	11-16
15 3-16	160	5	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	551,000	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	70	3	8
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	125	5	42	400,000	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
12 5-16	170	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	511,000	10	48	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5-16
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	125	4 $\frac{1}{2}$.47	377,000	9	70	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7-16
12	120	5 $\frac{1}{4}$.39	375,000	9	50	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
12	96	5 $\frac{1}{4}$.32	306,000	8	45	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	135	5	.47	360,000	8	33	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	105	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	286,000	7	30	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	90	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5-16	250,000	7	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
9	125	4 $\frac{1}{2}$.57	268,000	6	45	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
9	85	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	199,000	6	33	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
9	70	4	.3	167,000	6	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
8	80	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	168,000	5	10	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
8	65	4	.3	135,000	4	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
7	55	3 $\frac{3}{4}$.8	101,000	3	15	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
6	120	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	172,000	Deck Beams.			
6	90	5	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	132,000	8	65	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
6	50	3 $\frac{1}{2}$.3	76,800	7	55	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5-16
6	40	3	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	62,600				
5	40	3	5-16	49,100				
5	30	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	38,700				
4	37	3	5-16	36,800				
4	30	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	30,100				
4	18	2	3-16	18,000				

Trenton Beams and Channels.

To find which beam, supported at both ends, will be required to carry with safety a given uniformly distributed load:

Multiply the load in pounds by the span in feet, and take the tabular "Coefficient for Strength" is nearest to and exceeds the number so obtained. The weight of the beam itself should be included in the load.

The deflection in inches, for such distributed load, will be found by taking the square of the span taken in feet, by 70 times the depth of the beam taken in inches, for iron beams, and by 525 times the depth for steel beams.

EXAMPLE.—Which beam will be required to support a uniformly distributed load of 12 tons (= 24,000 lbs.) on a span of 15 feet?

24,000 \times 15 = 360,000, which is less than the coefficient of the 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ -lb. iron beam. The weight of the beam itself would be 625 lbs., which added to the load and multiplied by the span, would still give a product less than the coefficient; thus,

$$24,625 \times 15 = 369,375.$$

The deflection will be

$$\frac{15 \times 15}{70 \times 12\frac{1}{2}} = 0.26 \text{ inch.}$$

or each beam can be found by dividing the load by the coefficient and subtracting the weight of the beam

TRENTON ANGLE-BARS.

27

When the load is concentrated entirely at the centre of the span, one half of this amount must be taken.

The beams must be secured against yielding sideways, or the safe load will be much less.

For beams used with plastered ceilings, the deflection allowed should not exceed 1/30 inch per foot of span, to avoid cracking of the plaster.

TRENTON ANGLE-BARS.

Size of Bar.	Approximate Weight, in pounds per yard, for each thickness in inches.								Coeff. for Transverse Strength
	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8	Thinnest Bar
1/2 x 6	57.5	64.3	71.1	77.8	84.4	91.0	97.8		26,900 lbs
1/2 x 4 1/2	42.5	47.5	52.5	57.2	61.9	66.6	71.3		18,000 "
3/4 x 4	38.0	41.5	44.8	48.1	50.5	54.4			12,184 "
3/4 x 3 1/2	24.8	28.7	32.5	36.2	39.8	43.4			9,200 "
1 x 3	14.4	17.7	21.1	24.4	27.5	30.6	33.6	36.5	4,611 "
1 1/2 x 3 1/2	10.2	12.5	14.8	17.0	19.2	21.5	23.7	27.7	4,710 "
1 1/2 x 3	11.9	14.7	16.0	17.3	18.6	20.0	21.2	22.5	3,156 "
2 x 3 1/2	10.6	11.9	13.1	14.3	15.5	16.8	17.8		2,580 "
2 x 3	8.3	9.4	10.4	11.5	12.6	13.6			1,753 "
1 1/2 x 1 1/2	6.21	7.14	8.13	9.05	9.98	10.8	11.7		1,150 "
1 1/2 x 1 1/4	5.27	6.09	6.88	7.64	8.40	9.13			882 "
1 1/2 x 1 1/2	2.07	3.06	4.34	4.99	5.63				303 "
1 1/2 x 1	2.84	2.88	3.40	3.91	4.38				246 "
1 1/2 x 7/8	2.03	2.48	2.93						185 "
1 1/2 x 3/4	1.72	2.09	2.46						133 "

Uneven Legs.

	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8	30,080, 6" w
6 x 4	41.8	47.5	53.1	58.6	64.0	69.4			14,750, 5" w
5 x 3 1/2	30.5	35.3	40.0	44.7	49.2	53.7	58.1		18,353, 5" w
4 1/2 x 3	26.7	30.9	35.0	39.0	43.0	46.8	50.6		9,651, 3 1/2" w
4 x 3	20.9	24.9	28.7	32.5	36.2	39.8	43.4		14,580, 4 1/2" w
3 1/2 x 3	15.6	19.2	22.7	26.5	30.3	33.6	36.5		7,020, 3" w
3 1/2 x 2 1/2	14.4	17.7	21.1	24.4	27.5	30.6	33.6		9,850, 4" w
3 1/2 x 1 1/2	11.9								5,871, 3 1/2" w
3 1/2 x 1 1/4	10.2								6,180, 3 1/2" w
3 1/2 x 1	8.3								4,710, 3" w
3 1/2 x 7/8	7.32								6,087, 3 1/2" w
3 1/2 x 3/4	6.16								3,290, 2 1/2" w
3 x 3	10.4	11.9	13.3	14.6	17.3	20.0	22.5		5,515, 3 1/2" w
3 x 2 1/2	10.2	11.9	13.3	14.6	17.3	20.0	22.5		1,148, 1 1/2" w
3 x 2	10.2	11.9	13.3	14.6	17.3	20.0	22.5		4,490, 3" w
3 x 1 1/2	10.2	11.9	13.3	14.6	17.3	20.0	22.5		3,290, 2 1/2" w
3 x 1	10.2	11.9	13.3	14.6	17.3	20.0	22.5		3,833, 3" w
3 x 7/8	10.2	11.9	13.3	14.6	17.3	20.0	22.5		1,850, 2" w

TRENTON TEE BARS.

Designation of Bar.	Approximate Weight, in pounds per yard, for each thickness in inches.	Coefficient for Transverse Strength.
Table. Leg.		Thinnest Bar
4" x 4"		15,800 lbs.
3 1/2" x 3 1/2"	7-10 28.7 lbs.	10,550 "
3" x 3"	5 3/4 21.1 "	6,680 "
2 1/2" x 2 1/2"	5-16 14.7 "	3,850 "
2 1/4" x 2 1/4"	5-16 13.00 "	3,087 "
2" x 2"	4 1/2 9.4 "	1,970 "
1 1/2" x 1 1/2"	4 1/2 6.68 "	1,023 "
1 1/4" x 1 1/4"	7-32 4.87 "	595 "
1 1/2" x 1"	5-32 2.80 "	308 "
5" x 2 1/2"		6,344 "
5" x 2"	5-16 11.6 lbs.	2,540 "
2 1/2" x 3"	5 1/2 10.3 "	6,404 "
2" x 3"	5 1/2 17.3 "	6,173 "
2" x 1 1/2"	9-32 9.1 "	1,335 "
2 1/4" x 1 1/4"	3 1/2 7.4 "	604 "
2" x 1"	3 1/2 6.5 "	457 "
1 1/2" x 1"	3 1/2 5.6 "	421 "

SIZE OF BEAMS, AND THEIR DISTANCE APART,
 Suitable for Floors having Loads per square
 foot from 100 lbs. to 300 lbs.
 (New Jersey Steel and Iron Co.)

Clear Span in feet.	Load per sq. ft. 100 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 150 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 200 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 250 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 300 lbs.		
	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.
	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet
8	4	30	4.6	4	30	3.1	5	30	3.0	6	40	3.0	6	40	3.2
	5	30	5.9	5	30	4.0	6	40	3.8	8	50	4.7	5	50	3.9
10	5	30	3.2	6	40	4.1	6	40	3.0	6	50	3.0	7	55	3.3
	5	40	4.8	6	50	5.0	6	50	3.7	7	55	4.0	8	65	4.4
12	6	40	4.2	6	50	3.4	7	55	3.4	8	65	3.6	8	65	3.0
	6	50	5.2	7	55	4.6	8	65	4.5	9	70	4.5	9	70	3.3
14	7	55	5.0	7	55	3.3	8	65	3.3	9	70	3.3	9	85	3.3
	8	65	6.7	8	65	4.5	9	70	4.1	10 1/2	90	5.0	10 1/2	90	4.2
16	8	65	5.0	8	65	3.3	9	85	3.7	10 1/2	90	3.8	10 1/2	105	3.6
	9	70	6.3	9	70	4.2	10 1/2	90	4.7	10 1/2	105	4.3	12 1/2	125	4.6
18	9	70	4.9	9	85	3.9	10 1/2	105	4.2	10 1/2	105	3.4	10 1/2	125	3.6
	9	85	5.9	10 1/2	90	4.0	12	96	4.6	12 1/2	125	4.5	12 1/2	125	4.7
20	10 1/2	90	6.0	10 1/2	105	4.5	10 1/2	105	3.4	12 1/2	125	3.6	12 1/2	125	3.0
				12 1/2	125	6.0	12 1/2	125	4.5	12 1/2	170	4.9	15	150	4.4
22	10 1/2	90	4.9	12	96	4.0	12 1/2	125	3.7	12 1/2	125	3.0	12 1/2	170	3.5
	10 1/2	105	5.6	12 1/2	125	4.9	15	125	4.5	15	125	3.6	15	150	3.8
24	12	96	5.0	12 1/2	125	4.1	12 1/2	125	3.0	12 1/2	170	3.3	15	150	3.0
	12 1/2	135	6.1	15	125	5.0	15	150	4.5	15	150	3.6	15	200	3.7
26	12 1/2	125	5.1	15	125	4.3	15	150	3.8	15	200	3.0	15	200	3.5
				15	150	5.1	15	200	5.2	15	200	4.2	20	200	4.7
28	15	125	5.5	15	150	4.3	15	200	4.4	15	200	3.5	20	200	3.7
				15	200	5.9	20	200	6.0	20	200	4.8	20	275	5.2
30	15	150	5.6	15	150	3.7	15	200	3.8	20	200	4.1	20	275	4.6
				15	200	5.1	20	200	5.2	20	275	5.0	20	275	4.2

FLOORING MATERIAL.

For proof flooring, the space between the floor-beams may be spanned by brick arches, or with hollow brick made especially for the purpose, the latter being much lighter than ordinary brick.

4 inches deep of solid brick weigh about 70 lbs. per square foot, and the concrete levelling material, and substantial floors are thus laid to 6 feet span of arch, or much greater span if the skew backs at the ends of the arch are made deeper, the rise of the arch being preferably less than 1/10 of the span. Hollow brick for floors are usually in lengths of 12 of the span, and are used up to, and even exceeding, spans of 12 ft. The weight of the latter material will vary from 30 lbs. per square foot for 3-foot spans up to 60 lbs. per square foot for spans of 10 feet. Particulars of this construction are given by the manufacturers. For brick floors the beams should be securely tied with rods to resist lateral pressure.

Following cases the loads, in addition to the weight of the floor may be assumed as:

street bridges for general public traffic.....	80 lbs. per sq. ft.
floors of dwellings.....	40 lbs. " "
churches, theatres, and ball-rooms.....	80 lbs. " "
hay-beds.....	80 lbs. " "
storage of grain.....	100 lbs. " "
warehouses and general merchandise.....	250 lbs. " "
factories.....	200 to 400 lbs. " "
now thirty inches deep.....	16 lbs. " "
maximum pressure of wind.....	50 lbs. " "
brick walls.....	112 lbs. per cu. ft.
country walls.....	110-144 lbs. " "
allowing thirty pounds per square foot for wind and snow:	
corrugated iron laid directly on the purlins...	87 lbs. per sq. ft.
corrugated iron laid on boards.....	40 lbs. " "
plate nailed to laths.....	43 lbs. " "
plate nailed on boards.....	46 lbs. " "

Added below the rafters, the weight will be about ten pounds per square foot additional.

E-RODS FOR BEAMS SUPPORTING BRICK ARCHES.

Horizontal thrust of brick arches is as follows:

$$\frac{1.5 W S^2}{R} = \text{pressure in pounds, per lineal foot of arch:}$$

W = load in pounds, per square foot;

S = span of arch in feet;

R = rise in inches.

Use tie-rods as low through the webs of the beams as possible and so that the pressure of arches as obtained above will not produce a stress than 15,000 lbs. per square inch of the least section of the bolt.

TORSIONAL STRENGTH.

A horizontal shaft of diameter = d be fixed at one end, and at the free end, at a distance = l from the fixed end, let there be fixed a lever arm with a weight = P acting at a distance = a from the free end of the shaft so as to twist it; then Pa = moment of the applied force.

Twisting moment = twisting moment = $\frac{SJ}{c}$, in which S = unit shearing stress,

J = polar moment of inertia of the section with respect to the axis,

c = distance of the most remote fibre from the axis, in a cross-section.

For a circle with diameter d ,

$$J = \frac{\pi d^4}{32}; \quad c = \frac{1}{2}d;$$

$$Pa = \frac{SJ}{c} = \frac{\pi d^3 S}{32} = \frac{d^3 S}{5.1} = .1963 d^3 S; \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1 Pa}{S}}.$$

For hollow shafts of external diameter d and internal diameter d_1 ,

$$Pa = .1968 \frac{d^4 - d_1^4}{d} S; \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1Pa}{\left(1 - \frac{d_1^4}{d^4}\right) S}}.$$

For a square whose side = d ,

$$J = \frac{d^4}{8}; \quad c = d \sqrt{\frac{2}{2}}; \quad \frac{SJ}{c} = Pa = \frac{d^3 S}{4.2426} = 0.236d^3 S.$$

For a rectangle whose sides are b and d ,

$$J = \frac{bd^3}{12} + \frac{b^3d}{12}; \quad c = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{b^2 + d^2}; \quad \frac{SJ}{c} = Pa = \frac{(bd^3 + b^3d)S}{6 \sqrt{b^2 + d^2}}.$$

The above formulæ are based on the supposition that the shearing resistance at any point of the cross-section is proportional to its distance from the axis; but this is true only within the elastic limit. In materials capable of flow, while the particles near the axis are strained within the elastic limit those at some distance within the circumference may be strained nearly to the ultimate resistance, so that the total resistance is something greater than that calculated by the formulæ. (See Thurston, "Mats. of Eng.," Part II, p. 527.) Saint Venant finds for square shafts $Pa = 0.281d^3S$ (Rankine, "Mach. and Millwork," p. 501). For working strength, however, the formulæ may be used, with S taken at the safe working unit resistance.

The ultimate torsional shearing resistance S is about the same as the direct shearing resistance, and may be taken at 30,000 to 25,000 lbs. per square inch for cast iron, 45,000 lbs. for wrought iron, and 50,000 to 150,000 lbs. for steel, according to its carbon and temper. Large factors of safety should be taken, especially when the direction of stress is reversed, as in reversing engines, and when the torsional stress is combined with other stresses, as is usual in shafting. (See "Shafting.")

Elastic Resistance to Torsion.—Let l = length of bar being twisted, d = diameter, P = force applied at the extremity of a lever arm of length = a , Pa = twisting moment, G = torsional modulus of elasticity, θ = angle through which the free end of the shaft is twisted, measured in arc of radius = 1.

For a cylindrical shaft

$$Pa = \frac{\pi \theta G d^4}{32l}; \quad \theta = \frac{32Pal}{\pi d^4 G}; \quad G = \frac{32Pal}{\theta \pi d^4}; \quad \frac{32}{\pi} = 10.186.$$

If a = angle of torsion in degrees,

$$\theta = \frac{\pi a}{180}; \quad a = \frac{180\theta}{\pi} = \frac{180 \times 32Pal}{\pi^2 d^4 G} = \frac{583.6Pal}{d^4 G}.$$

The value of G is given by different authorities as from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{2}{3}$ of E , the modulus of elasticity for tension.

COMBINED STRESSES.

(From Merriman's "Strength of Materials.")

Combined Tension and Flexure.—Let A = the area of a bar subjected to both tension and flexure, P = tensile stress applied at the ends, $P \div A$ = unit tensile stress, S = unit stress at the fibre on the tensile side most remote from the neutral axis, due to flexure alone, then maximum tensile unit stress = $(P \div A) + S$. A beam to resist combined tension and flexure should be designed so that $(P \div A) + S$ shall not exceed the proper allowable working unit stress.

Combined Compression and Flexure.—If $P \div A$ = unit stress due to compression alone, and S = unit compressive stress at fibre most remote from neutral axis, due to flexure alone, then maximum compressive unit stress

$$= \frac{P}{A} + S.$$

Combined Tension (or Compression) and Shear.—If

(tension or compression) unit stress = p , applied shearing unit stress = q , from the combined action of the two forces

Max. $S = \pm \sqrt{p^2 + \frac{1}{4}q^2}$, Maximum shearing unit stress;
 $= \frac{1}{2}p \pm \sqrt{p^2 + \frac{1}{4}q^2}$, Maximum tensile (or compressive) unit stress.

Combined Flexure and Torsion.—If S = greatest unit stress due to flexure alone, and S_s = greatest torsional shearing unit stress due to torsion alone, then for the combined stresses

Max. tension or compression unit stress $t = \frac{1}{2}S + \sqrt{S^2 + \frac{1}{4}S_s^2}$;
 Max. shear $s = \pm \sqrt{S^2 + \frac{1}{4}S_s^2}$.

Formula for diameter of a round shaft subjected to transverse load while transmitting a given horse-power (see also Shafts of Engines):

$$d^3 = \frac{16M}{\pi t} + \frac{16}{t} \sqrt{\frac{M^2}{\pi^2} + \frac{402,500,000H^2}{n^2}}$$

M = maximum bending moment of the transverse forces in pound-feet; H = horse-power transmitted, n = No. of revs. per minute, and t = allowable tensile or compressive working strength of the material.

Combined Compression and Torsion.—For a vertical round shaft carrying a load and also transmitting a given horse-power, the resultant maximum compressive unit stress

$$t = \frac{4P}{\pi d^2} + \sqrt{321,000^2 \frac{H^2}{\pi^2 d^6} + \frac{16P^2}{\pi^2 d^4}}$$

P is the load. From this the diameter d may be found when t and the data are given.

Stress due to Temperature.—Let l = length of a bar, A = its section, α = coefficient of linear expansion for one degree, t = rise or fall in temperature in degrees, E = modulus of elasticity, λ the change of length due to the rise or fall t ; if the bar is free to expand or contract, $\lambda = \alpha l t$.

If the bar is held so as to prevent its expansion or contraction the stress S is due to the change of temperature = $S = \alpha l t E$. The following are the values of the coefficients of linear expansion for a change in temperature one degree Fahrenheit:

For brick and stone.... $\alpha = 0.0000050$,
 For cast iron $\alpha = 0.0000062$,
 For wrought iron..... $\alpha = 0.0000067$,
 For steel $\alpha = 0.0000065$.

Stress due to temperature should be added to or subtracted from the stress caused by other external forces according as it acts to increase or to decrease the existing stress.

Stress will be caused in a steel bar 1 inch square in area by a change in temperature of 100° F? $S = \alpha l t E = 1 \times .0000065 \times 100 \times 30,000,000 = 19,500$ lbs. Suppose the bar is under tension of 19,500 lbs. before the change in temperature takes place, a cooling of 100° F. will reduce the tension, and a heating of 100° will reduce the tension to zero.

STRENGTH OF FLAT PLATES.

Circular plate supported at the edge, uniformly loaded, according to

$$f = \frac{5}{64} \frac{r^2}{l^2} p; \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{5}{64} \frac{r^2 p}{f}}; \quad p = \frac{6}{5} \frac{t^2}{r^2}.$$

Circular plate fixed at the edge, uniformly loaded,

$$f = \frac{2}{3} \frac{r^2}{l^2} p; \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3} \frac{r^2 p}{f}}; \quad p = \frac{3}{2} \frac{t^2}{r^2};$$

f denotes the working stress; r , the radius in inches; l , the length in inches; and p , the pressure in pounds per square inch.

For mathematical discussion, see Lanza, "Applied Mechanics," p. 96.
Lanza gives the following table, using a factor of safety of 8, with the strength of cast iron 20,000, of wrought iron 40,000, and of steel 60,000 :

	Supported.	Fixed.
Cast iron.....	$t = .018257r \sqrt[4]{\frac{P}{p}}$	$t = .016330r \sqrt[4]{\frac{P}{p}}$
Wrought iron....	$t = .011785r \sqrt[4]{\frac{P}{p}}$	$t = .010841r \sqrt[4]{\frac{P}{p}}$
Steel.....	$t = .0091287r \sqrt[4]{\frac{P}{p}}$	$t = .0081049r \sqrt[4]{\frac{P}{p}}$

For a circular plate supported at the edge, and loaded with a concentrated load P applied at a circumference the radius of which is r_0 :

$$f = \left(\frac{4}{3} \log \frac{r}{r_0} + 1 \right) \frac{P}{\pi t^3} = c \frac{P}{\pi t^3};$$

for

$\frac{r}{r_0} = 10$	20	30	40	50;
$c = 4.07$	5.00	5.53	5.92	6.22;
$t = \sqrt[4]{\frac{cP}{\pi f}}$			$P = \frac{\pi t^3 f}{c}$	

The above formulae are deduced from theoretical considerations, and thicknesses much greater than are generally used in steam-engine cylinder heads. (See empirical formula under Dimensions of Parts of Engines.) Theoretical formulae seem to be based on incorrect or incomplete hypotheses, but they err in the direction of safety.

The Strength of Unstayed Flat Surfaces.—Robert V. (Eng'g, Sept. 24, 1875) draws attention to the apparent discrepancy between the results of theoretical investigations and of actual experiments on the strength of unstayed flat surfaces of boiler-plate, such as the unstayed crowns of domes and of vertical boilers.

Rankine's "Civil Engineering" gives the following rules for the strength of a circular plate *supported* all round the edge, prefaced by the remark that "the formula is founded on a theory which is only approximately true, but which nevertheless may be considered to involve no error of practical importance."

$$M = \frac{W^2}{6\pi} = \frac{Pb^3}{24}.$$

Here

M = greatest bending moment ;

W = total load uniformly distributed = $\frac{Pb^2\pi}{4}$;

b = diameter of plate in inches ;

P = bursting pressure in pounds per square inch.

Calling t the thickness in inches, for a plate *supported* round the edge

$$M = \frac{1}{6} 42,000bt^2; \quad \therefore \frac{Pb^3}{24} = 7000t^3.$$

For a plate *fixed* round the edges,

$$\frac{2}{3} \frac{Pb^3}{24} = 7000t^3; \quad \text{whence } P = \frac{t^3 \times 63,000}{r^3}.$$

where r = radius of the plate.

Dr. Grashof gives a formula from which we have the following rule:

$$P = \frac{t^3 \times 72,000}{r^3}.$$

This formula of Grashof's has been adopted by Professor Unwin in "Elements of Machine Design." These formulae by Rankine and Dr. Grashof are regarded as being practically the same.

In order to make the rules given by these authorities agree with the experience of the strength of unstayed flat surfaces of boiler domes that had given way after long use, Mr. Weymouth has modified the above rules give the breaking strength much lower than

especially when aided by the action of the corrosive acids in the steam, will in time reduce the thickness of the plate, and bring about the destruction of an unstayed surface at a very low pressure.

As flat plates commence to deflect at very low pressures, they should be stayed without stays; but it is better to dish the plates when they are stayed by flues, tubes, etc.

Just the commonly accepted opinion that the limit of elasticity never be reached in testing a boiler or other structure, these experiments show that an exception should be made in the case of an unstayed plate of a boiler, which will be safer when it has assumed a permanent deflection that will prevent its becoming grooved by the continual variation of pressure in working. The hydraulic pressure in this case simply does not have been done before the plate was fixed, that is, dished it.

These experiments appear to show that the mode of attaching by flange inside or outside angle-iron exerts an important influence on the strength in which the plate is strained by the pressure.

When the plate is secured to an angle-iron, the stretching under pressure is, to a great extent, concentrated at the line of rivet-holes, and the plate behaves like a beam supported than fixed round the edge. Instead of the strength increasing as the square of the thickness, when the plate is attached to angle-iron, it is probable that the strength does not increase even as the thickness, since the plate gives way simply by stretching at the rivet-holes, and the thicker the plate, the less uniformly is the strain distributed over the different layers of which the plate may be considered to be composed.

When the plate is flanged, the flange becomes compressed by the pressure against the body of the plate, and near the rim, as shown by the experiments. In flexure, the inside of the plate is stretched more than the outside, and may be by a kind of shearing action that the plate gives way along the line where the crushing and stretching meet.

These tests appear to show that the rules deduced from the theoretical calculations of Lamé, Rankine, and Grashof are not confirmed by experiment and are therefore not trustworthy.

Need Wrought-Iron Heads of Boilers, etc. (*The Locomotive*, Feb. 1890).—Few experiments have been made on the strength of heads, and our knowledge of them comes largely from theory. Experiments have been made on small plates 1-16 of an inch thick, yet the data so obtained cannot be considered satisfactory when we consider the far thicker plates that are used in practice, although the results agreed well with Rankine's formula. Mr. Nichols has made experiments on larger heads, and from them he has deduced the following rule: "To find the proper thickness of a flat unstayed head, multiply the area of the head by the pressure

3. Head $26\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, and $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick. The area is 530.4 square inches. Then, $\frac{3}{8} \times 44,800 \times 10 = 168,000$, and $168,000 \div 531 = 316$ lbs. This head burst at 370 pounds.

4. Head $26\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. The area is 545.4 square inches; then, $\frac{1}{2} \times 44,800 \times 10 = 168,000$, and $168,000 \div 545 = 308$ pounds. The actual bursting pressure was 300 pounds.

In the third experiment, the amount the plate bulged under the pressure was as follows:

At pounds per sq. in....	10	20	40	60	120	140	160
Plate bulged.....	1/32	1/16	3/8	5/8	3/4	1 1/2	1 3/4

The pressure was now reduced to zero, "and the end sprang to its original shape, leaving it with a permanent set of 9-16 inch. The pressure of 160 lbs. was again applied on 36 separate occasions during an interval of 10 minutes, the bulging and permanent set being noted on each occasion, but with any appreciable difference from that noted above.

The experiments described were confined to plates not widely different in their dimensions, so that Mr. Nichols's rule cannot be relied upon in cases that depart much from the proportions given in the examples.

Thickness of Flat Cast-Iron Plates to resist Hydrostatic Pressures. Capt. John Ericsson (Church's Life of Ericsson) gives the following rule: The proper thickness of a square cast-iron plate obtained by the following: Multiply the side in feet (or decimals of a foot) by $\frac{1}{4}$ of the pressure in pounds and divide by 850 times the side in feet. The quotient is the square of the thickness in inches.

For a circular plate, multiply 11.34 of the diameter in feet by $\frac{1}{4}$ of the pressure on the plate in pounds. Divide by 850 times 11.34 of the diameter in inches. [Extract the square root.]

Prof. Wm. Harkness, *Eng'g News*, Sept. 5, 1896, shows that these rules can be put in a more convenient form, thus:

$$\text{For square plates } T = 0.00495S \sqrt{p},$$

and

$$\text{For circular plates } T = 0.00489D \sqrt{p},$$

where T = thickness of plate, S = side of the square, D = diameter of the circle, and p = pressure in lbs. per sq. in. Professor Harkness doubts the value of the rules, and says that no satisfactory theoretical derivation has yet been obtained.

Strength of Stayed Surfaces.—A flat plate of thickness t is supported uniformly by stays whose distance from centre to centre is a , and load p lbs. per square inch. Each stay supports pa^2 lbs. The stress on the plate is

$$f = \frac{2}{9} \frac{a^2}{t^3} p. \text{ (Unwin).}$$

SPHERICAL SHELLS AND DOMED BOILER-HEADS.

To find the Thickness of a Spherical Shell to resist a given Pressure.—Let d = diameter in inches, and p the internal pressure per square inch. The total pressure which tends to produce rupture around the great circle will be $\frac{1}{2}pd^2$. Let S = safe tensile stress per square inch, and t the thickness of metal in inches; then the resistance pressure will be $\pi d t S$. Since the resistance must be equal to the pressure,

$$\frac{1}{2}pd^2 = \pi d t S. \text{ Whence } t = \frac{pd}{4S}.$$

The same rule is used for finding the thickness of a hemisphere to a cylinder, as of a cylindrical boiler.

Thickness of a Domed Head of a boiler.—If S = safe stress per square inch, d = diameter of the shell in inches, and t = thickness of the shell, $t = \frac{pd}{4S}$; but the thickness of a hemispherical head of the same diameter is $t = \frac{pd}{4S} + \frac{1}{8}d$. Hence if we make the radius of a domed head equal to the diameter of the boiler, we shall have $\frac{2pd}{4S} = \frac{pd}{4S} + \frac{1}{8}d$ or the thickness of such a domed head will be equal to the thickness of the boiler plus one-eighth of the diameter.

Stresses in Steel Plating due to Water-pressure, as in the case of vessels and bulkheads (*Engineering*, May 23, 1891, page 629).

Mr. J. A. Yates has made calculations of the stresses to which steel plates are subjected by external water-pressure, and arrives at the following conclusions:

Let $2a$ inches be the distance between the frames or other rigid parts, and let d represent the depth in feet, below the surface of the water, of the plate under consideration, t = thickness of plate in inches, δ = deflection from a straight line under pressure in inches, and P = stress in square inch of section.

For outer bottom and ballast tank plating, $a = 480 \frac{t}{d}$, D should not be more than $.06 \frac{2a}{12}$, and $\frac{P}{2}$ not greater than 2 to 3 tons; while for bulkheads,

$a = 352 \frac{t}{d}$, D should not be greater than $.1 \frac{2a}{12}$, and $\frac{P}{2}$ not greater than 3 tons.

To illustrate the application of these formulae the following cases have been taken:

For Outer Bottom, etc.			For Bulkheads, etc.		
Depth of Water.	Spacing of Frames should not exceed	Thick-ness of Plating	Depth of Water.	Maximum Spacing of Rigid Stiffeners.	
ft.	in.	in.	ft.	ft.	in.
20	About 21	$1\frac{1}{2}$	50	9	10
10	" 42	$\frac{3}{4}$	20	7	4
18	" 18	$\frac{3}{8}$	10	14	8
8	" 36	$\frac{1}{2}$	20	4	10
16	" 20	$\frac{3}{8}$	10	9	8
5	" 40	$\frac{1}{2}$	10	4	10

It would appear that the course which should be followed in stiffening bulkheads is to fit substantially rigid stiffening frames at comparatively small intervals, and only work such light angles between as are necessary to make a fair job of the bulkhead.

THICK HOLLOW CYLINDERS UNDER TENSION.

Mr. "Elasticity and Resistance of Materials," p. 36, gives

$$\left\{ \left(\frac{h+p}{h-p} \right)^2 - 1 \right\} \cdot \begin{matrix} t = \text{thickness}; r = \text{interior radius}; \\ h = \text{maximum allowable hoop tension at the} \\ \text{interior of the cylinder}; \\ p = \text{intensity of interior pressure.} \end{matrix}$$

Triman gives

$$\begin{aligned} s &= \text{unit stress at inner edge of the annulus;} \\ r &= \text{interior radius;} t = \text{thickness;} \\ l &= \text{length.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Total stress over the area } 2\pi l = 2\pi l \frac{rt}{r+t} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

The total interior pressure which tends to rupture the cylinder is $2\pi l \times p$.

If the unit pressure, then $p = \frac{st}{r+t}$, from which one of the quantities r , or t can be found when the other three are given.

$$s = \frac{p(r+t)}{t}; \quad r = \frac{(s-p)t}{p}; \quad t = \frac{rp}{s-p}.$$

In eq. (1), if t be neglected in comparison with r , it reduces to 2, which is the same as the formula for thin cylinders. If $t = r$, it becomes only half the resistance of the thin cylinder.

The formulae given by Burr and by Merriman are quite different, as seen by the following example: Let maximum unit stress at the edge of the annulus = 8000 lbs. per square inch, radius of cylinder = 6 in., interior pressure = 4000 lbs. per square inch. Required the thickness.

$$\text{By Burr, } t = 4 \left\{ \left(\frac{8000 + 4000}{8000 - 4000} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right\} = 4 (\sqrt{2} - 1) = 2.928 \text{ in.}$$

$$\text{By Merriman, } t = \frac{4 \times 4000}{8000 - 4000} = 4 \text{ inches.}$$

Limit to Useful Thickness of Hollow Cylinders. Jan. 4, 1884).—Professor Barlow lays down the law of the resistance of thick cylinders as follows:

"In a homogeneous cylinder, if the metal is incompressible, the stress on every concentric layer, caused by an internal pressure, varies as the square of its distance from the centre."

Suppose a twelve-inch gun to have walls 15 inches thick.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pressure on exterior} &= \frac{6^2}{21^2} = 1 : 12.25. \\ \text{Pressure on interior} &= \end{aligned}$$

So that if the stress on the interior is $12\frac{1}{4}$ tons per square inch, the stress on the exterior is only 1 ton.

Let s = the stress in the inner layer, and s_1 that at a distance x from the axis; r = internal radius, R = external radius.

$$s_1 : s :: x^2 : r^2, \text{ or } s_1 = s \frac{r^2}{x^2}.$$

The whole stress on a section 1 inch long, extending from the interior to the exterior surface, is $S = sr \times \frac{R-r}{R}$.

In a 12-inch gun, let $s = 40$ tons, $r = 6$ in., $R = 21$ in.

$$S = 40 \times 6 \times \frac{21-6}{21} = 172 \text{ tons.}$$

Suppose now we go on adding metal to the gun outside: then R comes so large compared with r , that $R - r$ will approach the value of R , so that the fraction $\frac{R-r}{R}$ becomes nearly unity.

Hence for an infinitely thick cylinder the useful strength cannot exceed sr (in this case 240 tons).

Barlow's formula agrees with the one given by Merriman.

Another statement of the gun problem is as follows: Using the

$$p = \frac{st}{r+t},$$

$$s = 40 \text{ tons, } t = 15 \text{ in., } r = 6 \text{ in., } p = \frac{40 \times 15}{21} = 28\frac{4}{7} \text{ tons per sq. in.}$$

radius = 172 tons, the pressure to be resisted by a section 1 inch thick of the gun on one side. Suppose thickness were doubled.

$$t = 30 \text{ in.: } p = \frac{40 \times 30}{36} = 33\frac{1}{3} \text{ tons, or an increase of only 16 per cent.}$$

For short cast-iron cylinders, such as are used in hydraulic presses, it is doubtful if the above formulae hold true, since the strength of the cylindrical portion is reinforced by the end. In that case the bursting pressure would be higher than that calculated by the formula. A rule of practice for such presses is to make the thickness = $\frac{1}{10}$ of the circumference, for pressures of 3000 to 4000 lbs. per square inch. The pressure would bring a stress upon the inner layer of 10,350 lbs. per square inch, as calculated by the formula; which would necessitate the use of the best charcoal iron, and the press reasonably safe.

THIN CYLINDERS UNDER TENSION.

p working pressure in lbs. per sq. in.;

d diameter in inches;

T ultimate strength of the material, lbs. per sq. in.;

c thickness in inches;

f factor of safety;

dp ratio of strength of riveted joint to strength of solid plate.

$$f p d = 2 T c; \quad p = \frac{2 T c}{d f}; \quad t = \frac{f p d}{2 T c}$$

If $f = 5$, and $c = 0.7$; then

$$p = \frac{14000 t}{d}; \quad t = \frac{d p}{14000}$$

p represents the strength resisting rupture along a longitudinal distance to rupture in a circumferential seam, due to pressure

of the cylinder, we have $\frac{p \pi d^2}{4} = \frac{T \pi d c}{f}$;

$$\text{whence } p = \frac{4 T c}{d f}.$$

d is the diameter to resist rupture around a circumference is twice as great as rupture longitudinally; hence boilers are commonly single-circumferential seams and double-riveted in the longitudinal

HOLLOW COPPER BALLS.

Copper balls are used as floats in boilers or tanks, to control feed valves, and regulate the water-level.

They are spun up in halves from sheet copper, and a rib is formed on one side so that the other half fits, and the two are then soldered or brazed together. In order to facilitate the brazing, a hole is left on one side to allow air to pass freely in or out; and this hole is made use of to secure the float to its stem. The original thickness of the metal is anything up to about 1-16 of an inch, if the spinning is done by hand, though thicker metal may be used when special machinery is employed for forming it. In the process of spinning, the metal is thinned by stretching; but the thinnest place is neither at the equator nor along the rib, nor at the poles. The thinnest points lie along the line passing around the ball parallel to the rib, one on each side of it, at about a half of the way to the poles. Along these lines the thickness is 10, 15, or 20 per cent less than elsewhere, the reduction depending on the skill of the workman.

Table for October, 1891, gives two empirical rules for determining the thickness of a copper ball which is to work under an external pressure:

$$t = \frac{\text{diameter in inches} \times \text{pressure in pounds per sq. in.}}{16,000}$$

$$t = \frac{\text{diameter} \times \sqrt{\text{pressure}}}{1240}$$

These give the same result for a pressure of 166 lbs. only. Example: Thickness of a 5-inch copper ball to sustain

	50	100	150	166	200	250 lbs. per sq. in.
First rule ..	.0156	.0312	.0469	.0519	.0625	.0781 inch.
Second rule ..	.0285	.0403	.0491	.0518	.0570	.0687 "

STRENGTH-POWER OF NAILS, SPIKES, AND SCREWS.

By W. Wright, Western Society of Engineers, 1881.)

Spikes driven into dry cedar (cut 18 months):

	5 × 1/4 in. sq.	6 × 1/4	6 × 1/2	5 × 3/4
in.	4 1/4 in.	5 in.	5 in.	4 1/4 in.
Resistance to drawing. Average, lbs.	857	821	1691	1202
do. each.	Max. "	1159	928	2139
	Min. "	766	766	1120
				687

A. M. Wellington found the force required to draw spikes 2 1/4 in. driven 4 1/2 inches into seasoned oak, to be 4261 lbs.; same spikes, etc. seasoned oak, 6523 lbs.

Professor W. R. Johnson found that a plain spike 1/2 inch driven 3 1/2 inches into seasoned Jersey yellow pine or unseasoned required about 2000 lbs. force to extract it; from seasoned white oak 4000 and from well-seasoned locust 6000 lbs.

Experiments in Germany, by Funk, give from 2465 to 3940 lbs. in many experiments about 3000 lbs.) as the force necessary to extract a 1/2-inch square iron spike 6 inches long, wedge-pointed for one end, driven 4 1/2 inches into white or yellow pine. When driven 5 inches the required was about 1/10 part greater. Similar spikes 9/16 inches long, driven 6 inches deep, required from 3700 to 6745 lbs. to draw them from pine; the mean of the results being 4873 lbs. In all cases twice as much force was required to extract them from oak. They were all driven across the grain of the wood. When driven with the spikes or nails do not hold with more than half as much force.

Boards of oak or pine nailed together by from 4 to 10 tenpenny common nails and then pulled apart in a direction lengthwise of the board across the nails, tending to break the latter in two by a shearing force, averaged about 300 to 400 lbs. per nail to separate them, as the result of many trials.

Resistance of Drift-bolts in Timber.—Tests made by E. Coolidge, in 1878.

1st Test.	1 in. square	Iron drove	30 in. in white pine,	15/16 in. hole.
2d "	1 in. round	" "	34 "	" " " 13/16 in. "
3d "	1 in. square	" "	18 "	" " " 15/16 in. "
4th "	1 in. round	" "	22 "	" " " 13/16 in. "
5th "	1 in. round	" "	34 "	" " " Norw'y pine, 13/16 in. "
6th "	1 in. square	" "	30 "	" " " 15/16 in. "
7th "	1 in. square	" "	18 "	" " " 15/16 in. "
8th "	1 in. round	" "	22 "	" " " 13/16 in. "

NOTE.—In test No. 6 drift-bolts were not driven properly, holes in line, and a piece of timber split out in driving.

Force required to draw Screws out of Norway Pine

1 1/2" diam. drive screw	4 in. in wood.	Power required, average
" " 4 threads per in.	5 in. in wood.	" " "
" " Double thr'd, 3 per in.	4 in. in "	" " "
" " Lag-screw, 7 per in.	1 1/2 " "	" " "
" " " 6 " "	2 1/2 " "	" " "
1 1/2 inch R.R. spike	5 " "	" " "

Force required to draw Wood Screws out of Dry

—Tests made by Mr. Bavan. The screws were about two inches in diameter at the exterior of the threads, 1 1/2 inch diameter at the base of the depth of the worm or thread being .035 and the number of threads per inch equal 12. They were passed through pieces of wood half an inch thick and drawn out by the weights stated: Beech, 460 lbs.; oak, 760 lbs.; mahogany, 770 lbs.; elm, 625 lbs.; sycamore, 820 lbs.

Tests of Lag-screws in Various Woods were made by Cox, University of Iowa, 1891:

Kind of Wood.	Size Screw.	Size Hole bored.	Length in Tie.	Max. Resist. lbs.
Seasoned white oak.	5/8 in.	1/2 in.	4 1/2 in.	8037
" " "	9/16 "	7/16 "	3 "	6150
" " "	1 1/2 "	3/4 "	4 1/2 "	8750
Yellow-pine stick	5/8 "	1 1/2 "	4 "	3400
White cedar, unseasoned	5/8 "	1 1/2 "	4 "	3200

In figuring area for lag-screws, the surface of a cylinder whose diameter was equal to that of the screw was taken. The length of the screw part engaged was 4 inches. — *Engineering News*, 1891.

Cut versus Wire Nails.—Experiments were made at the Watrous Arsenal in 1890 on the comparative direct tensile adhesion, in the presence of a glue joint. The results are stated by Prof. W. C. as follows:

HOLDING-POWER OF NAILS, SPIKES, AND SCREWS. 291

A series of tests, ten pairs of nails (a cut and a wire nail in each), making a total of 1100 nails drawn. The tests were made in wood in most instances, but some extra ones were made in white "box nails." The nails were of all sizes, varying from $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches in length. In every case the cut nails showed the superior holding power a large percentage. In spruce, in nine different sizes of nails, hard and light weight, the ratio of tenacity of cut to wire nail was 2 to 1, or, as he terms it, "a superiority of 47.4% of the former." "finishing" nails the ratio was roughly 2.5 to 2; superiority 75%. nails ($1\frac{1}{4}$ to 4 inches long) the ratio was roughly 3 to 2; superiority 50%. In white pine, cut nails, a taper along the grain, showed a superiority of 100%, and with a grain of 180°. Also when the nails were driven in the end of, i.e., along the grain, the superiority of cut nails was 100%, or the ratio of wire was 2 to 1. The total of the results showed the ratio of cut to wire was 3.3 to 2 for the harder wood, and about 2 to 1 for the softer. We are sure that under these circumstances the cut nail is superior to the wire nail in direct tensile holding-power by 72.74%.

Nail-holding Power of Various Woods.

(Watertown Experiments.)

Wood.	Size of Nail.	Holding-power per square inch of Surface in Wood, lbs.		
		Wire Nail.	Cut Nail.	Mean.
.....	8d	167	450	405
	9 "		455	
	20 "		477	
	50 "		347	
.....	60 "	518	363	662
	60 "		340	
	8 "		695	
	10 "		735	
.....	50 "	940	596	1216
	60 "		604	
	8 "		1340	
	30 "		1292	
.....	60 "	951	1018	668
	50 "		664	
	60 "		702	
	9 "		1179	
.....	20 "	951	1221	1200
	20 "		1221	

Nail-holding Power of Various Woods.

F. W. Clay's Experiments. *Eng'g News*, Jan. 11, 1894.)

Wood.	Tenacity of 6-l. nails		
	Plain.	Barbed.	Blued.
.....	106	94	135
.....	190	180	270
.....	78	132	219
.....	226	300	555
.....	141	201	319

At the University of Illinois gave the resistance of a 1-in. round 6-inch hole perpendicular to the grain, as 6000 lbs. per lin. ft. in oak, 12,000 lbs. per lin. ft. in oak. Experiments made at the East River Bridge piers of 12,000 and 15,000 lbs. per lin. ft. for a 1-in. round rod in oak, and 14/16-in. diameter, respectively, in Georgia pine.

Holding-power of Bolts in White Pine.

(*Eng'g News*, September 26, 1891.)

	Round.	Square.
	Lbs.	Lbs.
all plain 1-in. bolts.....	8224	8200
all plain bolts, $\frac{5}{8}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ in.....	7805	8110
all bolts.....	8383	8598

n-bolts should be driven in holes $1\frac{1}{16}$ of their diameter, and bolts in holes whose diameter is $1\frac{1}{16}$ of the side of the square.

STRENGTH OF WROUGHT IRON BOLTS.

(Computed by A. F. Nagle.)

Diameter of Bolt, Inches.	Number of Threads.	Diameter of Bottom of Thread, Inches.	Area at Bottom of Thread, Square Inches.	Stress upon Bolt upon Basis of				
				3000 lbs. per sq. inch.	4000 lbs. per sq. inch.	5000 lbs. per sq. inch.	7000 lbs. per sq. inch.	10000 lbs. per sq. inch.
				lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1	13	.38	.12	350	400	580	810	1160
1 1/8	12	.44	.15	450	500	750	1050	1500
1 1/4	11	.49	.19	500	550	830	1170	1670
1 3/8	10	.56	.28	750	830	1240	1760	2500
1 1/2	9	.71	.39	1180	1300	1970	2760	3940
1 3/4	8	.81	.52	1550	2070	2900	4080	5890
2	7	.91	.65	1950	2600	3750	5300	7550
2 1/8	6	1.04	.84	2520	3360	4900	6900	9840
2 1/4	6	1.12	1.00	3000	4000	5800	8100	11600
2 3/8	5 1/2	1.25	1.23	3680	4910	7040	9880	14200
2 1/2	5 1/2	1.35	1.44	4300	5740	8250	11600	16500
2 3/4	5	1.45	1.65	4950	6600	9500	13300	19000
3	5	1.57	1.95	5840	7800	11200	15700	22400
3 1/8	4 1/2	1.66	2.18	6510	8720	12500	17500	25000
3 1/4	4 1/2	1.92	2.88	8650	11530	16400	23000	32800
3 3/8	4	2.12	3.55	10910	14800	21400	30000	42400
3 1/2	4	2.37	4.43	13200	17720	25450	36000	50800
3 3/4	3 1/2	2.57	5.20	15580	20770	29800	41800	58900
4	3 1/4	3.04	7.25	21740	29000	41800	58900	83500
	3	3.50	9.62	28800	38500	55000	77500	109000

When it is known what load is to be put upon a bolt, and the engineer has determined what stress is safe to put upon the bolt down in the proper column of said stress until the required load is reached. The area at the bottom of the thread will give the equivalent area of the bolt.

Effect of Initial Strain in Bolts.—Suppose that bolts are used to connect two parts of a machine and that they are screwed up before the effective load comes on the connected parts. Let P_1 = tension on a bolt due to screwing up, and P_2 = the load afterwards. The greatest load may vary but little from P_1 or P_2 , according to whether the former or the latter is greater, or it may approach the value $P_1 + P_2$ depending upon the relative rigidity of the bolts and of the parts on which they are used.

Where rigid flanges are bolted together, metal to metal, it is plain that the extension of the bolts with any additional tension relieves the flanges, and that the total tension is P_1 or P_2 , but in cases where packing, as india rubber, is interposed, the extension of the bolts will little affect the initial tension, and the total strain may be nearly $P_1 + P_2$. Since the latter assumption is more unfavorable to the resistance of the bolt, this contingency should usually be provided for. (See *Use of Bolts in Machine Design* for demonstration.)

STAND-PIPES AND THEIR DESIGN.

(Freeman C. Coffin, New England Water Works Assoc., *Eng. News*, Jan. 10, 1893.) See also papers by A. H. Howland, *Eng. Club of Phila.*, 1891; Stephens, *Amer. Water Works Assoc.*, *Eng. News*, Oct. 6 and 13, 1891; Kiersted, *Rensselaer Soc. of Civil Eng.*, *Eng. Record*, April 25, 1891; and W. D. Pence, *Eng. News*, April and May, 1894.

The question of diameter is almost entirely independent of that of length. The efficient capacity must be measured by the length from the base of the pipe to a point below which it is undesirable to draw the water. The base of the pipe is for fire supply, whether that point is the actual base of the pipe or not. This allowable fluctuation ought not to be less than 10 ft. This makes the diameter dependent upon the

the first of which is the amount of the consumption during the interval between the stopping and starting of the pumps. This should draw the water below a point that will give a good fire stream and a margin for still further draught for fire. The second condition is the maximum number of fire streams and their size which it is considered should be provided for, and the maximum length of time which they are to have to run before the pumps can be relied upon to reinforce.

Another reason for making the diameter large is to provide for stability at low pressure when empty.

The following table gives the height of stand-pipes beyond which they are unsafe against wind pressures of 40 and 50 lbs. per square foot. The area taken is the height multiplied by one half the diameter.

Height of Stand-pipe that will Resist Wind-pressure by its Weight alone, when Empty.

Diameter, feet.	Wind, 40 lbs. per sq. ft.	Wind, 50 lbs. per sq. ft.
30.....	45	35
25.....	70	55
30.....	150	80
35.....		160

In the above degree of stability the stand-pipes must be designed outside angle-iron at the bottom connection.

The form of anchorage that depends upon connections with the sides near the bottom is unsafe. By suitable guys the wind-pressure is relieved by tension in the guys, and the stand-pipe is relieved from wind that tend to overthrow it. The guys should be attached to a band or other shaped iron that completely encircles the tank, and rests on one sort of bracket or projection, and not be riveted to the tank. It should be anchored at a distance from the base equal to the height of that at which they are attached, if possible.

The plan is to build the stand-pipe of such diameter that it will resist by its own stability.

Thickness of the Side Plates.

The pressure on the sides is outward, and due alone to the weight of the water pressure per square inch, and increases in direct ratio to the height also to the diameter. The strain upon a section 1 inch in height at any point is the total strain at that point divided by two—for each side is to bear the strain equally. The total pressure at any point is the diameter in inches, multiplied by the pressure per square inch, and the height at that point. It may be expressed as follows:

- H = height in feet, and f = factor of safety;
 d = diameter in inches;
 p = pressure in lbs. per square inch;
 $434 = p$ for 1 ft. in height;
 s = tensile strength of material per square inch;
 T = thickness of plate.

The total strain on each side per vertical inch

$$= \frac{434Hd}{2} = \frac{pd}{2}; \quad T = \frac{434Hdf}{2s} = \frac{pdf}{2s}.$$

It takes $f = 5$, not counting reduction of strength of joint, equivalent to actual factor of safety of 3 if the strength of the riveted joint is 60 per cent of that of the plate.

The amount of the wind strain per square inch of metal at any joint can be found by the following formula, in which

- H = height of stand-pipe in feet above joint;
 T = thickness of plate in inches;
 p = wind pressure per square foot;
 W = wind pressure per foot on height above joint;
 $W = Dp$, where D is the diameter in feet;
 m = average leverage or movement about neutral axis or central points in the circumference; or,
 m = sine of 40° , or .707 times the radius in feet,

Failures of Stand-pipes have been numerous in recent years. The showing of 23 important failures inside of nine years is given in a paper by Prof. W. D. Pence, *Eng'g News*, April 5, 12, 19 and 26, May 3, 10 and June 7, 1906. His discussion of the probable causes of the failures

Allen, Engineers Club of Philadelphia, 1866, gives the following thickness of plates for stand pipes.

Wrought iron plate T. S. 48,000 pounds in direction of fibre, and pounds across the fibre. Strength of single riveted joint .4 that of double riveted joint, .7 that of the plate; wind pressure w per square foot; safety factor = 3.

h = total height in feet; r = outer radius in feet; r' = inner radius in feet; p = pressure per square inch; t = thickness in inches; d = outer diameter in feet.

Pipe filled and longitudinal seams double riveted

$$t = \frac{pr \times 12}{48,000 \times .7 \times \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{hd}{4801};$$

Pipe empty and lateral seams, single riveted, we have by equating

$$\left(\frac{h}{2}\right)^2 = 144 \times 6000 (r^4 - r'^4) \frac{.7854}{r}, \text{ whence } r^4 - r'^4 = \frac{h^2}{2714};$$

showing required Thickness of Bottom Plate.

Diameter.					
5 feet.	10 feet.	15 feet.	20 feet.	25 feet.	30 feet.
"	"	"	"	"	"
+ 7-64*	$\frac{1}{8}$ *	11-64*	15-64	19-64	23-64
+ 11-64*	9-64*	7-32	9-32	23-64	27-64
+ 7-32	11-64*	$\frac{1}{4}$	21-64	19-32	31-64
+ 19-64	3-16	9-32	$\frac{9}{16}$	15-32	9-10
+ $\frac{3}{8}$	7-32	5-16	27-64	17-32	$\frac{9}{16}$
+ 29-64	115-64	23-64	15-32	37-64	45-64
	7-16	7-16	37-64	47-64	$\frac{3}{8}$
	13-16	17-32	45-64	$\frac{5}{16}$	1 3-64
	11-16	39-64	13-16	1 1-32	1 7-32
	+ 29-32	45-64	15-16	1 11-64	1 25-64

*The minimum thickness should be 3-16".

B. — Dimensions marked + determined by wind-pressure.

Tower at Yonkers, N. Y.—This tower, with a pipe 122 feet in diameter, is described in *Engineering News*, May 18, 1892. Thickness of the lower rings is 11-16 of an inch, based on a tensile strength of 50,000 lbs. per square inch of metal, allowing 65% for the strength of rivets, using a factor of safety of $\frac{3}{2}$ and adding a constant of $\frac{1}{8}$ inch. The plates diminish in thickness by 1-16 inch to the last four feet, which are $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick.

The steel requires an elastic limit of at least 33,000 lbs. per square inch; an ultimate tensile strength of from 55,000 to 66,000 lbs. per square inch; an elongation in 8 inches of at least 20%, and a reduction of area of at least 45%. The inspection of the work was made by the Pittsburgh Laboratory. According to their report the actual conditions were as follows: Elastic limit from 34,020 to 39,420; the tensile from 53,330 to 65,390; the elongation in 8 inches from 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ % to 33%; the area from 52.72 to 71.32%; 17 plates out of 141 were rejected in 1900.

WROUGHT-IRON AND STEEL WATER-PIPES.

Steel Water-pipes (*Engineering News*, Oct. 11, 1890, and

Nov. 1, 1890). The use of riveted wrought iron pipe has been common in the United States for many years, the largest being a 41-inch conduit in use with the works of the Spring Valley Water Co., which supplies New York City. The use of wrought iron and steel pipe has been increasing in the West, owing to the extremely high pressures to be withstood in the transmission of water. As an example: In con-

the water supply of Virginia City and Gold Hill, Nev., there in 1872 an 11½-inch riveted wrought-iron pipe, a part of which is used of 1720 feet.

In the East, the most important example of the use of riveted pipe is that of the East Jersey Water Co., which supplies the city. The contract provided for a maximum high service supply of 25 millions daily. In this case 21 miles of 48-inch pipe was laid, some of 27 feet head. The plates from which the pipe is made are about 1½ by 7 feet wide, open-hearth steel. Four plates are used to make up of pipe about 27 feet long. The pipe is riveted longitudinally with row, and at the end joints with a single row of rivets of varying corresponding to the thickness of the steel plates. Before being in the trench, two of the 27-foot lengths are riveted together, thus still further the number of joints to be made in the trench, and excavation to give room for jointing. All changes in the grade of line are made by 10° curves and all changes in line by 2½, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 110, 120, 130, 140, 150, 160, 170, 180, 190, 200, 210, 220, 230, 240, 250, 260, 270, 280, 290, 300, 310, 320, 330, 340, 350, 360, 370, 380, 390, 400, 410, 420, 430, 440, 450, 460, 470, 480, 490, 500, 510, 520, 530, 540, 550, 560, 570, 580, 590, 600, 610, 620, 630, 640, 650, 660, 670, 680, 690, 700, 710, 720, 730, 740, 750, 760, 770, 780, 790, 800, 810, 820, 830, 840, 850, 860, 870, 880, 890, 900, 910, 920, 930, 940, 950, 960, 970, 980, 990, 1000, 1010, 1020, 1030, 1040, 1050, 1060, 1070, 1080, 1090, 1100, 1110, 1120, 1130, 1140, 1150, 1160, 1170, 1180, 1190, 1200, 1210, 1220, 1230, 1240, 1250, 1260, 1270, 1280, 1290, 1300, 1310, 1320, 1330, 1340, 1350, 1360, 1370, 1380, 1390, 1400, 1410, 1420, 1430, 1440, 1450, 1460, 1470, 1480, 1490, 1500, 1510, 1520, 1530, 1540, 1550, 1560, 1570, 1580, 1590, 1600, 1610, 1620, 1630, 1640, 1650, 1660, 1670, 1680, 1690, 1700, 1710, 1720, 1730, 1740, 1750, 1760, 1770, 1780, 1790, 1800, 1810, 1820, 1830, 1840, 1850, 1860, 1870, 1880, 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, 2010, 2020, 2030, 2040, 2050, 2060, 2070, 2080, 2090, 2100, 2110, 2120, 2130, 2140, 2150, 2160, 2170, 2180, 2190, 2200, 2210, 2220, 2230, 2240, 2250, 2260, 2270, 2280, 2290, 2300, 2310, 2320, 2330, 2340, 2350, 2360, 2370, 2380, 2390, 2400, 2410, 2420, 2430, 2440, 2450, 2460, 2470, 2480, 2490, 2500, 2510, 2520, 2530, 2540, 2550, 2560, 2570, 2580, 2590, 2600, 2610, 2620, 2630, 2640, 2650, 2660, 2670, 2680, 2690, 2700, 2710, 2720, 2730, 2740, 2750, 2760, 2770, 2780, 2790, 2800, 2810, 2820, 2830, 2840, 2850, 2860, 2870, 2880, 2890, 2900, 2910, 2920, 2930, 2940, 2950, 2960, 2970, 2980, 2990, 3000, 3010, 3020, 3030, 3040, 3050, 3060, 3070, 3080, 3090, 3100, 3110, 3120, 3130, 3140, 3150, 3160, 3170, 3180, 3190, 3200, 3210, 3220, 3230, 3240, 3250, 3260, 3270, 3280, 3290, 3300, 3310, 3320, 3330, 3340, 3350, 3360, 3370, 3380, 3390, 3400, 3410, 3420, 3430, 3440, 3450, 3460, 3470, 3480, 3490, 3500, 3510, 3520, 3530, 3540, 3550, 3560, 3570, 3580, 3590, 3600, 3610, 3620, 3630, 3640, 3650, 3660, 3670, 3680, 3690, 3700, 3710, 3720, 3730, 3740, 3750, 3760, 3770, 3780, 3790, 3800, 3810, 3820, 3830, 3840, 3850, 3860, 3870, 3880, 3890, 3900, 3910, 3920, 3930, 3940, 3950, 3960, 3970, 3980, 3990, 4000, 4010, 4020, 4030, 4040, 4050, 4060, 4070, 4080, 4090, 4100, 4110, 4120, 4130, 4140, 4150, 4160, 4170, 4180, 4190, 4200, 4210, 4220, 4230, 4240, 4250, 4260, 4270, 4280, 4290, 4300, 4310, 4320, 4330, 4340, 4350, 4360, 4370, 4380, 4390, 4400, 4410, 4420, 4430, 4440, 4450, 4460, 4470, 4480, 4490, 4500, 4510, 4520, 4530, 4540, 4550, 4560, 4570, 4580, 4590, 4600, 4610, 4620, 4630, 4640, 4650, 4660, 4670, 4680, 4690, 4700, 4710, 4720, 4730, 4740, 4750, 4760, 4770, 4780, 4790, 4800, 4810, 4820, 4830, 4840, 4850, 4860, 4870, 4880, 4890, 4900, 4910, 4920, 4930, 4940, 4950, 4960, 4970, 4980, 4990, 5000, 5010, 5020, 5030, 5040, 5050, 5060, 5070, 5080, 5090, 5100, 5110, 5120, 5130, 5140, 5150, 5160, 5170, 5180, 5190, 5200, 5210, 5220, 5230, 5240, 5250, 5260, 5270, 5280, 5290, 5300, 5310, 5320, 5330, 5340, 5350, 5360, 5370, 5380, 5390, 5400, 5410, 5420, 5430, 5440, 5450, 5460, 5470, 5480, 5490, 5500, 5510, 5520, 5530, 5540, 5550, 5560, 5570, 5580, 5590, 5600, 5610, 5620, 5630, 5640, 5650, 5660, 5670, 5680, 5690, 5700, 5710, 5720, 5730, 5740, 5750, 5760, 5770, 5780, 5790, 5800, 5810, 5820, 5830, 5840, 5850, 5860, 5870, 5880, 5890, 5900, 5910, 5920, 5930, 5940, 5950, 5960, 5970, 5980, 5990, 6000, 6010, 6020, 6030, 6040, 6050, 6060, 6070, 6080, 6090, 6100, 6110, 6120, 6130, 6140, 6150, 6160, 6170, 6180, 6190, 6200, 6210, 6220, 6230, 6240, 6250, 6260, 6270, 6280, 6290, 6300, 6310, 6320, 6330, 6340, 6350, 6360, 6370, 6380, 6390, 6400, 6410, 6420, 6430, 6440, 6450, 6460, 6470, 6480, 6490, 6500, 6510, 6520, 6530, 6540, 6550, 6560, 6570, 6580, 6590, 6600, 6610, 6620, 6630, 6640, 6650, 6660, 6670, 6680, 6690, 6700, 6710, 6720, 6730, 6740, 6750, 6760, 6770, 6780, 6790, 6800, 6810, 6820, 6830, 6840, 6850, 6860, 6870, 6880, 6890, 6900, 6910, 6920, 6930, 6940, 6950, 6960, 6970, 6980, 6990, 7000, 7010, 7020, 7030, 7040, 7050, 7060, 7070, 7080, 7090, 7100, 7110, 7120, 7130, 7140, 7150, 7160, 7170, 7180, 7190, 7200, 7210, 7220, 7230, 7240, 7250, 7260, 7270, 7280, 7290, 7300, 7310, 7320, 7330, 7340, 7350, 7360, 7370, 7380, 7390, 7400, 7410, 7420, 7430, 7440, 7450, 7460, 7470, 7480, 7490, 7500, 7510, 7520, 7530, 7540, 7550, 7560, 7570, 7580, 7590, 7600, 7610, 7620, 7630, 7640, 7650, 7660, 7670, 7680, 7690, 7700, 7710, 7720, 7730, 7740, 7750, 7760, 7770, 7780, 7790, 7800, 7810, 7820, 7830, 7840, 7850, 7860, 7870, 7880, 7890, 7900, 7910, 7920, 7930, 7940, 7950, 7960, 7970, 7980, 7990, 8000, 8010, 8020, 8030, 8040, 8050, 8060, 8070, 8080, 8090, 8100, 8110, 8120, 8130, 8140, 8150, 8160, 8170, 8180, 8190, 8200, 8210, 8220, 8230, 8240, 8250, 8260, 8270, 8280, 8290, 8300, 8310, 8320, 8330, 8340, 8350, 8360, 8370, 8380, 8390, 8400, 8410, 8420, 8430, 8440, 8450, 8460, 8470, 8480, 8490, 8500, 8510, 8520, 8530, 8540, 8550, 8560, 8570, 8580, 8590, 8600, 8610, 8620, 8630, 8640, 8650, 8660, 8670, 8680, 8690, 8700, 8710, 8720, 8730, 8740, 8750, 8760, 8770, 8780, 8790, 8800, 8810, 8820, 8830, 8840, 8850, 8860, 8870, 8880, 8890, 8900, 8910, 8920, 8930, 8940, 8950, 8960, 8970, 8980, 8990, 9000, 9010, 9020, 9030, 9040, 9050, 9060, 9070, 9080, 9090, 9100, 9110, 9120, 9130, 9140, 9150, 9160, 9170, 9180, 9190, 9200, 9210, 9220, 9230, 9240, 9250, 9260, 9270, 9280, 9290, 9300, 9310, 9320, 9330, 9340, 9350, 9360, 9370, 9380, 9390, 9400, 9410, 9420, 9430, 9440, 9450, 9460, 9470, 9480, 9490, 9500, 9510, 9520, 9530, 9540, 9550, 9560, 9570, 9580, 9590, 9600, 9610, 9620, 9630, 9640, 9650, 9660, 9670, 9680, 9690, 9700, 9710, 9720, 9730, 9740, 9750, 9760, 9770, 9780, 9790, 9800, 9810, 9820, 9830, 9840, 9850, 9860, 9870, 9880, 9890, 9900, 9910, 9920, 9930, 9940, 9950, 9960, 9970, 9980, 9990, 10000.

The thickness of the plates varies with the pressure, but only three thicknesses are used, ¼, 5-16, and ¾ inches, the pipe made of these having a weight of 160, 185, and 235 lbs. per foot, respectively. All the pipe was tested to pressure 1½ times that to which it is subjected when in place.

Mannesmann Tubes for High Pressures.—At the Mannesmann Works at Kongsdal, Hungary, more than 600 tons of 2½, 3, 4, and 4-inch tubes averaging ¼ inch in thickness have been tested to a pressure of 3000 lbs. per square inch. These tubes were for a high-pressure water main in a Chilean nitrate district.

This great tensile strength is probably due to the fact that in being much more worked than most metal, the fibres of the spirally, as has been proved by microscopic examination. While tubes will hardly stand more than 200 lbs. per square inch, and are not safe above 1000 lbs. per square inch, the Mannesmanns withstands 3000 lbs. per square inch. The length up to which he recently made is shown by the fact that a coil of 3-inch tube was made recently.

For description of the process of making Mannesmann tubes see A. I. M. E., vol. XIX, 384.

STRENGTH OF VARIOUS MATERIALS. EXTENDED FROM KIRKALDY'S TESTS.

The recent publication, in a book by W. G. Kirkaldy, of the results of thousands of tests made during a quarter of a century by his father, Kirkaldy, has made an important contribution to our knowledge of the range of variation in strength of numerous materials. An abstract of these results was published in the *American Machinist* and 18, 1893, from which the following still further condensed is taken:

The figures for tensile and compressive strength, or, as Kirkaldy, pulling and thrusting stress, are given in pounds per square original section, and for bending strength in pounds of actual pounds per RID^2 breadth \times square of depth for length of 36 inch supports. The contraction of area is given as a percentage of area, and the extension as a percentage in a length of 30 inches, or otherwise stated. The abbreviations T. S., E. L., Contr., and Ext. for the sake of brevity, to represent tensile strength, elastic limit, contraction of contraction of area, and elongation, respectively.

Cast Iron.—44 tests: T. S. 15,468 to 21,570 pounds, 17 of these under the strength ranging from 15,468 to 21,570 pounds. Average 18,500 pounds.

Tensile stress, specimens 2 inches long, 1 3/4 to 1 5/8 in. diameter, all sound, 31,352 to 161,212; one unsound, 93,750, average of all 117,000. Bending stress, bars about 1 in. wide by 2 in. deep, cast in water, from 2634 to 4354; stress per $RID^2 = 725$ to 852; average, 788. Values of rupture R , \div stress per $RID^2 \times$ length, $= 28,324$ to 31,352; average, 29,840. 10 in. \div 10 in., average 34 inch.

44 tests of cast iron, 460 tests, 16 data from various sources.

total range as follows: Pulling stress, 12,688 to 33,616 pounds; stress, 62,363 to 175,450 pounds; bending stress, per *B/P*, 505 to 40,008. Ultimate deflection, inch.

specimen which was the highest in thrusting stress was also the highest, and showed the greatest deflection, but its tensile strength was 2,502.

specimen with the highest tensile strength had a thrusting stress of 44 and a bending strength, per *B/P*, of 979 pounds with a 41 deflection. The lowest in T. S. was also lowest in thrusting and bending, but deflection. The specimen which gave .21 deflection had T. S., 19,188; *B/P*, 10,241; and bending, 591.

Castings. 69 tests; tensile strength, 10,416 to 31,652; thrusting stress per square inch, 53,502 to 132,031.

Steel Irons. Tests of 18 pieces cut from channel irons. T. S., 3,311 pounds per square inch; contr. of area from 3.9 to 32.5 %. *W* from 2.1 to 22.5 %. The fractures ranged all the way from 100 % to 100 % crystalline. The highest T. S., 53,141, with 8.1 % contr. and was 100 % crystalline; the lowest T. S., 40,003, with 3.9 contr. and was 75 % crystalline. All the fibrous irons showed from 13.2 to 17.1 to 32.5 contr. and T. S. from 43,125 to 19,615. The fibrous therefore of medium tensile strength and high ductility. The irons are of variable T. S., highest to lowest, and low ductility.

Moore Iron Bars. -Three rolled bars 2½ inches diameter; tensile, 21,200 to 21,200; ultimate, 50,875 to 51,905; contraction, 44.4 percent, 20.2 to 24.3. Three hammered bars, 4½ inches diameter, 100 to 21,200; ultimate, 46,810 to 13,223; contraction, 20.7 to 40.5; 10.8 to 31.6. Fractures of all, 100 per cent fibrous. In the hammer the lowest T. S. was accompanied by lowest ductility.

Bars, Various. -Of a lot of 80 bars of various sizes, some rolled and some hammered the above *Loxmoor* bars included the lowest T. S., 40,003 pounds per square inch, was shown by the Swedish bar 3½ inches diameter, rolled. Its elastic limit was 10,150 contraction 68.7 % and extension 37.7 % in 10 inches. It was also ductile of all the bars tested, and was 100 % fibrous. The highest 2 pounds, with elastic limit, 23,409; contr., 36.6; and ext., 24.3 %, in by a "Farley" 2-inch bar, rolled. It was also 100 % fibrous. Ductility 2.6 % contr. and 4.1 % ext., was shown by a 3½-inch bar, without brand. It also had the lowest T. S., 40,278 pounds, with elastic limit, 25,709 pounds. Its fracture was 95 % crystalline of the two bars showing the lowest T. S., one was the most ductile other the least ductile in the whole series of 80 bars.

The high ductility is accompanied by low tensile strength, as in the *Loxmoor*, but the Farley bars showed a combination of high ductility and strength.

Swedish Forgings, Iron. 17 tests; average, E. L., 30,430; T. S., 36 %; ext. in 10 inches, 24.8.

Anchor Forgings, Iron. -4 tests; average, E. L., 23,825; contr., 3.6; ext. in 10 inches, 3.8.

pieces these two irons in contrast to show the difference between and work. The broken anchor material, he says, is of a most character, and a disgrace to any manufacturer.

Gate Girder. Tensile tests of pieces cut from a riveted iron twenty years service in a railway bridge. Top plate, average E. L., 26,000; T. S., 40,806; contr. 6.1; ext. in 10 inches, 7.8. *W*, average of 3 tests, E. L., 31,200; T. S., 44,288; contr., 13.3; ext., 3.3. Web plate, average of 3 tests, E. L., 28,000; T. S., 45,902; ext. in 10 inches, 8.9. Fractures all fibrous. The results of 30 different parts of the girder prove that the iron has undergone being twenty years of use.

Plates. Six plates 100 inches long, 2 inches wide, thickness varied from 1 inch. T. S., 55,485 to 60,805; E. L., 29,600 to 33,300; contr., 52.9 to 105 to 18.5 %.

Ridge Links. -40 links from Hammersmith Bridge, 1886.

	T. S.	E. L.	Contr.	Ext. in 100 in.	Fracture	
					Silky.	Granular.
Average of all.....	67,294	38,294	34.54	14.11%		
Lowest T. S.....	60,753	36,030	30.1	15.61	30%	
Highest T. S. and E. L.....	75,936	44,166	31.2	12.42	15	
Lowest E. L.....	64,041	32,441	34.7	13.43	30	
Greatest Contraction.....	65,745	33,118	32.8	15.46	100	
Greatest Extension.....	65,950	36,792	40.8	17.78	35	
Least Contr. and Ext.....	63,740	39,017	6.0	6.62	0	

The ratio of elastic to ultimate strength ranged from 50.6 to 65.2 per cent average, 56.9 per cent.

Extension in lengths of 100 inches. At 10,000 lbs. per sq. in., .018 to .020 inch; at 20,000 lbs. per sq. in., .040 to .063; mean, .053 inch; at 30,000 lbs. per sq. in., .083 to .100; mean, .090; set at 30,000 pounds per sq. in. 0 to .002; mean, 0.

The mean extension between 10,000 to 30,000 lbs. per sq. in. increased gradually at the rate of .007 inch for each 2000 lbs. per sq. in. increment of stress. This corresponds to a modulus of elasticity of 28,511,429. The least increase of extension for an increase of load of 20,000 lbs. per sq. in., .005 inch, responds to a modulus of elasticity of 30,769,231, and the greatest, .078 inch, to a modulus of 26,315,789.

Steel Balls.—Bending tests, 5 feet between supports, 11 tests of balls 72 pounds per yard, 4.63 inches high.

	Elastic stress. Pounds.	Ultimate stress. Pounds.	Deflection at 50,000 Pounds.	Ultimate Deflection.
Hardest. . .	34,300	60,960	3.24 ins.	4 ins.
Softest . . .	32,000	56,740	3.76 "	6 "
Mean	32,763	59,209	3.53 "	6 "

All uncracked at 8 inches deflection.

Pulling tests of pieces cut from same balls. Mean results.

	Elastic Stress. per sq. in.	Ultimate Pounds. per sq. in.	Contraction of area of frac- ture.	Exten- sion in 100 in.
Top of balls.....	44,200	88,176	12.94	13.16
Bottom of balls. . .	40,900	77,820	30.92	22.68

Steel Tires.—Tensile tests of specimens cut from steel tires.

KRUPP STEEL.—362 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 100 in.
Highest.....	69,350	119,070	31.9	15.7
Mean.....	52,809	104,112	29.5	15.7
Lowest.....	41,700	90,523	45.5	22.7

VICKERS, SONS & Co.—70 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 100 in.
Highest.....	58,600	120,789	11.8	8.4
Mean.....	51,066	101,364	17.6	12.4
Lowest.....	48,700	87,697	24.7	14.0

Note the correspondence between Krupp's and Vickers' steels as to strength and elastic limit, and their great difference in contraction in the latter. The fractures of the Krupp steel averaged 22 per cent granular; of the Vicker steel, 7 per cent silky, 23 per cent granular.

Axles.—Tensile tests of specimens cut from steel axles.

PATENT SHAFT AND AXLE TREE CO.—157 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	49,800	59,000	21.1	16.0
.....	36,267	72,060	33.0	23.6
.....	31,800	61,392	34.8	25.3

VICKERS, SONS & CO.—125 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	42,600	83,701	18.9	13.2
.....	37,918	70,572	41.6	27.5
.....	30,250	56,388	49.0	37.2

Average fracture of Patent Shaft and Axle Tree Co. steel was 33 per cent granular.

Average fracture of Vickers' steel was 88 per cent silky, 12 per cent granular.

Tests of specimens cut from locomotive crank axles.

VICKERS'.—82 Tests, 1879.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	26,700	64,057	28.3	18.4
.....	24,145	57,922	32.9	24.0
.....	21,700	50,195	52.7	36.2

VICKERS'.—78 Tests, 1884.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	27,600	64,873	27.0	20.8
.....	23,572	56,207	32.7	25.9
.....	17,000	47,095	35.0	27.2

FRIED. KRUPP.—43 Tests, 1880.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	31,650	66,868	48.6	35.6
.....	29,491	61,714	47.7	35.3
.....	21,950	55,172	55.3	35.6

Propeller Shafts.—Tensile tests of pieces cut from two shafts, of four tests each. Hollow shaft, Whitworth, T. S., 61,390; E. L., contr., 52.8; ext. in 10 inches, 28.6. Solid shaft, Vickers', T. S., E. L., 29,425; contr., 41.4; ext. in 10 inches, 30.7.

Testing tests, Whitworth, ultimate, 66,301; elastic, 29,300; set at 30,000 lbs., 2.04 per cent; set at 40,000 lbs., 2.04 per cent; set at 50,000 lbs., 3.82 per cent.

Testing tests, Vickers', ultimate, 41,602; elastic, 22,350; set at 30,000 lbs., 2.04 per cent; set at 40,000 lbs., 4.69 per cent.

Breaking strength of the Whitworth shaft, mean of four tests, was 40,654 square inch, or 66.3 per cent of the pulling stress. Specific gravity Whitworth steel, 7.867; of the Vickers', 7.856.

Spring Steel.—Untempered, 6 tests, average, E. L., 67,010; T. S., contr., 37.3; ext. in 10 inches, 16.6. Spring steel untempered, 15 tests, average, E. L., 38,785; T. S., 69,400; contr., 19.1; ext. in 10 inches, 29.8.

Two lots were shipped for the same purpose, viz., railway carriage springs.

Castings.—44 tests, E. L., 31,816 to 35,567; T. S., 54,928 to 63,840; contr., 1.45 to 15.1. Note the great variation in ductility.

Lot of the highest strength was also the most ductile.

**Welded Joints, Pulling Tests of Riveted Steel Plates,
Triple Riveted Lap Joints, Machine Riveted,
Holes Drilled.**

Width and thickness, inches:				
10.00 × .51	11.75 × .78	12.25 × 1.01	14.00 × .77	
Net sectional area square inches:				
6.63	9.165	12.372	10.780	
Pounds:				
332,640	423,180	528,000	455,210	

Stress per square inch of gross area, joint:			
59,058	50,172	46,173	42,696
Stress per square inch of plates, solid:			
70,765	65,300	61,050	62,280
Ratio of strength of joint to solid plate:			
83.46	76.93	72.09	69.55
Ratio net area of plate to gross:			
73.4	65.5	63.7	64.7
Where fractured:			
plate at holes.	plate at holes.	plate at holes.	plate at holes.
Rivets, diameter, area and number:			
.45, 159, 24	.64, 321, 21	.95, 708, 12	1.08, 916, 12
Rivets, total area:			
3.816	6.741	8.406	10.992

Strength of Welds.—Tensile tests to determine ratio of weld to solid bar.

IRON TIE BARS.—28 Tests.

Strength of solid bars varied from	43,201 to 60,000
Strength of welded bars varied from	17,816 to 37,000
Ratio of weld to solid varied from	37.0

IRON PLATES.—7 Tests.

Strength of solid plate from	44,881 to 47,000
Strength of welded plate from	26,443 to 37,000
Ratio of weld to solid	57.3

CHAIN LINKS.—216 Tests.

Strength of solid bar from	49,122 to 50,000
Strength of welded bar from	39,575 to 40,000
Ratio of weld to solid	72.0

IRON BARS.—Hand and Electric Machine Welded.

32 tests, solid iron, average	52,441
17 " electric welded, average	46,836
19 " hand " "	46,899

STEEL BARS AND PLATES.—14 Tests.

Strength of solid	54,900
Strength of weld	28,500
Ratio weld to solid	52.0

The ratio of weld to solid in all the tests ranging from 37.0 to 92.0, of the great variation of workmanship in welding.

Cast Copper.—4 tests, average. E. L., 5900; T. S., 24,781; ext., 21.8.

Copper Plates.—As rolled, 22 tests, .36 to .75 in. thick; E. L. 18,050; T. S., 30,993 to 31,281; contr., 31.1 to 57.6; ext., 39.9 to 52.2. Variation in elastic limit is due to difference in the heat at which were finished. Annealing reduces the T. S. only about 1000 pounds. E. L. from 3000 to 7000 pounds.

Another series, .38 to .52 thick; 148 tests, T. S., 29,000 to 31,224; ext. to 56.7; ext. in 10 inches, 29.1 to 41.8. Note the uniformity of strength.

Drawn Copper.—74 tests (0.68 to 1.08 inch diameter); T. S., 40,557; contr., 37.5 to 61.1; ext. in 10 inches, 5.5 to 48.2.

Bronze from a Propeller Blade.—Means of two tests, centre and edge. Central portion (sp. gr. 8.830). E. L., 7550; T. S., 25.4; ext. in 10 inches, 32.8. Edge portion (sp. gr. 8.550). E. L., 7500; T. S., 25,900; contr., 37.8; ext. in 10 inches, 47.9.

Cast German Silver.—10 tests; E. L., 13,100 to 29,100; T. S., 49,510; contr., 3.2 to 21.5; ext. in 10 inch .3 to 10.2.

Thin Sheet Metal.—Tensile Strength.

German silver, 2 lots	75,500
Bronze, 4 lots	73,300
Brass, 2 lots	44,300
Copper, 9 lots	30,100
in 13 lots, lengthwise	14,500
in 13 lots, crosswise	29,500
in 11 lots	42,200
crosswise	32,500

Wire.—Tensile Strength.

Galvan, 5 lots.....	81,735 to 92,234
.....	78,049
As-drawn, 4 lots.....	81,114 to 94,578
.....	87,607 to 40,404
Annealed, 3 lots.....	31,390 to 45,210
.....	35,052 to 62,190
.....	(extension 36.4 to 0.6%).
.....	59,240 to 97,908
.....	(extension 15.1 to 0.7%).
.....	103,272 to 318,823

..... of 318,823 T. S. was .047 inch diam., and had an extension of only 1.1%; that of 103,272 T. S. was .107 inch diam. and had an extension of 1.1%. One lot of .044 inch diam. had 267,114 T. S., and 5.2 per cent extension.

Wire Ropes.**Selected Tests Showing Range of Variation.**

No.	Circumference, inches.	Weight per Fathom.	Strands.		Diameter of Wires, inches.	Hemp Core.	Ultimate Strength, lbs.
			No. of Strands.	No. of Wires.			
1	7.70	53.00	6	19	.1553	Main	320,750
2	7.00	50.10	7	19	.1495	Main and Strands	314,860
3	6.38	42.40	7	19	.1347	Wire Core	295,920
4	7.10	57.57	6	30	.1604	Main and Strands	272,750
5	6.18	40.46	7	19	.1302	Wire Core	268,470
6	6.19	40.33	7	19	.1316	Wire Core	221,820
7	4.92	29.86	6	30	.0728	Main and Strands	190,890
8	5.36	18.91	6	12	.1104	Main and Strands	136,550
9	4.82	21.50	6	7	.1693	Main	129,710
10	5.05	12.21	6	19	.0755	Main	110,180
11	3.50	12.65	7	7	.122	Wire Core	101,440
12	3.8	11.12	6	7	.135	Main	98,670
13	4.11	11.35	6	12	.080	Main and Strands	75,110
14	3.31	7.27	6	12	.068	Main and Strands	55,095
15	3.02	8.62	6	7	.105	Main	49,555
16	2.98	6.26	6	6	.0994	Main and Strands	41,205
17	2.87	5.13	6	12	.0560	Main and Strands	38,555
18	2.46	3.85	6	12	.0472	Main and Strands	28,075
19	1.75	2.80	6	7	.069	Main	24,552
20	2.01	2.72	6	12	.0378	Main and Strands	20,415
21	1.76	1.85	6	12	.0405	Main	14,624

1. Ropes, Untarred.—15 tests of ropes from 1.53 to 6.90 inches circumference, weighing 0.42 to 7.77 pounds per fathom, showed an ultimate strength of from 1670 to 33,898 pounds, the strength per fathom weight varying from 2872 to 5531 pounds.

2. Ropes, Tarred.—15 tests of ropes from 1.44 to 7.12 inches circumference, weighing from 0.39 to 10.39 pounds per fathom, showed an ultimate strength of from 1046 to 31,549 pounds, the strength per fathom weight varying from 1767 to 5149 pounds.

3. Ropes.—5 ropes, 2.48 to 6.51 inches circumference, 1.08 to 6.17 pounds per fathom. Strength 3089 to 23,258 pounds, or 2474 to 3346 pounds per weight.

4. Ropes.—35 tests: 1.19 to 8.90 inches circumference, 0.20 to 7.77 pounds per fathom. Strength 1280 to 65,550 pounds, or 3003 to 7391 pounds per fathom weight.

No. of lots.	Belting.	Tensile per square inch.
11	Leather, single, ordinary tanned	3200
4	Leather, single, Helvetia	5651
7	Leather, double, ordinary tanned	2100
8	Leather, double Helvetia	4078
6	Cotton, solid woven	5600
14	Cotton, folded, stitched	4570
1	Flax, solid, woven	3800
1	Flax, folded, stitched	4271
6	Hair, solid, woven	3800
2	Rubber, solid, woven	4271

Canvas.—95 lots: Strength, lengthwise, 112 to 408 pounds per crossways, 101 to 468 pounds per inch.

The grades are numbered 1 to 6, but the weights are not given; strengths vary considerably, even in the same number.

Marbles.—Crushing strength of various marbles. 58 tests, 6 specimens were 6-inch cubes, or columns 4 to 6 inches diameter, and 12 inches high. Range 7542 to 13,730 pounds per square inch.

Granite.—Crushing strength, 17 tests; square columns 4 × 4 and 4 to 24 inches high, 3 kinds. Crushing strength ranges 10,030 to 24,000 pounds per square inch. (Very uniform.)

Stones.—(Probably sandstone, local names only given.) 11 tests, 6 × 6, columns 12, 18 and 24 inches high. Crushing strength from 2105 to 12,122. The strength of the column 24 inches long is given from 10 to 20 per cent less than that of the 6-inch cube.

Stones.—(Probably sandstone) tested for London & Northwestern way 16 lots, 3 to 6 tests in a lot. Mean results of each lot range 3745 to 11,956 pounds. The variation is chiefly due to the stones being different lots. The different specimens in each lot gave results which generally agreed within 30 per cent.

Bricks.—Crushing strength, 8 lots; 6 tests in each lot; mean ranged from 1835 to 9209 pounds per square inch. The maximum value in the specimens of one lot was over 100 per cent of the lowest. In the uniform lot the variation was less than 20 per cent.

Wood.—Transverse and Thrusting Tests.

	Tests.	Sizes abt. in square.	Span, inches.	Ultimate Stress.	$S = \frac{LW}{4BD^2}$
<hr/>					
Pitch pine.....	10	11½ to 12½	144	45,856	1096
				to	to
				60,520	1403
Dantio fir.....	12	12 to 13	144	87,948	657
				to	to
				54,152	790
English oak.....	8	4½ × 12	120	32,856	1505
				to	to
				39,084	1779
American white oak	5	4½ × 12	120	23,624	1190
				to	to
				26,962	1372

Demerara greenheart, 0 tests (thrusting).....	816
Oregon pine, 2 tests	585
Honduras mahogany, 1 test	585
Tobacco mahogany, 1 test	585
Norway spruce, 2 tests	525
American yellow pine, 2 tests	597
English ash, 1 test	597

Portland Cement.—(Austrian.) Cross-sections of specimen
slab tests only; cubes, 3 × 3 inches for thrusting tests.

per imperial bushel; residue, 0.7 per cent with sieve 2500 meshes per inch; 38.8 per cent by volume of water required for mixing; time 7 days; 10 tests to each lot. The mean results in lbs. per sq. in. follows:

Cement alone, Pulling.	Cement alone, Thrusting.	1 Cement, 2 Sand, Thrusting.	1 Cement, 3 Sand, Thrusting.	1 Cement, 4 Sand, Thrusting.
376	2910	893	407	238
420	3342	1023	494	275
451	3724	1172	594	338

Land Cement.—Various samples pulling tests, $2 \times 2\frac{1}{2}$ inches section, all aged 10 days, 180 tests; ranges 87 to 649 pounds per square

TENSILE STRENGTH OF WIRE.

(From J. Bucknall Smith's Treatise on Wire.)

	Tons per sq. in. sectional area.	Pounds per sq. in. sectional area.
annealed iron wire.....	25	56,000
hard drawn.....	35	78,400
gal. steel wire.....	40	89,600
Widener-Martin steel wire.....	60	134,000
Widener ditto (or "improved").....	80	179,200
best-steel "improved" wire.....	100	224,000
best "cast-steel" "plough".....	120	268,800
Qualities of tempered and improved cast-iron may attain.....	150 to 170	330,000 to 380,800

MISCELLANEOUS TESTS OF MATERIALS.

Work of the Watertown Testing-machine in 1883.

TESTS OF RIVETED JOINTS, IRON AND STEEL PLATES.

Diameter, Rivets, inches.	Diameter, Punched Holes, inches.	Width Plate Tested, inches.	No. Rivets.	Pitch Rivets, inches.	Tensile Strength Joint in Net Section of Plate per square inch, pounds.	Tensile Strength Plate per square inch, pounds.	Efficiency of Joint, Per Cent.
11-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	39,300	47,180	47.0
11-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	41,000	47,180	49.0
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	10	5	12	35,650	44,615	45.6
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	10	5	12	35,150	44,615	41.9
11-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10	5	12	46,390	47,180	59.0
11-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10	5	12	46,875	47,180	60.5
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	10	5	12	46,100	44,615	50.4
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	10	5	12	46,140	44,615	59.3
1	1 1-16	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	44,360	44,635	57.3
1	1 1-16	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	42,350	44,635	54.0
1 11-16	1 3-16	11 9	4	12 9	42,310	46,590	62.1
1 11-16	1 3-16	11 9	4	12 9	41,920	46,590	51.7
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	61,270	58,330	59.5
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	60,830	58,330	59.1
1 15-16	1	10	5	12	47,580	57,215	40.2
1 15-16	1	10	5	12	49,800	57,215	42.3
1 11-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10	5	12	62,770	53,330	71.7
1 11-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	10	5	12	61,210	53,330	60.8
1 15-16	1	10	5	12	68,420	57,215	57.1
1 15-16	1	10	5	12	66,710	57,215	56.0
1	1 1-10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	62,180	52,445	63.1
1	1 1-10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	62,590	52,445	63.8
1 13-16	1	10	4	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	54,650	51,545	54.0
1 13-16	1	10	4	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	54,200	51,545	53.4

† Steel.

‡ Lap-joint.

§ Butt-joint.

The efficiency of the joints is found by dividing the maximum stress on the gross sectional area of plate by the tensile strength of material.

COMPRESSION TESTS OF 3 X 3 INCH WROUGHT-IRON BAR.

Length, inches.	Tested with Two Pin Ends, Pins 1½ inch in Diameter.		Tested with Flat and One End. Ultimate Compressive Strength, pounds per square inch.
	Ultimate Com- pressive Strength pounds per square inch.	Tested with Two Flat Ends, Ulti- mate Compressive Strength, pounds per square inch.	
30	28,260 31,360 26,310		
60	26,640 24,030	36,730	25,130
90	25,340 20,660	25,780 21,010	25,120 22,460
120	20,300 16,520	21,450	21,650
150	17,840 13,010		
180	15,700		

Tested with two pin- ends. Length of bars 120 inches.	Diameter of Pins.	Ult. Comp. St. per sq. in.
7½ inch.....	10,350	
1½ inches.....	17,740	
1½ ".....	21,300	
1½ ".....	22,210	

TENSILE TEST OF SIX STEEL EYE-BARS.

COMPARED WITH SMALL TEST INGOTS.

The steel was made by the Cambria Iron Company, and the eye-bar made by Keystone Bridge Company by upsetting and hammering. All bars were made from one ingot. Two test pieces, ¾-inch round, rolled from a test-ingot, gave elastic limit 48,040 and 42,210 pounds; tensile strength 73,150 and 69,370 pounds, and elongation in 8 inches, 22.4 and 25.6 per cent respectively. The ingot from which the eye-bars were made was 14 lb square, rolled to billet, 7 x 6 inches. The eye-bars were rolled to 6½ x 1½. Chemical tests gave carbon .27 to .30; manganese .61 to .73; phosphorus .074 to .098.

Gauged Length, inches.	Elastic limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Tensile strength per sq. in., lbs.	Elongation, per cent. in Gauged Length
160	37,480	67,800	15.8
160	36,650	64,000	6.96
160	71,900	8.6
200	37,600	68,720	12.3
200	35,810	65,850	12.0
200	33,230	64,410	16.4
200	37,640	66,500	13.9

The average tensile strength of the ¾-inch test pieces was 71,810 lbs., of the eye-bars 67,230 lbs., a decrease of 5.7%. The average elastic limit of the test pieces was 45,150 lbs., that of the eye-bars 36,402 lbs., a decrease of 19.4%. The elastic limit of the test pieces was 63.3% of the ultimate strength of the eye-bars 54.2% of the ultimate strength.

PRESSION OF WROUGHT-IRON COLUMNS, LATTICED BOX AND SOLID WEB.

ALL TESTED WITH PIN ENDS.

Columns made of	Length, feet.	Sectional Area, square inch.	Total Weight of Column, pounds	Ultimate Strength, per square inch, pounds.
channel, solid web.....	10.0	9.831	432	80,220
" " ".....	15.0	9.977	592	21,050
" " ".....	20.0	9.762	755	16,220
" " ".....	20.0	16.281	1,290	22,540
" " ".....	26.8	16.141	1,615	17,570
channels, with 5-16-in. continuous				
continuous plates and angles.	26.8	19.417	1,940	25,390
of plates, 12 in., 1 in. and 7.35 in.	26.8	16.168	1,765	28,020
continuous plates and angles.				
12 in. wide.....	26.8	20.954	2,242	25,770
channels, latticed.....	13.3	7.823	379	33,910
" " ".....	20.0	7.621	324	34,120
" " ".....	26.8	7.673	1,255	29,870
channels, latticed, swelled sides..	13.4	7.624	384	33,230
" " ".....	20.0	7.517	321	33,390
" " ".....	26.8	7.702	1,280	30,770
" " ".....	16.8	11.941	1,470	33,740
" " ".....	25.0	12.175	1,626	32,410
channels, latticed, swelled sides.	19.7	12.306	1,549	31,130
" " ".....	25.0	11.932	1,902	32,740
channels, latticed one side; con-				
tinuous plate one side.....	25.0	17.022	1,848	26,190
channels, latticed one side; con-				
tinuous plate one side.....	25.0	17.721	1,627	17,370

a In centre of gravity of channel bars and continuous plate, 1.63
from centre line of channel bars.
b placed in centre of gravity of channel bars.

EFFECT OF COLD-DRAWING ON STEEL.

a tensile bars and two compression bars, cut from the same bar of
cold steel, from the Norway Steel and Iron Company;

	Tensile strength per sq. in., lbs.	Elongation, per cent.
a of the original hot-rolled bar, length 30 inches, diameter 2.03 inches. Gauged length 30 inches.....	55,400	23.9
b after reduced in compressing dies (one set, .091 inch. Gauged length 30 inches.	70,420	2.7
c after reduced in compression dies (one set, .222 inch. Gauged length 30 inches.	81,890	0.075
	Compress. Stress, lbs. per sq. in.	Amount of Compress., in.
a compression test of cold-drawn bar (same as No. 3). Length 4 inches, diameter 2.03 inches.....	75,000	.0502
b same as No. 4.....	75,000	.0578

a and b both had diameters increased in the middle to 1.831 inches
the ends to 1.813 inches

TESTS OF AMERICAN WOODS. (See also p. 101)

In all cases a large number of tests were made of each wood, and maximum results only are given. All of the test specimens were of the same size, the transverse test specimens being 1.575 x 1.575 inches. The transverse test specimens were 12 inches between supports, and the compressive test specimens were 12 inches long. Modulus of rupture calculated from formula $M = \frac{Pl}{b}$, l = length in inches, b = breadth in inches.

Name of Wood.	Transverse Tests. Modulus of Rupture.	
	Min.	Max.
Osage tree (<i>Magnolia acuminata</i>)..	7,440	12,050
Yellow poplar white wood (<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>)....	6,560	11,736
White wood, Basswood (<i>Tilia Americana</i>)....	6,720	11,530
Sugar-maple, Rock-maple (<i>Acer saccharinum</i>)....	9,640	20,130
Red maple (<i>Acer rubrum</i>)....	8,610	13,450
Locust (<i>Robinia pseudacacia</i>)....	12,300	21,730
Wild cherry (<i>Prunus serotina</i>)....	8,310	16,800
Sweet gum (<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>)..	7,470	11,180
Dogwood (<i>Cornus florida</i>)....	10,190	14,560
Sour gum, Pepperidge (<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i>)..	9,830	14,300
Persimmon (<i>Diospyros Virginiana</i>)....	10,290	18,500
White ash (<i>Fraxinus Americana</i>)....	5,950	15,800
Sassafras (<i>Sassafras officinale</i>)....	5,180	10,150
Slippery elm (<i>Ulmus fulva</i>)....	10,220	13,952
White elm (<i>Ulmus Americana</i>)....	8,250	15,070
Sycamore; Buttonwood (<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>)....	6,720	11,800
Butternut; white walnut (<i>Juglans cinerea</i>)....	4,700	11,740
Black walnut (<i>Juglans nigra</i>)....	8,400	16,320
Shellbark hickory (<i>Carya alba</i>)....	14,870	20,710
Pignut (<i>Carya porcina</i>)....	11,560	19,430
White oak (<i>Quercus alba</i>)....	7,010	13,390
Red oak (<i>Quercus rubra</i>)....	5,760	13,370
Black oak (<i>Quercus tinctoria</i>)....	7,000	13,420
Chestnut (<i>Castanea vulgaris</i>)....	5,030	12,870
Hoech (<i>Fagus ferruginea</i>)....	13,850	18,840
Canoe-birch, paper-birch (<i>Betula papyracea</i>)....	11,710	17,610
Cottonwood (<i>Populus monilifera</i>)....	5,220	13,430
White cedar (<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>)....	6,310	9,530
Red cedar (<i>Juniperus Virginiana</i>)....	5,040	15,100
Cypress (<i>Saxodium Distichum</i>)....	9,530	10,030
White pine (<i>Pinus strobus</i>)....	5,810	11,730
Spruce pine (<i>Pinus glabra</i>)....	3,780	10,980
Long-leaved pine, Southern pine (<i>Pinus palustris</i>)....	9,220	21,060
White spruce (<i>Picea alba</i>)....	5,000	11,650
Hemlock (<i>Taxa Canadensis</i>)....	7,590	14,680
Red fir, yellow fir (<i>Pseudotsuga Douglasii</i>)....	8,320	17,920
Tamarack (<i>Larix Americana</i>)....	10,080	16,770

SHEARING STRENGTH OF IRON AND

H. V. Loss in American Engineer and Railroad Journal, 1893, describes an extensive series of experiments on the shearing strength of iron and steel bars in shearing machines. Some of his results are given in the following table.

penetration at point of maximum resistance for soft steel bars one-half the width, but varies with the thickness. If d = depth of penetration and t = thickness, $d = .3t$ for a flat knife, $d = .25t$ for a 45° bevel knife, $d = .10t$ for an 8° bevel knife. The ultimate pressure per inch width of flat steel bars is approximately $50,000 \text{ lbs.} \times t$. The energy consumed in foot pounds per inch width of steel bars is, approximately: $1\frac{1}{2}$ ft. lbs.; $1\frac{1}{2}$ ", 2500; $1\frac{3}{4}$ ", 3700; $1\frac{7}{8}$ ", 4500; the energy increasing in direct ratio to the thickness. Iron angles require more energy than flat bars of the same size; steel breaks while iron has to be heated. For hot-rolled steel the resistance per square inch for rectangular bars varies from 1400 lbs. to 20,500 lbs., depending partly upon the size and partly upon the size of its cross-area, which latter element greatly indicates the temperature, as the smaller dimensions require considerably longer time to reduce them down to size, which time means loss of heat.

It is probable that the resistance in practice can be brought very near the lowest figures here given—viz., 4400 lbs. per square inch—because of 1000 lbs. will henceforth mean a considerable increase in size and temperature.

STRENGTH-POWER OF BOILER-TUBES EXPANDED INTO TUBE-SHEETS.

Experiments by Chief Engineer W. H. Shock, U. S. N., on brass tubes, 2½ inch diameter, expanded into plates ¾-inch thick, gave results ranging from 10 to 40,000 lbs. Out of 48 tests 5 gave figures under 10,000 lbs., 12 between 10,000 and 20,000 lbs., 18 between 20,000 and 30,000 lbs., 10 between 30,000 and 40,000 lbs., and 3 over 40,000 lbs.

Experiments by Yarrow & Co., on steel tubes, 2 to 2½ inches diameter, gave results similarly varying, ranging from 7900 to 41,715 lbs., the majority from 20,000 to 30,000 lbs. In 15 experiments on 4 and 5 inch tubes the results ranged from 20,720 to 68,040 lbs. Bending the tube does not necessarily increase resistance, as some of the lower figures were obtained on bent tubes. (See paper on Rules Governing the Construction of Boilers, Trans. Engineering Congress, Section G, Chicago, 1893.)

CHAINS.

Weight per Foot, Proof Test and Breaking Weight. (Pennsylvania Railroad Specifications.)

Description.	Specifications.		
	Weight per foot, lbs.	Proof Test, lbs.	Breaking Weight, lbs.
Lock chain	0.30
Fire-door chain	0.35
Crowing-gate chain	0.70	1500	3000
Sprocket-wheel chain	1.10	3000	5500
Brake-chain	1.50	3500	7000
Crane chain	1.50	4000	7500
Drop-bottom branch chain	1.90	5000	9000
Crane-chain	1.90	5500	10,000
Drop-bottom main chain	2.50	7000	12,500
Crane-chain	2.50	7500	13,000
Safety "	4.00	11,000	20,000
Crane "	4.00	11,000	20,000
Lug "	5.50	16,000	29,000
Crane "	5.50	16,000	29,000
" "	7.40	22,000	40,000
" "	9.50	30,000	55,000
" "	12.00	40,000	68,000
" "	15.00	50,000	82,000
" "	21.00	70,000	110,000

Material of all sizes, 10 per cent. All chain must stand the pressure test without deformation.

British Admiralty Proving Tests of Chain Cables. Minimum size in inches and 16ths. Proving test in tons of 2

Min. Size: $\frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{3}{8}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{5}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{5}{8}$
 Test, tons: $8\frac{1}{2}$ $10\frac{1}{2}$ $11\frac{1}{2}$ $13\frac{1}{2}$ $15\frac{1}{2}$ 18 $20\frac{1}{2}$ $22\frac{1}{2}$ $25\frac{1}{2}$ $27\frac{1}{2}$ $31\frac{1}{2}$

Min. Size: $\frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{3}{8}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{5}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{5}{8}$
 Test, tons: $40\frac{1}{2}$ $13\frac{1}{2}$ $47\frac{1}{2}$ $51\frac{1}{2}$ $55\frac{1}{2}$ $59\frac{1}{2}$ $63\frac{1}{2}$ $67\frac{1}{2}$ 72 $76\frac{1}{2}$ $81\frac{1}{2}$

Wrought-Iron Chain Cables. The strength of a chain cable is less than twice that of a straight bar of a sectional area equal to the side of the link. A weld exists at one end and a bend at the other, requiring at least one heat, which produces a decrease in the strength. Report of the committee of the U. S. Testing Board, on tests of wrought and chain cables contains the following conclusions. That bars when made of American bar iron, with cast-iron studs, the studded inferior in strength to the unstudded one.

"That when proper care is exercised in the selection of material, a variation of 5 to 17 per cent of the strongest may be expected in the case of cables. Without this care, the variation may rise to 25 per cent."

"That with proper material and construction the ultimate resistance of the chain may be expected to vary from 135 to 170 per cent of that of the bar used in making the links, and show an average of about 164 per cent."

"That the proof test of a chain cable should be about 50 per cent ultimate resistance of the weakest link."

The decrease of the resistance of the studded below the unstudded is probably due to the fact that in the former the sides of the link remain parallel to each other up to failure, as they do in the latter, but in the former there is an increase of stress in the studded link over the unstudded in proportion of unity, to the secant of half the inclination of the sides of the link to each other.

From a great number of tests of bars and unfinished cables, the committee considered that the average ultimate resistance, and proof test of cables made of the bars, whose diameters are given, should be shown in the accompanying table.

ULTIMATE RESISTANCE AND PROOF TESTS OF CHAIN CABLES.

Diam. of Bar.	Average resist. = 169% of Bar.	Proof Test.	Diam. of Bar.	Average resist. = 169% of Bar.	Proof Test.
Inches.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1 1/16	71,172	33,840	1 9/16	102,383	46,800
1 1/8	79,544	37,820	1 5/8	171,175	77,000
1 3/8	88,445	42,053	1 11/16	187,075	84,000
1 3/16	97,731	46,468	1 13/16	200,074	90,000
1 1/2	107,410	51,094	1 15/16	213,475	96,000
1 5/16	117,577	55,003	2	227,271	102,000
1 3/4	128,129	60,020	1 15/16	241,163	108,000
1 7/16	139,103	66,138	2	256,040	114,000
1 1/2	150,485	71,550			

STRENGTH OF GLASS.

(Fairbairn's "Useful Information for Engineers," Second Edition.)

	Best Flint Glass.	Common Green Glass.
Mean specific gravity	2.578	2.528
Mean tensile strength, lbs. per sq. in., bars.	2,413	2,500
do. thin plates.	4,200	4,800
Mean crushing strength, lbs. p. sq. in., cylinders.	27,562	39,876
do.	33,180	29,305

The bars in tensile tests were about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch diameter. The crushing tests were made on cylinders about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch diameter and from 1 to 2 inches long, and on cubes approximately 1 inch on a side. The mean transverse strength of glass, as calculated by Fairbairn from a mean tensile strength of 2,413 lbs. and a mean compressive strength of 30,150 lbs. per sq. in., is supported at the ends and loaded in the middle,

$$w = 3140 \frac{bd^3}{l^3}$$

w = breaking weight in lbs., b = breadth, d = depth, and l = length, Actual tests will probably show wide variations in both directions from the mean calculated strength.

STRENGTH OF COPPER AT HIGH TEMPERATURES.

Dr. Schuster has conducted some experiments at Portsmouth Dockyard on the effect of increase of temperature on the tensile strength of various bronzes. The copper experimented upon was in rods under, having a tensile strength of about 25 tons per square inch. The following table shows some of the results:

Temperature	Tensile Strength in lbs. per sq. in.	Temperature Fahr.	Tensile Strength in lbs. per sq. in.
Atmospheric.	23,115	Atmospheric.	
	23,306	400°	21,105
	22,110	500°	19,597
	21,687		

At a temperature of 400° F. the loss of strength was only about 10 per cent. At 500° F. the loss was 16 per cent. The temperature of steam at pressure is 322° F., so that according to these experiments the loss at that point would not be a serious matter. Above a temperature of 400° the strength is seriously affected.

STRENGTH OF TIMBER.

Strength of Long-leaf Pine (Yellow Pine, *Pinus Palustris*) from Bulletin No. 5, Forestry Div., Dept. of Agriculture, 1893. Tests by B. Johnson.

The following is a condensed table of the range of results of mechanical tests of 300 specimens, from 26 trees from four different sites in Alabama, reduced to 15 per cent moisture:

	Butt Logs.	Middle Logs.	Top Logs.	Avg of all Butt Logs.
Gravity	0.449 to 1.039	0.575 to 0.850	0.484 to 0.907	0.767
Tensile strength, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\frac{1}{2}$ in.	4,762 to 16,300	7,040 to 17,128	4,268 to 15,554	12,614
at least limit	4,930 to 13,110	5,540 to 11,790	2,553 to 11,950	9,460
at least, thous. lbs.	1,119 to 3,117	1,186 to 2,982	842 to 2,697	1,920
at least, resistance, thousands per sq. in.	0.23 to 1.60	1.24 to 4.21	2.00 to 4.65	2.98
across grain, per sq. in., lbs.	4,781 to 9,850	5,030 to 9,300	4,587 to 9,100	7,452
parallel to grain, per sq. in., lbs.	675 to 2,094	656 to 1,445	584 to 1,765	1,508
crushing strength, (with 100 lbs. weight), per sq. in.	8,600 to 31,890	6,330 to 29,500	4,170 to 23,380	17,850
mean per sq. in.	404 to 1,299	539 to 1,290	484 to 1,156	806

The deductions from the tests were as follows:

1. The exception of tensile strength a reduction of moisture is accompanied by an increase in strength, stiffness, and toughness.

2. The strength goes generally hand-in-hand with specific gravity.

3. The first 20 or 30 feet in height the values remain constant; then a decrease of strength which amounts at 70 feet to 20 to 40 per cent of the butt-log.

4. Testing parallel with the grain and crushing across and parallel across, practically no difference was found.

5. Beams appear 10 to 20 per cent weaker than small pieces.

6. Compression tests endwise seem to furnish the best average statement of the strength of wood, and if one test only can be made, this is the safest one to be recognized by Hauschinger.

7. Timber is in no respect inferior to unbled timber.

The figures for crushing across the grain represent the load to cause a compression of 15 per cent. The relative elastic resilience, pounds per cubic inch of the material, is obtained by mensuration of the plotted-strain diagram of the transverse test from the point in the curve at which the rate of deflection is 50 per cent of the rate in the earlier part of the test where the diagram is a straight line. This point is arbitrarily chosen since there is no definite "elastic limit" in timber as there is in iron. The "strength at the elastic limit" is the strength taken at this same point. Timber is not perfectly elastic and it left on any great length of time.

The long-leaf pine is found in all the Southern coast states from Carolina to Texas. Prof. Johnson says it is probably the strongest in large sizes to be had in the United States. In small selected species, as oak and hickory, may exceed it in strength and stiffness. The other Southern yellow pines, viz., the Cuban, short the loblolly pines are inferior to the long-leaf about in the ratio of specific gravities; the long-leaf being the heaviest of all the averages (kiln-dried) 49 pounds per cubic foot, the Cuban 47, the short 40, and the loblolly 34 pounds.

Strength of Spruce Timber.—The modulus of rupture is given as follows by different authors: Hatfield, 9900 lbs. per sq. inch; Rankine, 11,100; Laslett, 9045; Trautwine, 8100; Redman, 6000. It is advised for use to deduct one-third in the case of knotty timber.

Prof. Lanza, in 25 tests of large spruce beams, found a modulus of rupture from 2995 to 5566 lbs.; the average being 4673 lbs. Twenty average beams, ordered from dealers of good repute. Two selected stock, seasoned four years, gave 7562 and 8748 lbs. The range of elasticity ranged from 897,000 to 1,388,000, averaging 1,294,000.

Time tests show much smaller values for both modulus of rupture and modulus of elasticity. A beam tested to 5800 lbs. in a screw test left over night, and the resistance was found next morning to have been about 3000, and it broke at 3500.

Prof. Lanza remarks that while it was necessary to use large safety factors, when the modulus of rupture were determined from tests on small pieces, it will be sufficient for most timber constructions, except in the case of a factor of four. For breaking strains of beams, he states that better engineering to determine as the safe load of a timber beam that will not deflect more than a certain fraction of its span, 1/300 to 1/400 of its length.

Properties of Timber.

(N. J. Steel & Iron Co.'s Book.)

Description.	Weight per cubic foot, in lbs.	Tensile Strength per sq. inch, in lbs.	Crushing Strength per sq. inch, in lbs.	Relative Strength for Cross Braking. White Pine = 100
Ash	43 to 55.8	11,000 to 17,207	4,100 to 9,363	130 to 180
Beech	43 to 53.4	11,500 to 18,000	5,800 to 9,363	100 to 144
Cedar	50 to 36.8	10,300 to 11,400	5,600 to 6,000	55 to 63
Cherry				130
Chestnut	33	10,500	5,350 to 5,600	90 to 120
Elm	34 to 36.7	13,400 to 13,480	6,831 to 10,331	90
Hemlock		8,700	5,700	68 to 95
Hickory		12,800 to 18,000	8,925	150 to 210
Lemon	44	20,500 to 21,800	9,113 to 11,700	132 to 227
Maple	49	10,500 to 10,584	8,150	122 to 220
Oak, White	45 to 54.5	10,253 to 19,500	4,084 to 9,500	130 to 171
Oak, Live	70		6,800	135 to 155
Pine, White	30	10,000 to 12,000	5,000 to 6,650	100
Pine, Yellow	28.8 to 34	12,000 to 19,200	5,400 to 9,500	98 to 175
Spruce		10,000 to 19,500	5,050 to 7,850	86 to 110
Walnut, Black	42	9,286 to 16,000	7,500	100

table should be taken with caution. The range of variation in strength is apt to be much greater than the figures indicate. See Johnson's test of leaf pine, and Lanza's on spruce, above. The weight of yellow pine is much less than that given by Johnson. (W. K.)

Relative Strengths of American Woods, when slowly seasoned.—Approximate averages, deduced from many experiments with the U. S. Government testing-machine at Watertown, Mass., by S. P. Sharpless, for the Census of 1880. Seasoned woods resist compression better than green ones; in many cases, twice as well. Differences of the same wood vary greatly. The strengths may readily be as one-third part more or less from the average.

	End- wise,* lbs. per sq. in.	Side- wise,† lbs. per sq. in.		End- wise,* lbs. per sq. in.	Side- wise,† lbs. per sq. in.	
		.01	.1		.01	.1
white	6800	1300	3000	Maple:		
	4400	800	1400	sugar and black	8000	1600 4000
	7000	1100	1900	white and red....	6800	1300 2900
	8000	1300	2600	Oak:		
	4400	600	1400	white, post (or		
	5400	700	1600	iron), swamp		
				white, red, and		
(more)	6000	1300	2600	black.....	7000	1600 4000
	6000	700	1000	scrub and basket	6000	1700 3200
.....				chestnut and live	7500	1600 4500
.....	4400	500	900	pin.....	6500	1300 3000
.....	5000	700	1300	Pine:		
.....	8000	1700	2600	white.....	5400	1200 1200
.....	5300	900	1600	red or Norway....	6300	600 1400
.....	5200	1300	2600	pitch and Jersey		
.....	6000	500	1200	scrub.....	5000	1000 2000
.....	6800	1300	2600	Georgia.....	8500	1200 2600
.....	7700	1300	2600	Poplar.....	5000	600 1100
.....	5300	600	1700	Sassafras.....	5000	1300 2100
.....	8000	2000	4000	Spruce, black....	5700	700 1300
.....	10000	1600	18000	" white.....	4500	600 1200
.....	5000	500	900	Sycamore (button- wood).....	6000	1300 2600
.....	9800	1900	4400	Walnut:		
.....	7000	1600	2600	black.....	8000	1300 2600
.....	9000	1700	5400	white (butternut),	5400	700 1600
.....				Willow.....	4400	700 1400
Ore.	5300	1400	2600			

* 1.57 ins. square \times 12.8 ins. long.

† 1.57 ins. square \times 6.3 ins. long. Pressure applied at mid-length covering one-fourth of the length. The first column gives the load an indentation of .01 inch, the second these producing an indentation of .1 inch. (See also page 306.)

Strength of Timber Due to the Absorption of Water.

(De Volson Wood, A. S. M. E., vol. x.)

Specimens of pine, oak, and chestnut, were dried thoroughly, and then soaked in water for 37 days.

The per cent of elongation and lateral expansion were:

	Pine.	Oak.	Chestnut.
Elongation, per cent.....	0.065	0.085	0.165
Lateral expansion, per cent.....	2.6	3.5	8.65

Expansion of Wood by Heat.—Trautwine gives for the expansion of wood 1 degree Fahr, 1 part in 440,530, or for 180 degrees 1 part in 2,447,667, or one-third of the expansion of iron.

Shearing Strength of American Woods, adapted Plus or Treenails.

J. C. Trautwine (*Jour. Franklin Inst.*). (Shearing across the

	per sq. in.	
Ash	6280	Hickory ..
Beech	5223	"
Birch	5595	Maple
Cedar (white)	1872	Oak
"	1519	Oak (live)
Cedar (Central American)	3410	Pine (white)
Cherry	2945	Pine (Northern yellow) ..
Chestnut	1536	Pine (Southern yellow) ..
Dogwood	6510	Pine (very resinous yellow)
Elony	7750	Poplar
Gum	5890	Spruce
Hemlock	2750	Walnut (black)
Larch	5176	Walnut (common)

THE STRENGTH OF BRICK, STONE, & IRON

A great advance has recently been made in the manufacture in the direction of increasing their strength. Chas. P. Chase, in *Eng. News*, says: "Taking the tests as given in standard engineering or ten years ago, we find in Trautwine the strength of brick given 4200 lbs. per sq. in. Now, taking recent tests in experiments Watertown Arsenal, the strength ran from 5000 to 22,000 lbs. per sq. in. The tests on Illinois paving brick, by Prof. I. O. Baker, we find a strength in hard paving brick of over 5000 lbs. per square inch. The crushing strength of ten varieties of paving-brick much used in find to be 7150 lbs. to the square inch.

A recent test of brick made by the dry-clay process at Watertown according to *Paving*, showed an average compressive strength of 7150 lbs. per sq. in. In one instance it reached 9750 lbs. per sq. in. A test at the same place on a "fancy pressed brick," The first crush at a pressure of 335,000 lbs., and the brick crushed at 361,300 lbs. per sq. in. This indicates almost as great compressive strength in granite paving-blocks, which is from 12,000 to 20,000 lbs. per sq. in.

The following notes on bricks are from Trautwine's *Engineer's Handbook*:

Strength of Brick.—40 to 300 tons per sq. ft., 622 to 4668 lbs. per sq. in. A soft brick will crush under 450 to 600 lbs. per sq. in., or 30 to 40 square feet, but a first-rate machine-pressed brick will stand 5000 lbs. per sq. ft. (3112 to 6224 lbs. per sq. in.).

Weight of Bricks.—Per cubic foot, 1.3 pressed brick, 152 pressed brick, 131 lbs.; common hard brick, 125 lbs.; good common brick, 118 lbs.; soft inferior brick, 100 lbs.

Absorption of Water.—A brick will in a few minutes take up 1 lb. of water, the last being 1/7 of the weight of a hand-moulded brick of its bulk.

Tests of Bricks, full size, on flat side. (Tests made at Watertown Arsenal in 1883.)—The bricks were tested between flat steel compressed surfaces (the largest surface ground approximately) bricks were all about 2 to 2.1 inches thick, 7.5 to 8.1 inches long, 3.75 inches wide. Crushing strength per square inch: One lot ran 11,956 to 16,534 lbs.; a second, 12,305 to 23,351; a third, 19,380 to 22,000 lbs. Tests gave results from 5960 to 16,270 lbs. per sq. in.

Crushing Strength of Masonry Materials. (From *Retaining Walls*.)

	tons per sq. ft.	
Brick, best pressed ..	40 to 300	Limestones and marbles ..
Chalk ..	20 to 30	Sandstone ..
Granite ..	300 to 1200	Soap-stone ..

Strength of Granite.—The crushing strength of granite is from 12,000 to 20,000 lbs. per sq. in. when tested in two-inch cubes, and toughest of the commonly used varieties is 20,000 lbs. Samples of granite from a quarry

ever, tested at the Watertown Arsenal, have shown a strength of per sq. in. (*Engineering News*, Jan. 12, 1893).

14 of Avondale, Pa., Limestone—(*Engineering News*, 1893)—Crushing strength of 2 in. cubes: light stone 12,112; gray stone per sq. in.

Test of lintels, tool-dressed, 42 in. between knife-edge bearings with knife-edge brought upon the middle between bearings:

section 6 in. wide × 10 in. high, broke under a load of 20,950 lbs.	
date of rupture.....	2,200 "
section 8½ in. wide × 10 in. high, broke under.....	14,720 "
date of rupture.....	1,170 "
Gray stone.....	.051 of 15
Light stone.....	.052 of 15

Transverse Strength of Flagg.

(N. J. Steel & Iron Co.'s Book.)

EXPERIMENTS MADE BY R. G. HATFIELD AND OTHERS.

h = the stone in inches; d = its thickness in inches; l = distance between supports in inches.

Weight loads in tons of 2000 lbs., for a weight placed at the centre of the stone, will be as follows:

	$\frac{h^3}{l}$		$\frac{h^3}{l}$
Flagg.....	.544	Dorchester freestone.....	.264
White.....	.624	Ambury freestone.....	.216
Freestone.....	.556	Chen freestone.....	.144
W. J. freestone.....	.480	Glass.....	1.000
Other quarry.....	.192	Slate.....	1.72 to 2.7
A freestone.....	.312		

A block of Quincy granite 80 inches wide and 6 inches thick, resting on 6 inches in the clear, would be broken by a load resting midway

$$W \text{ beams} = \frac{80 \times 36}{36} \times .021 = 19.92 \text{ tons.}$$

STRENGTH OF LIME AND CEMENT MORTAR.

(*Engineering*, October 2, 1891.)

At the University of Illinois on the effects of adding cement to lime. In all the tests a good quality of ordinary fat lime was used. Two days in an earthenware jar, adding two parts by weight of cement to one of lime, the loss by evaporation being made up by fresh addition. The cements used were a German Portland, Black Diamond, and Rosendale. As regards fineness of grinding, 85 per cent of the cement passed through a No. 100 sieve, as did 72 per cent of the Rosendale. The sand, thoroughly washed and dried, passing through a No. 30 sieve, was used. The mortar in all cases consisted of one volume of sand to one of lime paste. The following results were obtained on adding various percentages of cement to the mortar:

Compressive Strength, pounds per square inch.

	4 Days.	7 Days.	14 Days.	21 Days.	28 Days.	50 Days.	84 Days.
Rosendale.....	1	8	10	13	18	21	26
Rosendale.....	5	8½	9½	12	17	17	18
Portland.....	5	8½	14	20	25	24	26
Rosendale.....	7	11	13	18½	21	22½	24
Portland.....	8	16	18	22	25	28	27
Rosendale.....	10	12	16½	21½	22½	24	26
Portland.....	27	39	38	43	47	50	55
Rosendale.....	9	17	20	16	21	22½	23
Portland.....	45	55	55	68	67	102	78
Rosendale.....	12	18½	22½	27	29	31½	33
Portland.....	87	91	103	124	94	210	145
Rosendale.....	18	23	26	31	34	46	48
Portland.....	30	120	146	152	181	205	202

MODULI OF ELASTICITY OF VARIOUS MATERIALS.

The modulus of elasticity determined from a tensile test of a material is the quotient obtained by dividing the tensile stress in a square inch at any point of the test by the elongation per inch produced by that stress; or if P = pounds of stress applied, K = sectional area, l = length of the portion of the bar in which the element is made, and λ = the elongation in that length, the modulus

elasticity $E = \frac{P}{K} \div \frac{\lambda}{l} = \frac{Pl}{K\lambda}$. The modulus is generally measured

elastic limit only, in materials that have a well-defined elastic limit iron and steel, and when not otherwise stated the modulus is understood to be the modulus within the elastic limit. Within this limit, for such materials the modulus is practically constant for any given bar, the elongation being directly proportional to the stress. In other materials, such as cast iron, which have no well-defined elastic limit, the elongations from the beginning of a test increase in a greater ratio than the stresses, and the modulus therefore at its maximum near the beginning of the test, and then decreases. The moduli of elasticity of various materials have also been given above in treating of these materials, but the following are some additional values selected from different sources:

Brass, cast.....	9,170,000	
" wire.....	14,250,000	
Copper.....	15,000,000	to 18,000,000.
Lead.....	1,000,000	
Tin, cast.....	4,600,000	
Iron, cast.....	12,000,000	to 27,000,000 (?)
Iron, wrought.....	22,000,000	to 29,000,000
Steel.....	26,000,000	to 32,000,000
Marble.....	25,000,000	
Slate.....	14,500,000	
Glass.....	8,000,000	
Ash.....	1,600,000	
Beech.....	1,500,000	
Birch.....	1,250,000	to 1,500,000
Fir.....	800,000	to 2,100,000
Oak.....	974,000	to 2,283,000
Teak.....	2,414,000	
Walnut.....	306,000	
Pine, long-leaf (butt-logs)...	1,119,000	to 3,117,000 Ave. 1,800,000

The maximum figures given by many writers for iron and steel, 40,000,000 and 42,000,000, are undoubtedly erroneous.

Prof. J. B. Johnson, in his report on Long-leaf Pine, 1893, says the modulus of elasticity is the most constant and reliable property of engineering materials. The wide range of value of the modulus of elasticity of the various metals found in public records must be explained by various methods of testing.

In a tensile test of cast iron by the author (Van Nostrand's Science Series, No. 41, page 45), in which the ultimate strength was 24,225 lbs. per sq. in., the measurements of elongation were made to .0001 inch, and the modulus of elasticity was found to decrease from the beginning of the test as follows: At 1000 lbs. per sq. in., 25,000,000; at 2000 lbs., 15,698,000; at 3000 lbs., 15,884,000; at 4000 lbs., 13,670,000; at 5000 lbs., 12,500,000; at 6000 lbs., 11,250,000; at 7000 lbs., 10,000,000; at 8000 lbs., 8,000,000; at 9000 lbs., 6,140,000. The modulus of elasticity of steel (within the elastic limit) is remarkably constant, notwithstanding great variations in chemical composition, temper, etc. It rarely is found below 28,000,000 or above 31,000,000, and is generally taken at 30,000,000 in engineering calculations.

FACTORS OF SAFETY.

A factor of safety is the ratio in which the load that is just sufficient to overcome instantly the strength of a piece of material is greater than the greatest safe ordinary working load. (Rankine.)

Rankine gives the following "examples of the values of the factor of safety which occur in machines":

	Dead Load.	Live Load, Greatest.	Live Load, Mean.
Iron and steel.....	3	6	from 6 to 10
" " ".....	4 to 5	8 to 10
" " ".....	4	8

factor of safety, 40, is for shafts in millwork which transmit efforts.
 the following "factors of safety which have been adopted in for different materials." They "include an allowance for contingencies."

	Dead Load.	Live Load.	
		In Temporary Structures.	In Permanent Structures. In Structures subj. to Shocks.
Cast steel.	3	4	4 to 5 10
.....	3	4	5 10
.....		4	10
.....		6
.....	20	20 to 30

He says that "these numbers fairly represent practices based on many actual cases, but they are not very trustworthy."

In his "Resistance of Materials" says: "In regard to the should be left for safety, much depends upon the character of

If the load is simply a dead weight, the margin may be small; but if the structure is to be subjected to percussive forces the margin should be comparatively large on account of the effect produced by the force. In machines which are substantial for while in use, it is very difficult to determine the which is consistent with economy and safety. Indeed, in economy as well as safety generally consists in making them strong, as a single breakage may cost much more than the extra necessary to fully insure safety."

tion of the resistance of materials to repeated stresses and pages 238 to 240.

In using factors of safety it is becoming customary in designing in number of pounds per square inch as the maximum stress allowed on a piece. Thus, in designing a boiler, instead of factor of safety of 6 for the plates and 10 for the stay-bolts, the strength of the steel being from 50,000 to 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., working stress of 10,000 lbs. per sq. in. on the plates and 6000 in. on the stay-bolts may be specified instead. So also in formula for columns (see page 260) the dimensions of a column after assuming a maximum allowable compressive stress per in the concave side of the column.

for masonry under dead load as given by Rankine and by Unwin, show a remarkable difference, which may possibly be explained If the actual crushing strength of a pier of masonry is known experiment, then a factor of safety of 4 is sufficient for a pier of and quality under a steady load; but if the crushing strength is gained from figures given by the authorities (such as the crushing strength of pressed brick, quoted above from Howe's Retaining Walls, 40 per square foot, average 170 tons), then a factor of safety of 20 is too great. In this case the factor of safety is really a "factor

of the proper factor of safety or the proper maximum unit given case is a matter to be largely determined by the judgment and by experience. No definite rules can be given, or advisable factors in many particular cases will be found cases are considered throughout this book. In general the circumstances are to be taken into account in the selection of

the ultimate strength of the material is known within narrow the case of structural steel when tests of samples have been the load is entirely a steady one of a known amount, and there is fear the deterioration of the metal by corrosion, the lowest should be adopted is 3.

In circumstances of 1 are modified by a portion of the load being in floors of warehouses, the factor should be not less than 4.

In whole load, or nearly the whole, is apt to be alternately put on off, as in suspension rods of floors of bridges, the factor should

the stresses are reversed in direction from tension to compressive bridge diagonals and parts of machines, the factor should be 6.

5. When the piece is subjected to repeated shocks, the factor should not be less than 10.

6. When the piece is subject to deterioration from corrosion the factor should be sufficiently increased to allow for a definite amount of loss before the piece be so far weakened by it as to require removal.

7. When the strength of the material, or the amount of the load are uncertain, the factor should be increased by an allowance sufficient to cover the amount of the uncertainty.

8. When the strains are of a complex character and of uncertain amount, such as those in the crank-shaft of a reversing engine, a very high factor is necessary, possibly even as high as 40, the figure given by Rankine in millwork.

THE MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF CORK

Cork possesses qualities which distinguish it from all other solid bodies, namely, its power of altering its volume in a very marked consequence of change of pressure. It consists, practically, of a mass of minute air-vessels, having thin, water-tight, and very strong walls, and hence, if compressed, the resistance to compression rises in a more like the resistance of gases than the resistance of an elastic solid, as a spring. In a spring the pressure increases in proportion to the distance to which the spring is compressed, but with gases the pressure increases in a much more rapid manner; that is, inversely as the volume which the gas is made to occupy. But from the permeability of cork to air, it is evident that, if subjected to pressure in one direction only, the air will gradually part with its occluded air by effusion, that is, by passing through the porous walls of the cells in which it is contained. The part of cork constitutes 53% of its bulk. Its elasticity has not a very considerable range, but it is very persistent. Thus in the better known use of cork in bottling the corks expand the instant they escape from the bottle. This expansion may amount to an increase of volume of 15%, even if the cork has been kept in a state of compression in the bottle for years. If the cork be steeped in hot water, the volume continues to increase until it attains nearly three times that which it occupied in the neck of the bottle.

When cork is subjected to pressure a certain amount of permanent set, or "permanent set," takes place very quickly. This is common to all solid elastic substances when strained beyond their elastic limits, but with cork the limits are comparatively low. Besides the permanent set, there is a certain amount of sluggish elasticity—that is, when released from pressure springs back a certain amount at once, but the complete recovery takes an appreciable time.

Cork which had been compressed and released in water many times had not changed its molecular structure in the least, and was used perfectly serviceable. Cork which has been kept under a pressure of three atmospheres for many weeks appears to have shrunk to but 85% of its original volume. — *Van Nostrand's Eng'g Mag.* 1886, p. 100.

TESTS OF VULCANIZED INDIA-RUBBER.

Lieutenant J. Vladimiroff, a Russian naval officer, has recently published a series of tests at the St. Petersburg Technical Institute, with a view to establishing rules for estimating the quality of vulcanized rubber. The following, in brief, are the conclusions arrived at, according to physical properties, since chemical analysis did not give any result: 1. India-rubber should not give the least sign of superficial cracking when bent to an angle of 180 degrees after five hours of exposure in an air-bath to a temperature of 125° C. The test pieces should be 1/4 inch thick. 2. Rubber that does not contain more than half its weight of sulphur should stretch to five times its length without breaking, and recover free from all foreign matter, except the sulphur used in vulcanization, should stretch to at least seven times its length without rupture. Extension measured immediately after rupture should not exceed 10% of original length, with given dimensions. 3. Suppleness may be determined by measuring the percentage of ash formed in incineration. This is the basis for deciding between different grades of rubber for various purposes. 4. Vulcanized rubber should not harden under cold. This has been adopted for the Russian navy. — *Iron Age*, June 15, 1887, p. 100.

XYLOLITH, OR WOODSTONE

A material invented in 1882, but only lately introduced to the public by the Craig & Co., of Pittsburg, Penn. President. It is made of

joined magnesite, mixed with sawdust and saturated with a solution of calcium. This pasty mass is spread out into sheets to a pressure of about 1000 lbs. to the square inch, and then dried in the air. Specific gravity 1.53. The fractured surface shows a fine grain of a yellow color. It has a tensional resistance of 100 lbs. per square inch, and when wet about 66 lbs. When immersed in water for 24 hours it takes up 2.1% of its weight, and 3.8% when immersed

for several days with hydrochloric acid it loses 2.8% in weight. It shows no loss of weight under boiling in water, brine, soda-lye, sulphates of iron, of copper, and of ammonium. It is hard as flint, and stands between feldspar and quartz, and as a non-conductor of electricity between asbestos and cork.

It is well, and at a red heat it is rendered brittle and crumbles at once, but retains its general form and cohesion. This xylolith is supplied in sheets from $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. thick, and up to one metre square. It is used in Germany for floors in railway stations, hospitals, etc., and for vessels. It can be sawed, bored, and shaped with ordinary tools. Putty in the joints and a good coat of paint make it water-proof. It is sold in Germany for flooring at about 5 cents per sq. ft. and the cost of laying adds about 4 cents more. *Eng'g News*, and July 27, 1893.

ALUMINUM—ITS PROPERTIES AND USES.

(Fred E. Hunt, Pres't of the Pittsburgh Reduction Co.)

The specific gravity of pure aluminum in a cast state is 2.58; in rolled sheet it is 2.6; in very thin sheets subjected to high compression or chilled rolls, it is as much as 2.7. Taking the weight of a cast aluminum as 1, wrought iron is 2.50 times heavier; structural steel 3 times; copper, 3.60; ordinary high brass, 3.45. Most woods in structures has about one third the weight of aluminum, or 0.092 lb. to the cubic inch.

Aluminum is practically not acted upon by boiling water or steam, and neither hydrogen sulphide does not act upon it at any temperature. It is not acted upon by most organic secretions.

Nitric acid is the best solvent for aluminum, and strong solutions of sulphuric acid readily dissolve it. Ammonia has a slight solvent action, and sulphuric acid dissolves aluminum upon heating, with evolution of sulphurous acid gas. Dilute sulphuric acid acts but slowly on aluminum, though the presence of any chlorides in the solution allow rapid action.

Nitric acid, either concentrated or dilute, has very little effect on the metal, and sulphur has no action unless the metal is in a red heat. Hydrochloric acid has very little effect on aluminum. Strips of the metal fastened to a wooden ship corroded less than 1,000 inch after six months in sea-water, corroding less than copper sheets similarly treated.

Pure aluminum is only exceeded by gold and silver. It stands seventh in the series, being exceeded by gold, silver, platinum, very soft steel, and copper. Sheets of aluminum have been made of a thickness of 0.0005 inch, and beaten into leaf nearly as thin as paper. The metal is most malleable at a temperature of between 300° F., and at this temperature it can be drawn down between rollers as much draught upon it as with heated steel. It has also been drawn into the very finest wire. By the Mannesmann process tubes have been made in Germany.

Aluminum stands very high in the series as an electro-positive metal, and other metals should be avoided, as it would establish a galvanic

cell. The electrical conductivity of aluminum is only surpassed by pure copper, silver, and gold. With silver taken at 100 the electrical conductivity of aluminum is 61.30; that of gold on the same scale is 78; zinc is 29.90; iron is 17.5; platinum 10.60. Pure aluminum has no polarity, and the metal is absolutely non-magnetic.

Castings can be made of aluminum in either dry or "green" sand, and the metal "chills" very fast. It must not be heated much beyond its melting point, and must be poured with care, owing to the ready absorption of oxygen and air. The shrinkage in cooling is $17\frac{1}{4}$ inch per foot. It is harder than ordinary brass. It should be melted in platinum. The metal becomes molten at a temperature of 1120° F., according to Professor Roberts-Austen, or at 1300° F. according to Mr.

Nos. 1a and 2 were full of blow-holes.

Tests Nos. 1 and 1a show the variation in cast copper due to conditions of casting. In the crushing tests Nos. 12 to 20, inclusive, broke under the strain, but all the others bulged and flattened out, so the crushing strength is taken to be that which caused a 10% increase in the length. The test-pieces were 2 in. long and $\frac{5}{8}$ in. diam. Torsional tests were made in Thurston's torsion machine, on 1 in. diameter and 1 in. long between heads.

Specific Gravity of the Copper-tin Alloys.—The specific gravity of copper, as found in these tests, is 8.574 (tested in the ingot, and reduced to 39.1° F.). The alloy of maximum strength contained 62.42 copper, 37.48 tin, and all the alloys containing tin varied irregularly in sp. gr. between 8.63 and 8.93, the density not on the composition, but on the porosity of the casting. It is that the actual sp. gr. of all these alloys containing less than 37.48 tin is 8.93, and any smaller figure indicates porosity in the specimen.

From 37% to 100% tin, the sp. gr. decreases regularly from the 8.936 to that of pure tin, 7.298.

Note on the Strength of the Copper-tin Alloys

The bars containing from 2% to 24% tin, inclusive, have no strength, and all the rest are practically worthless for purposes where strength is required. The dividing line between the strong and the weak is precisely that at which the color changes from golden yellow to white, viz., at a composition containing between 24% and 26% of tin.

It appears that the tensile and compressive strengths of these alloys in no way related to each other, that the torsional strength is proportional to the tensile strength, and that the transverse strength depend in some degree upon the compressive strength, but it is nearly related to the tensile strength. The modulus of rupture, as given by the transverse tests, is, in general, a figure between those of the compressive strengths per square inch, but there are a few cases in which it is larger than either.

The strengths of the alloys at the copper end of the series increase with the addition of tin till about 4% of tin is reached. The strength continues regularly to increase to the maximum, the tensile strength about 15% of tin is reached, while the tensile and compressive strengths also increase, but irregularly, to the same point. This is probably due to porosity of the metal, and might possibly be due to any means which would make the castings more compact. The maximum strength, however, being very much greater at this point than the compressive or torsional strength. From the point of maximum strength the strength drops rapidly to the alloys containing about 27.5% of tin, and then to 37.5%, at which point the minimum (or nearly the minimum) strength of all three methods of test, is reached. The alloys of minimum strength are found from 37.5% tin to 52.5% tin. The absolute minimum is probably at 45% of tin.

From 52.5% of tin to about 77.5% tin there is a rather slow and regular increase in strength. From 77.5% tin to the end of the series, the strengths slowly and somewhat irregularly decrease.

The results of these tests do not seem to corroborate the theories of some writers, that peculiar properties are possessed by the alloys which are compounded of simple multiples of their atomic weights or equivalents, and that these properties are lost as the composition varies more or less from this definite constitution. It does appear that a certain percentage composition gives a maximum strength and another a minimum, but neither of these compositions is represented by simple multiples of the atomic weights.

There appears to be a regular law of decrease from the maximum strength which does not seem to have any relation to the atomic proportions, but only to the percentage compositions.

Hardness. The pieces containing less than 24% of tin were too soft to be tested without difficulty, a gradually increasing hardness being reached at the last named giving a very short chip, and requiring frequent re-testing.

For the hardest alloys it was found impossible to turn the test-piece to a smooth surface. No. 13 to No. 14 were too hard to be tested with a tool at all. Chips would fly off in advance of the tool.

left, leaving a rough surface; or the tool would sometimes, apparently, remove portions of the metal, grinding it to powder. Beyond $\frac{1}{16}$ in the diameter decreased so that the bars could be easily turned.

ALLOYS OF COPPER AND ZINC. (U. S. Test Board).

No.	Composition by analysis.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, % of Breaking Load, lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation in 5 inches.	Transverse Test Modulus of Rupture.	Deflection of test bar 28' long, in.	Crushing Strength per sq. in., lbs.	Torsional Tests	
								Max. Tors. Moment ft. lbs.	Angle of Torsion, deg.
33	1.88	27,240	26.1	20.7	23,197	Bent	130	300	
34	16.98	32,600	30.6	21.4	21,128	"	155	329	
35	17.99	32,670	30.6	21.4	21,128	"	106	345	
36	22.45	35,630	20.0	35.5	25,374	"	109	311	
37	23.08	30,520	24.6	36.8	22,325	"	165	397	
38	26.47	31,580	23.7	38.5	25,804	"	168	293	
39	28.54	30,010	29.5	29.2	24,468	"	104	260	
40	30.06	28,120	28.7	30.7	25,020	"	143	262	
41	31.50	27,900	25.1	37.7	28,159	"	176	277	
42	33.26	48,300	32.8	17.7	43,210	"	202	230	
43	35.65	41,065	40.1	20.7	38,068	"	194	202	
44	41.10	50,450	54.4	10.1	63,104	"	227	81	
45	44.44	41,380	44.0	15.3	42,003	"	209	199	
46	44.78	46,400	53.9	8.0	47,955	"	233	72	
47	50.14	30,560	54.5	5.0	33,167	1.26	117,400	172	98
48	50.82	26,050	100.	0.8	40,189	0.61	176	16	
49	52.28	24,150	100.	0.8	48,471	1.17	121,000	155	13
50	55.37	9,170	100.	17,691	0.10	68	2	
51	58.12	3,727	100.	7,761	0.04	18	2	
52	60.33	1,774	100.	8,296	0.04	29	1	
53	70.17	6,414	100.	16,559	0.04	40	2	
54	77.63	9,000	509.	0.2	22,372	0.13	52,152	65	1
55	86.67	12,413	100.	0.4	35,026	0.31	62	3	
56	94.50	18,065	109.	0.5	26,162	0.46	81	22	
57	Zinc.	5,400	75.	0.7	7,539	0.12	22,000	37	112

Variation in Strength of Gun-bronze, and Means of Increasing the Strength.

—The figures obtained for alloys of from 2.75 (in, viz., from 26,860 to 29,490 pounds, are much less than are given as the strength of gun-metal. Bronze guns are usually cast under the pressure of a head of metal, which tends to increase the strength. The strength of the upper part of a gun casting, or sinking not greater than that of the small bars which have been tested in experiments. The following is an extract from the report of Major concerning the strength and density of gun-bronze (1850):—Extreme of six samples from different parts of the same gun (a 32 pounder): Specific gravity, 8.487 to 8.835; tenacity, 26,428 to 52,192. Extreme of all the samples tested: Specific gravity, 8.308 to 8.850; tenacity, 24,531. Extreme variation of all the samples from the gun heads: Specific gravity, 8.308 to 8.756; tenacity, 29,529 to 35,484.

Major Wade says: The general results on the quality of bronze as it is used in guns are mostly of a negative character. They expose defects in strength, develop the heterogeneous texture of the metal in different parts of the same gun, and show the irregularity and uncertainty of results which attend the casting of all guns, although made from similar materials, treated in like manner.

Gun-bronze containing 9 parts copper and 1 part tin, tested at Waton, D. C., in 1875-6, showed a variation in tensile strength from 25,400 lbs. per square inch, in elongation from 3% to 58%, and in specific gravity from 8.39 to 8.88.

A great improvement may be made in the density and tenacity of gun-bronze by compression has been shown by the experiments of Mr. S. B. Norton, Mass., in 1869, and by those of General Uchatius in Austria. The former increased the density of the metal next the bore of the gun from 8.324 to 8.575, and the tenacity from 27,338 to 41,471 pounds per

square inch. The latter, by a similar process, obtained the following for tenacity:

	Pounds per sq. inch.
Bronze with 10% tin.....	73,053
Bronze with 8% tin.....	73,258
Bronze with 6% tin.....	77,656

ALLOYS OF COPPER, TIN, AND ZINC.

(Report of U. S. Test Board, Vol. II, 1881.)

No. in Report.	Analysis, Original Mixture.			Transverse Strength.		Tensile Strength per square inch.		Elongated per cent 5 inch.
	Cu.	Sn.	Zn.	Modulus of Rupture.	Deflection, ins.	A.	B.	
72	90	5	5	41,834	2.63	23,600	30,740	2.31
5	88.14	1.86	10	31,986	3.47	31,000	33,000	17.6
70	85	5	10	44,457	2.85	28,840	28,560	0.88
71	85	10	5	62,470	2.56	35,680	36,000	0.81
80	85	12.5	2.5	62,405	2.33	31,500	32,800	1.29
88	82.5	12.5	5	65,980	1.61	36,000	34,000	.86
77	82.5	15	2.5	69,045	1.99	33,600	34,800	
67	80	5	15	62,117	3.88	37,550	32,300	11.6
68	80	10	10	67,117	2.45	32,830	31,950	1.57
69	80	15	5	64,470	.44	32,350	29,760	.65
86	77.5	10	12.5	63,849	1.19	35,500	36,000	1.00
87	77.5	12.5	10	61,705	.71	36,000	32,500	.72
83	75	5	20	55,355	2.91	33,140	34,900	2.50
85	75	7.5	17.5	62,007	1.39	33,700	29,300	1.66
64	75	10	15	58,345	.73	35,320	34,000	1.13
65	75	15	10	51,109	.31	35,410	28,000	.59
66	75	20	5	40,335	.21	23,140	27,960	.43
83	72.5	7.5	20	51,830	2.66	32,700	34,800	3.73
84	72.5	10	17.5	53,330	.74	30,000	30,000	.48
59	70	5	25	57,349	1.57	38,000	32,910	2.06
82	70	7.5	22.5	48,836	.06	38,000	32,400	.54
60	70	10	20	30,530	.18	38,140	26,300	.31
61	70	15	15	37,924	.30	33,440	27,800	.25
62	70	20	10	15,120	.08	17,000	12,900	.61
81	67.5	2.5	30	58,345	2.91	34,720	35,800	7.27
74	67.5	5	27.5	56,376	.49	34,000	31,100	1.06
75	67.5	7.5	25	46,875	.32	20,500	20,000	.36
80	65	2.5	32.5	56,940	2.36	41,350	38,300	3.26
55	65	5	30	51,369	.56	37,140	30,000	1.21
56	65	10	25	27,075	.14	25,720	22,500	.15
57	65	15	20	13,504	.07	6,820	7,241	
58	65	20	15	11,922	.05	3,705	2,605	
70	62.5	2.5	35	69,255	2.31	44,400	45,000	2.15
78	60	2.5	37.5	69,508	1.40	57,400	62,900	4.87
52	60	5	35	46,076	.28	41,160	38,730	.50
53	60	10	30	24,690	.13	21,780	21,240	.15
54	60	15	25	18,248	.09	18,920	12,400	
12	58.25	2.30	39.45	65,629	1.99	66,500	67,000	3.13
3	58.75	8.75	32.5	36,752	.18	Broke	before test, vertical	
4	57.5	21.25	21.25	2,752	.02	725	1,551	
73	55	0.5	44.5	72,308	8.05	68,000	68,000	0.43
50	55	5	40	38,174	.03	27,000	30,500	.46
51	55	10	35	28,258	.14	25,460	18,500	.30
49	50	5	45	20,814	.11	23,000	21,800	.56

The transverse tests were made in bars 1 in square, 22 in long.

The tensile tests were made on bars 0.708 in diam, turned at ends of the transverse test bar, one half being marked A.

Bronzes.—The usual composition of ancient bronze was the case of modern gun-metal—80 copper, 10 tin; but the proportion of copper was 55 to 15%, and in some cases lead has been found. Some ancient tools contained 88 copper, 12 tin.

of the Copper-zinc Alloys.—The alloys containing less zinc by original mixture were generally defective. The bars showed blow-holes, and the metal showed signs of oxidation. To insure it appears that copper-zinc alloys should contain more than

2 to No. 8 inclusive, 16.08 to 30.00% zinc the bars show a remarkable change in all their properties. They have all nearly the same ductility, the latter decreasing slightly as zinc increases, and like in color and appearance. Between Nos. 8 and 10, 30.06 and 36.06% zinc, the strength by all methods of test rapidly increases. Between No. 10, 36.06 and 50.14% zinc, there is another group, distinguished by soft and diminished ductility. The alloy of maximum tensile and torsional strength contains about 45% of zinc.

Alloys containing less than 5% of zinc are all yellow metals. Beyond 45% they change to white, and the alloy becomes weak and brittle. Beyond pure zinc the color is bluish gray, the brittleness decreases with increase of zinc, but not to such a degree as to make them useful for the purposes.

Change between Composition by Mixture and by

Analysis.—There is in every case a smaller percentage of zinc in the analysis than in the original mixture, and a larger percentage of copper. The loss of zinc is variable, but in general averages from 1 to 2%.

on or Separation of the Metals.—In several of the trials the amount of liquation took place, analysis showing a change in composition of the two ends of the bar. In such cases the composition was gradual from one end of the bar to the other, and in general containing the higher percentage of copper. A zinc was bar No. 13, in the above table, turnings from the upper end contained 40.36% of zinc, and from the lower end 48.55%.

Gravity.—The specific gravity follows a definite law, varying with composition, and decreasing with the addition of zinc. From the table of specific gravities the following mean values are taken:

.....	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100.
.....	8.80	8.72	8.60	8.40	8.36	8.20	8.00	7.72	7.40	7.20	7.14.

Representation of the Law of Variation of

of Copper-Tin-Zinc Alloys. In an equilateral triangle the perpendicular distances from any point within it to the three sides are equal to the altitude. Such a triangle can therefore be used to represent the percentage composition of any compound of three elements. Let one side represent 100% copper, a second side 100% tin, and the third 100% zinc, the vertex opposite each of these sides representing each element respectively. On points in a triangle of wood representing different alloys tested, wires were erected of lengths proportional to the tensile strengths, and the triangle then built up with plaster to represent the surface thus formed has a characteristic shape representing the variations of strength with variations of composition.

The cut shows the surface thus made. The vertical section presents the law of tensile strength of the copper-tin alloys, the horizontal section presents the law of tensile strength of the tin-zinc alloys, and the one at the rear that of the copper-zinc alloys. The high point represents the strongest possible alloy of these three metals. Its composition is copper 55, zinc 49, tin 2, and its tensile strength is 70,000 lbs. The high ridge from this point to the point of minimum strength on the left is the line of the strongest alloys, or the formula $\text{zinc} + (3 \times \text{tin}) = 55$.

Alloys to the rear of the ridge, containing more copper and less zinc, have a ductility of greater ductility than those on the line of maximum strength. The alloys to the front of the ridge, containing more tin, are the valuable commercial alloys; those in front on the declivity are brittle, and those in the valley are both brittle and soft.

Passing from the valley toward the section at the right the alloys become softer and become soft, the maximum softness being reached at the rear of the ridge. They remain weak, as is shown by the low elevation of the surface.

This model was planned and constructed by Prof. Thurston, U. S. C. E. 1889, Report of the U. S. Board appointed

test Iron, Steel, etc., vol. II., Washington, 1881, and Thurston's *Book of Engineering*, vol. III.)

The best alloy obtained in Thurston's research for the U. S. Tests has the composition, Copper 55, Tin 0.5, Zinc 44.5. The tensile stress cast bar was 68,900 lbs. per sq. in., two specimens giving the same on elongation was 47 to 51 percent in 5 inches. Thurston's formula for tin zinc alloys of maximum strength (Trans. A. S. C. E., 1881) is as

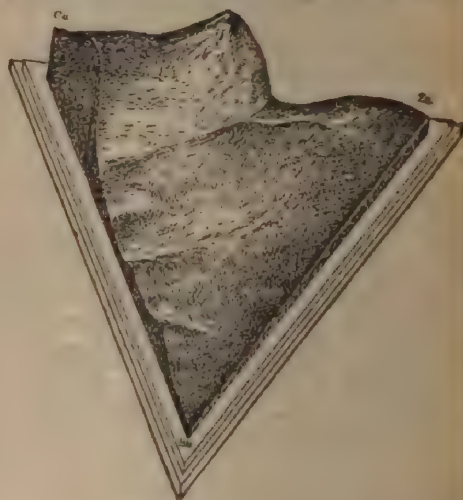


FIG. 77.

in which x is the percentage of zinc and t that of tin. Alloys produced according to this formula should have a strength of about 60 lbs. per sq. in. + 500 x . The formula fails with alloys containing less than 10 percent of tin.

The following would be the percentage composition of a number made according to this formula, and their corresponding tensile strengths:

Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.
1	52	47	66,000	8	31	61
2	49	49	64,500	9	28	63
3	46	51	63,000	10	25	65
4	43	53	61,500	12	19	69
5	40	55	60,000	14	13	73
6	37	57	58,500	16	7	77
7	34	59	57,000	18	1	81

These alloys, while possessing maximum tensile strength, would be too hard for easy working by machine tools. Another series of the formula $t + 4t = 50$ would have greater ductility, together

as follows, the strength being calculated as

lbs. per sq. in. = 49,000 + 500 x .

Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.
1	48	53	61,000	7	23	71	51,000
2	42	56	61,000	8	18	74	49,000
3	38	59	60,000	9	14	77	47,000
4	34	62	57,000	10	10	80	45,000
5	30	65	55,000	11	6	83	43,000
6	26	68	53,000	12	2	86	41,000

Composition of Alloys in Every-day Use in Brass Foundries. (*American Machinist.*)

	Cop- per.	Zinc.	Tin.	Lead.	
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	
Admiralty metal	87	5	8		For parts of engines on board naval vessels.
Gun metal	15		4		Bells for ships and factories.
Lead (yellow)	16	8		$\frac{1}{2}$	For plumbers, ship and house brass work.
Gun metal	64	8	4	4	For bearing bushes for shafting.
Gun metal	32	1	3		For pumps and other hydraulic purposes.
Gun metal	20	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	Castings subjected to steam pressure.
Lead gun metal	16		$2\frac{1}{2}$		For heavy bearings.
Gun metal	60	40			Metal from which bolts and nuts are forged, valve spindles, etc.
Phosphor bronze	90		8 phos. tin		For valves, pumps and general work.
" "	90		10 "	"	For cog and worm wheels, bushes, axle bearings, slide valves, etc.
Gun metal	16	3			Flanges for copper pipes.
" solder	50	50			Solder for the above flanges.

Curley's Bronze.—16 parts copper, 1 tin, 1 zinc, $\frac{1}{2}$ lead, used by J. E. Curley of Troy for the framework of their engineer's transit. Tensile strength 41,114 lbs. per sq. in., elongation 27% in 1 inch, sp. gr. 8.699 (J. Kepp, Trans. A. I. M. E. 1890.)

Useful Alloys of Copper, Tin, and Zinc.

(Selected from numerous sources.)

	Copper.	Tin.	Zinc.	
U. S. Navy Dept. journal boxes	6	1	$\frac{1}{4}$	parts.
and guide-gibs	82.8	13.8	3.4	per cent.
Gun bronze	58.25	2.30	39.45	" "
Gun metal	62	1	37	" "
Composition, U. S. Navy	68	10	2	" "
Gun bearings (J. Rose)	64	8	1	parts.
" "	57.7	11.0	1.3	per cent.
Gun metal	82.3	5	2.5	" "
" "	91	7	2	" "
" "	87.75	9.75	2.5	" "
" "	85	5	10	" "
" "	63	2	15	" "
" "	18	2	2	parts.
Gun brass for engines	76.5	11.8	11.7	per cent.
Gun for rest-boxes (Lafond)	82	16	2	slightly malleable
pieces subject to shock	83	15	1.50	0.50 lead.
Gun brass	20	1	1	" "
Gun brass	87	4.4	4.3	4.3 "
Gun for pump casings (Lafond)	88	10	2	" "
eccentric straps	81	14	5	" "
Gun still whistles	80	18		2.0 antimony.
Gun low-toned whistles	81	17		2.0 "

	Copper.	Tin.	Zinc.
Art bronze, dull red fracture.....	97	2	1
Gold bronze.....	89.5	2.1	5.6 2.8 lead.
Bearing metal.....	89	8	3
" ".....	80	2½	8½
" ".....	86	14	..
" ".....	85½	12½	2
" ".....	80	18	2
" ".....	70	14	2½ 1½ lead.
" ".....	74	9½	9½ 7 lead.
English brass of A.D. 1504.....	64	3	29½ 3½ lead.

Copper-Nickel Alloys, German Silver.

	Copper.	Nickel.	Tin.
German silver.....	51.6	25.8	22.6
" ".....	50.2	14.9	3.1
" ".....	51.1	13.8	3.2
" ".....	52 to 55	16 to 25
Nickel ".....	75 to 86	25 to 33

A refined copper-nickel alloy containing 50% copper and 49% nickel, very small amounts of iron, silicon and carbon, is produced direct from Bessemer matte in the Sudbury (Canada) Nickel Works. German manufacturers purchase a ready-made alloy, which melts at a low heat, requires simple addition of zinc, instead of buying the nickel and copper separately. This alloy, "50-50" as it is called, is almost indistinguishable from pure nickel. Its cost is less than nickel, its melting point much lower, it can be cast solid in any form desired, and furnishes a casting which can be turned in the lathe or planer, yielding a silvery white surface, unaffected by air or moisture. For bullet casings now used in various British and German rifles, a special alloy of 80% copper and 20% nickel is made.

Special Alloys. (Engineer, March 24, 1893.)**JAPANESE ALLOYS for art work :**

	Copper.	Silver.	Gold.	Lead.	Zinc
Shaku do.....	94.50	1.55	3.75	0.11	trace.
Shibu-ichi.....	67.31	32.07	Trace.	.52	

GILBERT'S ALLOY for *cera periduta* process, for casting in plaster of Paris.
Copper 91.4 Tin 5.7 Lead 2.9 Very fusible.

COPPER-ZINC-IRON ALLOYS.

(F. L. Garrison, *Jour. Frank. Inst.*, June and July, 1891.)

Delta Metal.—This alloy, which was formerly known as *sterling*, is composed of about 60 copper, from 31 to 44 zinc, 2 to 4 iron, and 1 tin. The peculiarity of all these alloys is the content of iron, which appears to have the property of increasing their strength to an unusual degree. In making delta metal the iron is previously alloyed with zinc in known definite proportions. When ordinary wrought-iron is introduced into molten zinc, the latter readily dissolves or absorbs the former, and carries it up to the extent of about 5% or more. By adding the zinc-iron alloy obtained to the requisite amount of copper, it is possible to introduce definite quantity of iron up to 3% into the copper alloy. Garrison gives the following as the range of composition of copper-zinc-iron, and copper-tin-iron alloys :

I.		II.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.
Iron.....	0.1 to 5	Iron.....	0.1 to 5
Copper.....	50 to 65	Tin.....	0.1 to 5
Zinc.....	49.9 to 30	Zinc.....	1 to 5
		Copper.....	50 to 65

The advantages claimed for delta metal are great strength and toughness in producing small castings of close grain. It can be rolled and forged, and contains a certain amount of drawing and hammering when cast, and when exposed to the atmosphere tarnishes less.

When cast in sand delta metal has a tensile strength of about 45,000 pounds per square inch, and about 10% elongation; when rolled, tensile strength of about 75,000 pounds per square inch, elongation from 9% to 17% on bars 1.28 in diameter and 1 inch area.

Delta gives the ultimate tensile strength 33,600 to 51,520 pounds per square inch, with from 10% to 30% elongation.

Delta metal can be forged, stamped and rolled hot. It must be forged at black cherry-red heat, and care taken to avoid striking when at a black

According to Lloyd's Proving House tests, made at Cardiff, December 30, 1881, a half-inch delta metal-rolled bar gave a tensile strength of 88,400 lbs. per square inch, with an elongation of 30% in three inches.

Tobin Bronze.—This alloy is practically a delta metal with addition of a small amount of lead, which tends to render copper softer and more ductile.

The following analyses of Tobin bronze were made by Dr. Chas. B. Dudley:

	Pig Metal, per cent.	Test Bar (Rolled), per cent.
Copper.....	59.00	61.30
Zinc.....	38.40	37.14
Tin.....	2.16	0.90
Iron.....	0.11	0.18
Lead.....	0.31	0.35

Dudley writes, "We tested the test bars and found 78,500 tensile strength with 15% elongation in two inches, and 40½% in eight inches. This tensile strength can only be obtained when the metal is manipulated. Such results could hardly be expected with cast metal."

The original Tobin bronze in 1875, as described by Thurston, Trans. A. S. M. E. 1881, had, composition of copper 58.23, tin 2.30, zinc 39.48. As it had a tenacity of 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., and as rolled 70,000 lbs.; cold it gave 104,000 lbs.

Analyst of Ansonia Brass & Copper Co. gives the following:—The tensile strength of six Tobin bronze one-inch round rolled rods, turned down to a diameter of ¾ of an inch, tested by Fairbanks, averaged 70,000 lbs. per sq. in. and the elastic limit obtained on three specimens averaged 54,257 lbs. per

square inch. Black cherry-red heat Tobin bronze can be forged and stamped as readily as delta. Bolts and nuts can be forged from it, either by hand or by machine, with a marked degree of economy. Its great tensile strength, and escape to the corrosive action of sea-water, render it a most suitable material for condenser plates, steam-launch shafting, ship sheathing and engine nails, hull plates for steam yachts, torpedo and life boats, and deck fittings.

The Navy Department has specified its use for certain purposes in the armor of the new cruisers. Its specific gravity is 8.071. The weight of one cubic inch is 291 lb.

PHOSPHOR-BRONZE AND OTHER SPECIAL BRONZES.

Phosphor-bronze.—In the year 1868, Montefiore & Kunzel of Liège, Belgium, found by adding small proportions of phosphorus or "phosphoret of copper" to copper that the oxides of that metal, nearly always found as an impurity, more or less, were decolorized and the copper much improved in strength and ductility, the grain of the fracture became finer, more brighter, and a greater fluidity was attained.

Three samples of phosphor-bronze tested by Kirkaldy gave:

Elastic limit, lbs. per sq. in.	23,800	24,700	16,100
Tensile strength, lbs. per sq. in. ...	52,625	46,100	44,448
Elongation, per cent.	8.40	1.50	33.40

The strength of phosphor-bronze varies like that of ordinary bronze, being in the percentages of copper, tin, zinc, lead, etc., in the alloy.

Decolorized Bronze. This alloy resembles phosphor-bronze somewhat in composition and also delta metal, in containing zinc and iron. The following analysis gives its average composition:

Copper.....	82.67	Iron.....	0.10
Tin.....	12.40	Silver.....	0.07
Zinc.....	3.23	Phosphorus.....	0.995
Lead.....	2.14		
			100.615

Comparison of Copper, Silicon-bronze, and Phosphor-bronze Wires.

(Engineering, Nov. 23, 1883.)

Description of Wire.	Tensile Strength per square inch in		Bel Condu
	Tons.	Lbs.	
Pure copper.....	17.78	39,827	100
Silicon bronze (telegraph).....	18.27	41,896	96
" (telephone).....	48.25	108,080	84
Phosphor Bronze (telephone).....	45.71	104,320	88

ALUMINUM ALLOYS.

(Aluminum Bronze, Cowles Electric Smelting and Al. Co.)

The standard A No. 2 grade of aluminum bronze, containing 11% aluminum and 90% of copper, has many remarkable characteristics distinguish it from all other metals.

The tenacity of castings of A No. 2 grade metal varies between 90,000 lbs. to the square inch, with from 4% to 14% elongation.

Increasing the proportion of aluminum in bronze beyond 11% produces a brittle alloy; therefore nothing higher than the A No. 1, which contains 10%.

The B, C, D, and E grades, containing 7½%, 5%, 2½%, and 1½% of aluminum respectively, decrease in tenacity in the order named, that of the B being about 65,000 pounds, while the latter is 25,000 pounds. With the decrease also a proportionate decrease in transverse and torsional strength, limit, and resistance to compression as the percentage of aluminum increased and that of copper raised, the ductility on the other hand is in the same proportion. The specific gravity of the A No. 1 grade is 8.4.

Hell Bros., Newcastle, gave the specific gravity of the aluminum alloys as below:

¾% aluminum.....	8.491
4% ".....	8.621
5% ".....	8.369
10% ".....	7.689

Casting.—The melting point of aluminum bronze varies slightly with the amount of aluminum contained, the higher grades melting at a what lower temperature than the lower grades. The A No. 1 grade melts at about 1700° F., a little higher than ordinary bronze or brass.

Aluminum bronze shrinks more than ordinary brass. As the metal is fed rapidly it is necessary to pour it quickly and to make the feed large, so that there will be no "freezing" in them before they are properly fed. Baked-sand moulds are preferable to green sand, especially for small castings, and when fine skin colors are desired in the casting, as pointed out by Thos. D. West, Trans. A. S. M. E. 1886, vol. VIII.)

All grades of aluminum bronze can be rolled, swaged, spun, or cold except A 1 and A 2. They can all be worked at a bright red heat.

In rolling, swedging, or spinning cold, it should be annealed very slowly at a brighter red heat than is used for annealing brass.

Brazing.—Aluminum bronze will braze as well as any other metal using one quarter brass solder (zinc 500, copper 500) and three quarters borax, or, better, three quarters cryolite.

Soldering.—To solder aluminum bronze with ordinary soft solder: Cleanse well the parts to be joined free from grease and place the parts to be soldered in a strong solution of sulphate of copper. In the bath a rod of soft iron touching the parts to be joined will cause a coppery-like surface will be seen on the metal. Remove the parts, rinse quite clean, and brighten the surfaces. These surfaces may be finished by using a fluid consisting of zinc dissolved in hydrochloric acid, the ordinary way, with common soft solder.

Mierzinski recommends ordinary hard solder, and says that E alloy of the usual half-and-half lead-tin solder, with 12.5% of zinc, is an amalgam.

Tests of Aluminum Bronzes.

H. J. Dagger, in a paper read before the British Association, 1889.)

Tensile Strength.	Elongation, per cent.	Specific Gravity.
Tons per square inch.	Pounds per square inch.	
40 to 45	89,600 to 100,800	8
38 " 40	73,920 " 89,600	14
25 " 30	56,000 " 67,200	40
15 " 18	33,600 " 40,320	40
13 " 15	29,120 " 33,600	50
11 " 13	24,640 " 29,120	55

Physical and chemical tests made of samples cut from various sections, 5%, 7½%, or 10% aluminized copper castings tend to prove that aluminum unites itself with each particle of copper with uniform proportion in each case, so that we have a product that is free from lamination or heterogeneous. (R. C. Cole, *Iron Age*, Jan. 16, 1890.)

Aluminum-Brass (E. H. Cowles, Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xviii.)—Aluminum-brass is made by fusing together equal weights of A 1 bronze, copper, and zinc. The copper and bronze are first thor- oughly melted and mixed, and the zinc is finally added. The material is left in the mold until small test-bars are taken from it and broken. When broken, they show a tensile strength of 80,000 pounds or over, with 2 or 3 per cent. elongation, the metal is ready to be poured. Tests of this brass, on small castings, at times shown as high as 100,000 pounds tensile strength.

One of the United States gunboat *Petrel* is cast from this brass, with a trifle less zinc in order to increase its ductility.

Tests of Aluminum-Brass.

(Cowles E. S. & Al. Co.)

(Castings)	Diameter of Piece, Inch.	Area, sq. in.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation, per cent.	Remarks.
Aluminum-Brass.	.465	.1698	41,225	17,668	41½	These test pieces were all 6' long between the shoulders.
Aluminum-Brass.	.465	.1698	78,327	2½	
Copper.	.460	.1661	72,246	2½	
Aluminum-Brass.	.460	.1661	72,246	2½	
Copper.	.460	.1661	72,246	2½	

The brass on the above list is an extremely tough metal with low strength, made purposely so as to "upset" easily. The other, which is aluminum brass No. 2, is very hard.

Not in this country or in England any official standard by which the physical characteristics of cast metals. There are two considerations absolutely necessary to be known before we can make a comparison of different materials; namely, whether the casting was made in green sand or in a chill, and whether it was attached to a core or cast by itself. It has also been found that chill-castings are stronger than sand-castings, and that bars cast by themselves are stronger than bars cast in a core. For testing almost invariably run higher than test-bars attached to a core. It is also a fact that bars cut out from castings are generally stronger than bars cast alone. (E. H. Cowles.)

As to Reported Strength of Alloys.—The same strength which has been found in tests of gun metal and copper and brass above, must be expected in tests of aluminum bronze and in other alloys. They are exceedingly subject to variation in density caused by differences in method of molding and casting, the size and shape of casting, depth of "sinking head,"

Aluminum Hardened by Addition of Copper Bolts
Sheets .04 Inch Thick. (*The Engineer*, Jan 2, 1891)

Al. Per cent.	Cu. Per cent.	Sp. Gr. Calculated.	Sp. Gr. Determined.	Tensile Strength in pounds square inch
100	0	2.70	2.67	36,000
98	2	2.78	2.71	38,000
96	4	2.90	2.77	44,100
94	6	3.02	2.82	54,700
92	8	3.14	2.85	50,370

Tests of Aluminum Alloys.

(Engineer Harris, U. S. N., Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xviii)

Composition.					Tensile Strength, per sq. in. lbs.	Elastic Limit, lbs per sq. in.	Elon- ga- tion, per cent
Cop- per.	Alumi- num.	Silicon.	Zinc.	Iron.			
01.50%	6.50%	1.75%	0.25%	60,700	18,000	23.2
88.50	9.33	1.66	0.50	60,000	27,000	3.8
91.50	6.50	1.75	0.25	67,000	24,000	18.4
90.00	9.00	1.00	72,800	33,000	2.40
63.00	3.33	0.33	33.33%	82,300	60,000	2.33
63.00	3.33	0.33	33.33	70,400	55,000	0.4
91.50	6.50	1.75	0.25	59,100	19,000	15.1
93.00	6.50	0.50	53,000	19,000	6.2
88.50	9.33	1.66	0.50	63,900	20,000	1.43
92.00	6.50	0.50	46,500	17,000	7.8

For comparison with the above 6 tests of "Navy Yard Bronze," Sn 10, Zn 2, are given in which the T. S. ranges from 18,000 to 24,500, El. 2.5 to 5.8%, Red. 4.7 to 10.8%.

Alloys of Aluminum, Silicon and Iron.

M. and E. Bernard have succeeded in obtaining through electrolysis treating directly and without previous purification, the aluminum (red and white bauxites) the following:

Alloys such as ferro-aluminum, ferro-silicon-aluminum and silicon-aluminum, where the proportion of silicon may exceed 10% which are employed in the metallurgy of iron for refining steel and cast-iron.

Also silicon-aluminum, where the proportion of silicon does not exceed 10% which may be employed in mechanical constructions in a rolled or hammered condition, in place of steel, on account of their great resistance especially where the lightness of the piece in construction constitutes one of the main conditions of success.

The following analyses are given:

1. Alloys applied to the metallurgy of iron, the refining of steel and iron:

Types.	Aluminum.	Iron.	Silicon.	Manganese.
No. 1.....	70%	25%	5%	0
No. 2.....	70	20	10	0
No. 3.....	70	15	15	0
No. 4.....	70	10	20	0
No. 5.....	70	10	10	10
No. 6.....	70	trace	20	10

2. Mechanical alloys:

Types.	Aluminum.	Silicon.
No. 1.....	92%	0.75%
No. 2.....	90	0.25
No. 3.....	90	10.00

Up to this time it has been thought that silicon was rather injurious to aluminum. From numerous experiences it has been found that aluminum alloys containing silicon have some remarkable properties and are used in alloys where the proportion of iron was very small, silicon in the neighborhood of 9%. Above this

Aluminum-Antimony Alloys.—Dr. C. B. Rider, when describing aluminum-antimony alloys in a communication read before the Society of Chemical Industry. The results of his researches do not disclose the use of a commercially useful alloy of these two metals, and have a scientific than practical interest. A remarkable point is that the alloy with the chemical composition $Al\ 80$ has a higher melting point than aluminum or antimony alone, and that when aluminum is added to antimony the melting point goes up from that of antimony ($430^{\circ} C.$) to a temperature rather above that of silver ($1000^{\circ} C.$).

ALLOYS OF MANGANESE AND COPPER.

Alloys of Manganese Alloys.—E. H. Cowles, in Trans. A. I. M. E., Vol. 1, p. 406, states that as the result of numerous experiments on alloys of the several metals, copper, zinc, tin, lead, aluminum, iron, and manganese, and the metalloid silicon, and experiments upon the same in various tensile strength, ductility, color, etc., the most important variations appear to be about as follows:

1. That pure metallic manganese exerts a bleaching effect upon copper radical in its action even than nickel. In other words, it was found that 1% of manganese present in copper produces as white a color in the alloy as 2% of nickel would do, this being the amount of each metal to remove the last trace of red.

2. That upwards of 20% or 25% of manganese may be added to copper without affecting its ductility, although doubling its tensile strength and changing its color.

3. That manganese, copper, and zinc when melted together and poured into molds behave very much like the most "yeasty" German silver, forming an ingot which is a mass of blow-holes, and which swells up the mould before cooling.

4. That the alloy of manganese and copper by itself is very easily cast.

5. That the addition of 1.5% of aluminum to a manganese-copper alloy makes it from one of the most refractory of metals in the casting process to a metal of superior casting qualities, and the non-corrodibility of which in many instances greater than that of either German or nickel silver.

6. That the "silver-bronze" alloy especially designed for rods, sheets, and wire

Aluminum-antimony alloys. — Aluminum 100, antimony 1.90, silicon .05.

(4) Good bearing-metals should show small friction. It is true the is almost wholly a question of the lubricant used; but the metal of ing has certainly some influence.

(5) Other things being equal, the best bearing-metal is that which is slowest.

The principal constituents of bearing-metal alloys are copper, zinc, antimony, iron, and aluminum. The following table gives the results of most of the prominent bearing-metals as analyzed at the Pennsylvania Railroad laboratory at Altoona.

Analyses of Bearing-metal Alloys.

Metal.	Copper.	Tin.	Lead	Zinc	Antimony
Camelia metal.....	70.30	4.25	14.75	10.30
Anti-friction metal.....	1.60	98.13
White metal.....	87.52	12.50
Car-brass lining.....	trace	84.87	15.14
Salge's anti-friction.....	4.01	9.91	1.15	85.57
Graphite bearing-metal.....	14.38	67.78	16.77
Antimonial lead.....	80.69	18.81
Carbon bronze.....	75.47	9.72	14.57
Cornish bronze.....	77.83	9.60	12.40	trace
Delta metal.....	92.39	2.37	5.10
*Magnolia metal.....	trace	89.55	trace	16.40
American anti-friction metal.....	76.44	0.98	19.60
Tobin bronze.....	59.00	2.16	67.31	38.40
Graney bronze.....	75.80	0.30	15.06
Damascus bronze.....	76.41	10.60	12.52
Manganese bronze.....	90.52	0.52
Ajax metal.....	81.24	10.98	7.27
Anti-friction metal.....	88.32	11.80
Harrington bronze.....	55.73	0.97	42.67
Car-box metal.....	84.83	trace	14.30
Hard lead.....	01.40	6.10
Phosphor-bronze.....	79.17	10.22	9.61
Ex. B. metal.....	76.80	8.00	15.00

Other constituents:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| (1) No graphite. | (5) No manganese. |
| (2) Possible trace of carbon. | (6) Phosphorus or arsenic. |
| (3) Trace of phosphorus. | (7) Phosphorus, 0.34. |
| (4) Possible trace of bismuth. | (8) Phosphorus, 0.20. |

* Dr. H. C. Torrey says this analysis is erroneous and that metal always contains tin.

As an example of the influence of minute changes in an alloy, rington bronze, which consists of a minute proportion of iron in zinc alloy, showed after rolling a tensile strength of 75,000 lbs. and a gain in 2 inches.

In experimenting on this subject on the Pennsylvania Railroad, number of the bearings were made of a standard bearing-metal; same number were made of the metal to be tested. These bearings were placed on opposite ends of the same axle, one side of the car in standard bearings, the other the experimental. Before going out the bearings were carefully weighed, and after a sufficient time they were again weighed.

The standard bearing-metal used is the "S bearing metal" of the Phosphor Bronze Smelting Co. It contains about 79.7% copper, 9.5% tin, and 0.8% phosphorus. A large number of experiments have shown the loss of weight of a bearing of this metal is 1 lb. to each 12,000 miles traveled. Besides the measurement of wear, observations were made on the frequency of "hot boxes" with the different metals.

The results of the tests for wear, so far as given, are condensed in the following table:

Metal.	Composition.					Rate of Wear.
	Copper.	Tin.	Lead.	Phos.	Arsenic.	
Al	79.70	10.00	9.50	0.80	100
tin	87.50	12.50	148
tin, second experiment, same metal	153
tin, third experiment, same metal	147
bronze	80.20	10.00	0.80	112
bronze	79.20	10.00	7.00	0.80	115
bronze	70.70	10.00	9.50	0.80	101
bronze	77.00	10.50	12.50	92
bronze, second experiment, same metal	92.7
"B"	77.00	8.00	15.00	86.5

of copper-tin alloy of 7 to 1 has repeatedly proved its inferiority to the phosphor-bronze. Many more of the copper-tin bearings heated the phosphor-bronze. The showing of these tests was so satisfactory that phosphor-bronze was adopted as the standard bearing-metal of the Pennsylvania R.R., and was used for a long time.

Experiments, however, were continued. It was found that arsenic alloy takes the place of phosphorus in a copper-tin alloy, and three were made with arsenic-bronzes as noted above. As the proportion of arsenic increased to correspond with the standard, the durability increases.

In view of these results the "K" bronze was tried, in which neither copper nor arsenic were used, and in which the lead was increased to proportion in the standard phosphor-bronze. The result was that it wore 7.4% slower than the phosphor-bronze. No trouble from wear was experienced with the "K" bronze more than with the standard. They continue:

But this time we began to find evidences that wear of bearing-metal varied in accordance with the following law: "That alloy which has the best power of distortion without rupture (resilience), will best resist wear."

It was now attempted to design an alloy in accordance with this law. First the proportions of copper and tin, 9 1/4 parts copper to 1 of tin, were settled on by experiment as the standard, although some evidence at the time tends to show that 12 or possibly 15 parts copper to 1 of tin would have been better. The influence of lead on this copper-tin alloy seems to be about the same as a still further diminution of tin. However, the yield of the metal to yield under pressure increases as the amount of lead is diminished, and the amount of the lead increased, so a limit is set to the amount of lead. A certain amount of tin is also necessary to keep the lead in the copper.

The next was cost of the metal noted in the table as alloy "B," and it was found to be 25% slower than the standard phosphor-bronze. This metal is now the standard bearing-metal of the Pennsylvania Railroad, being slightly different in composition to allow the use of phosphor-bronze scrap. The composition adopted is: Copper, 105 lbs.; phosphor-bronze, 60 lbs.; tin, 13 1/2 lbs.; lead, 1 lb. By using ordinary care in the foundry, keeping the metal covered with charcoal during the melting, no trouble is found in casting bearings with this metal. The copper and the phosphor-bronze can be put in the pot before putting it in the melting-hole. The tin and lead should be added after the pot is taken from the fire.

It is not known whether the use of a little zinc, or possibly some other metal, might not give still better results. For the present, however, this alloy is considered to fulfill the various conditions required for good bearing-metal better than any other alloy. The phosphor-bronze had an ultimate strength of 30,000 lbs., with 6% elongation, whereas the alloy "B" had an ultimate strength of 24,000 lbs., tensile strength and 1 1/2% elongation.

For bearing-metals, see Alloys containing antimony, on next page.

ALLOYS CONTAINING ANTIMONY.

VARIOUS ANALYSES OF BABBITT METAL AND OTHER ALLOYS CONTAINING ANTIMONY.

	Tin.	Copper.	Antimony.	Zinc.	Lead.	Bismuth.
Babbitt metal	50	1	5 parts
for light duty	=89.3	1.8	8.9 per ct.
Harder Babbitt	96	4	8 parts
for bearings*	=88.0	3.7	7.4 per ct.
Britannia	85.7	1.0	10.1	2.9
"	81.9	16.3	1.9
"	81.0	2	16	1
"	70.5	4	25.5
"	22	10	62	6
" Babbitt "	45.5	1.5	13	40.0
Plate pewter	89.3	1.8	7.1
White metal	85	5	10	Bearings on Ger. locomotives

* It is mixed as follows: Twelve parts of copper are first melted and 36 parts of tin are added; 24 parts of antimony are put in, and then 100 of tin, the temperature being lowered as soon as the copper is in order not to oxidize the tin and antimony, the surface of the bath protected from contact with the air. The alloy thus made is subsequently run in the proportion of 50 parts of alloy to 100 tin. (Joshua F. Johnson.)

White-metal Alloys.—The following alloys are used as lining for the Eastern Railroad of France (1890):

Number.	Lead.	Antimony.	Tin.	Copper.
1.	65	25	0	10
2.	0	11.12	83.33
3.	70	30	10	0
4.	80	8	12	0

No. 1 is used for lining cross-head slides, rod brasses and axle-boxes; No. 2 for lining axle-bearings and connecting-rod brasses of heavy engines; No. 3 for lining eccentric straps and for bronze slide-valves; and No. 4 for lining rod-packing.

Some of the best-known white-metal alloys are the following (C. of Hovel & Dieckhaus, London, 1893):

	Tin.	Antimony.	Lead.	Copper.
1. Parsons'	85	1	2	2
2. Richards'	70	15	10½	4½
3. Babbitt's	55	18	23½	3½
4. Fentons'	16	0	0	5
5. French Navy	7½	0	7
6. German Navy	85	7½	0	7½

"There are engineers who object to white metal containing lead. This is, however, a prejudice quite unfounded, inasmuch as lead often have properties of great use in white alloys."

It is a further fact that an "easy liquid" alloy must not contain more than 1% of antimony, which is an invaluable ingredient of white metal, improving its hardness; but in no case must it exceed that margin, would reduce the plasticity of the compound and make it brittle.

Hardest alloy of tin and lead: 6 tin, 4 lead. Hardest of all tin alloys: 18 antimony, 8 copper.

Alloy for thin open-work, ornamental castings: Lead 2, antimony 2, copper 1. White metal for patterns: Lead 10, bismuth 6, antimony 2, copper 10.

Type-metal is made of various proportions of lead and antimony, 17 to 20% antimony according to the hardness desired.

Babbitt Metals. (C. R. Tompkins, *Mechanical News*, Jan. 1894.)

The practice of lining journal-boxes with a metal that is sufficiently hard to wear a common babbitt is not always so much for the sake of the material properties as for the convenience and cheapness of lining in line with the shaft without the use of a separate bush.

Boxes that are bored, no matter how accurate, require great care and practice, however, to use the shaft for the purpose of casting, especially if the shaft be steel, for the reason that the hot metal will spring it; the better plan is to use a mandrel of the same material, larger for this purpose. For slow-running journals, where wear is moderate, almost any metal that may be conveniently melted will answer the purpose. For wearing properties, with a few exceptions, there is probably nothing superior to pure zinc, but when alloyed with some other metal it shrinks so much in cooling that it will not fit firmly in the recess, and soon works loose; and it lacks those properties which are necessary in order to stand high speed.

For lining, and all work where the speed is not over 300 or 400 r. p. m., 8 parts zinc and 2 parts block-tin will not only wear longer than pure zinc, but will successfully resist the force of sand.

The tin counteracts the shrinkage, so that the metal, if not too thin, will firmly adhere to the box until it is worn out. But this alloy does not possess sufficient anti-friction properties to warrant its use for journals.

Of the soft metals in use there are none that possess greater anti-friction properties than pure lead; but lead alone is impracticable, for it is so soft that it cannot be retained in the recess. But when by any process lead is hardened to be retained in the boxes without materially impairing its anti-friction properties, there is no metal that will wear longer than this hardened lead on journals. With most of the best and most popular alloys in use and sold under the name of the Babbitt metal, however, the case is different.

Alloys of tin, copper, and antimony have the property of combining with each other in such proportions as to retain the anti-friction properties of either. The best is the lead, and when mixed in the proportion of 80 parts of lead to 20 parts antimony, no other known composition gives greater anti-friction or wearing properties, or will stand a longer time without heat or abrasion. It runs free in its melted state, has a fine grain, and is better adapted to light high-speeded machinery than any other metal. Care, however, should be manifested in using it, never be heated beyond a temperature that will scorch a dry

oil. Compositions are sold under the name of Babbitt metal, but many are worthless; while but very little genuine Babbitt metal is made strictly according to the original formula. Most of the metal sold under that name are the refuse of type-foundries and machine works, melted and cast into fancy ingots with special brands, and sold under the name of Babbitt metal.

At the present time to determine the exact formulas used by Babbitt, the inventor of the recessed box, as a number of different formulas are given for that composition. Tin, copper, and antimony are the elements, and from the best sources of information the original formula are as follows:

Another writer gives:

Tin	= 89.3%	89.3%
Copper	= 3.0%	8.3%
Antimony	= 7.1%	8.3%

When the tin was first melted, and the antimony added first and then about 10 pounds of tin, the whole kept at a dull-red heat and constantly stirred. The metals were thoroughly incorporated, after which the copper was added, and after being thoroughly stirred again it was cast into ingots. When the copper is thoroughly melted, and the antimony is added, a handful of powdered charcoal should be added to the crucible to form a flux, in order to exclude the air and prevent the metal from vaporizing; otherwise much of it will escape in the process and consequently be wasted. This metal, when carefully prepared, is probably one of the best metals in use for lining boxes that are subjected to heavy weight and wear; but for light fast running journals it is more susceptible to friction, and it is more liable to wear than a metal composed of lead and antimony in the proportion of 10 to 1.

SOLDERS.

Goodness depends upon parts in and out, respectively, of the solder, being 1 lb.

Following parts of the best alloy:

Tin	to lead	of 250 P.	Tin	to lead	of 250 P.
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150

Goodness depends upon parts in and out, respectively, of the solder, being 1 lb.

Good solder: 14 parts good, 4 silver, 4 copper. Good solder: 14 parts good, 4 silver, 4 copper.

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Tin	to lead	of 250 P.	Tin	to lead	of 250 P.
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150
10	140	150	10	140	150

Good solder: 14 parts good, 4 silver, 4 copper. Good solder: 14 parts good, 4 silver, 4 copper.

ROPES AND CABLES.

STRENGTH OF ROPES.

(A. S. Newell & Co., Birkenhead. Klein's Translation of Wenden part 1, sec. 2.)

Hemp.		Iron.		Steel.	
Girth.	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	Weight per Fathom.
Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.
3/4	2	1 1/4	1 1/4	1	1
3/4	4	1 1/4	2 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4
4 1/4	5	1 1/4	3	1 1/4	2
5 1/4	7	1 1/4	3 1/4	1 1/4	2 1/4
6	9	1 1/4	4 1/4	1 1/4	3
6 1/4	10	1 1/4	5 1/4	1 1/4	3 1/4
7	12	1 1/4	6 1/4	1 1/4	4
7 1/4	14	1 1/4	7 1/4	1 1/4	4 1/4
8	16	1 1/4	8 1/4	1 1/4	5
8 1/4	18	1 1/4	9 1/4	1 1/4	5 1/4
9 1/4	22	1 1/4	10	1 1/4	6
10	26	1 1/4	11	1 1/4	6 1/4
11	30	1 1/4	12	1 1/4	8
		1 1/4	13	1 1/4	9
		1 1/4	14	1 1/4	10
		1 1/4	15	1 1/4	12

Flat Ropes.

No.	Iron.		Steel.		Tensile Strength.
	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	
	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Gross tons.
20	20	$2\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4}$	11		20
24	24	$2\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$	13		23
26	26	$2\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	15		27
28	28	$3 \times \frac{1}{2}$	16	$2 \times \frac{1}{4}$	28
30	30	$3\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	18	$2\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$	31
36	36	$3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	20	$2\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$	36
40	40	$3\frac{3}{4} \times 1\frac{1}{16}$	22	$2\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	40
45	45	$4 \times 1\frac{1}{16}$	25	$2\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	45
50	50	$4\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	28	$3 \times \frac{3}{4}$	50
55	55	$4\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	32	$3\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	56
60	60	$4\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	34	$3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	60

ing Load, Diameter, and Weight of Ropes and Chains. (Klein's Weisbach, vol. iii, part 1, sec. 2, p. 561.)

Ropes: d = diam. of rope. Wire rope: d = diam. of wire, n = no. of wires, G = weight per running foot, k = permissible load in lb. per square inch of section, P = permissible load on rope or chain.
 Chains: d = diam. of iron used; inside dimensions of oval 1.5d and each link is a piece of chain 2.6d long. G_0 = weight of a single link = $4.7d^2$; G = weight per running foot = $9.73d^2$ lbs.

Hemp Rope.		Wire Rope.
Dry and Untarred.	Wet or Tarred.	
1430 $0.03 \sqrt{P}$ $1130d^2 = 2855G$ $1.28d^2 = 0.00035P$	1160 $0.033 \sqrt{P}$ $916d^2 = 1975G$ $1.54d^2 = 0.0005P$	17000 $0.0087 \sqrt{\frac{P}{n}}$ $13350nd^2 = 4590G$ $2.91nd^2 = 0.000218P$
Open-link Chain.		Stud-link Chain.
8500 $0.0087 \sqrt{P}$ $13350d^2 = 1360G$ $9.73d^2 = 0.000737P$		11400 $0.0076 \sqrt{P}$ $17800d^2 = 1660G$ $10.65d^2 = 0.0006P$

Chains 4/3 times as strong as open-link variety. [This is contrary to statements of Capt. Beardslee, U. S. N., in the report of the U. S. Test He holds that the open link is stronger than the studded link. See note.]

STRENGTH AND WEIGHT OF WIRE ROPE, HEMPEN ROPE, AND CHAIN CABLES. (Klein's Weisbach.)

Breaking Load in tons of 2240 lbs.	Kind of Cable.	Girth of Wire Rope and of Hemp Rope Diameter of Iron of Chain, inches.	Weight of Foot in tons Pounds.
1 Ton.....	Wire Rope	1.0	0.125
	Hemp Rope	2.0	0.177
	Chain	$\frac{1}{4}$	0.500
8 Tons.....	Wire Rope	2.0	0.424
	Hemp Rope	5.0	0.978
	Chain	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.667
12 Tons.....	Wire Rope	2.5	0.753
	Hemp Rope	7.0	2.406
	Chain	$\frac{11}{16}$	4.802
16 Tons.....	Wire Rope	3.0	1.138
	Hemp Rope	8.0	2.825
	Chain	$\frac{13}{16}$	6.160
20 Tons.....	Wire Rope	3.5	1.516
	Hemp Rope	9.0	3.225
	Chain	$\frac{29}{32}$	7.671
24 Tons.....	Wire Rope	4.0	2.013
	Hemp Rope	10.0	4.156
	Chain	$\frac{31}{32}$	8.826
30 Tons.....	Wire Rope	4.5	2.725
	Hemp Rope	11.0	5.000
	Chain	$\frac{1.1}{16}$	10.535
36 Tons.....	Wire Rope	5.0	3.722
	Hemp Rope	12.5	5.946
	Chain	$\frac{1.3}{16}$	13.01
44 Tons.....	Wire Rope	5.5	4.50
	Hemp Rope	14.0	6.94
	Chain	$\frac{1.5}{16}$	16.00
54 Tons.....	Wire Rope	6.0	5.67
	Hemp Rope	15.0	7.92
	Chain	$\frac{1.7}{16}$	19.16

Length sufficient to provide the maximum working stress:

Hempen rope, dry and untarred	2855 feet.
" " wet or tarred	1975 "
Wire rope.....	4560 "
Open-link chain.....	1360 "
Stud chain.....	1660 "

Sometimes, when the depths are very great, ropes are given approximately the form of a body of uniform strength, by making them of separate parts whose diameters diminish towards the lower end. It is evident that this means the tensions in the fibres caused by the rope's own weight are considerably diminished.

Rope for Hoisting or Transmission. Manila Rope. (C. W. Hunt Company, New York.)—Rope used for hoisting or for the transmission of power is subjected to a very severe test. Ordinary ropes are grinded to powder in the centre, while the exterior may look as though it was little worn.

In bending a rope over a sheave, the strands and the yarns of these strands slide a small distance upon each other, causing friction, and wear the rope internally.

The "Stevodore" rope used by the C. W. Hunt Co. is made by lubricating the fibres with plumbago, mixed with sufficient tallow to hold it in place. This lubricates the yarns of the rope, and prevents internal chafing and wear. After running a short time the exterior of the rope gets oily and is coated with the lubricant.

In manufacturing rope, the fibres are first spun into a yarn, this in a direction called "right hand." From 20 to 30 of these yarns, according to the size of the rope, are then put together and twisted in the opposite direction, or "left hand," into a strand. Three or four

for a 3-strand, or four for a 4-strand rope, are then twisted the twist being again in the "right hand" direction. When the rope is twisted, it untwists each of the threads, and when the three are twisted together into rope, it untwists the strands, but again the threads. It is this opposite twist that keeps the rope in its form. When a weight is hung on the end of a rope, the tendency is for the rope to untwist, and become longer. In untwisting the rope, it untwists the threads up, and the weight will revolve until the strain of the strands just equals the strain of the threads being twisted. In making a rope it is impossible to make these strains exactly equal. It is this fact that makes it necessary to take out the twist in a new rope, that is, untwist it when it is put at work. The twist that should be put in the threads has been ascertained approximately by experience.

The amount of work that the rope will do varies greatly. It depends not only on the quality of the fibre and the method of laying up the rope, but also on the kind of weather when the rope is used, the blocks or sheaves through which it is run, and the strain in proportion to the strain put upon the rope. The principal wear comes in practice from defective or badly set sheaves, from excess of load and exposure to storms.

The strain put upon the rope should not exceed those given in the tables, but economical wear. The indications of excessive load will be the stretching out of the rope, or one of the strands slipping out of its proper position.

A certain amount of twist comes out in using it the first day or after that the rope should remain substantially the same. If it stretches out, the load is too great for the durability of the rope. If the rope runs out on the outside, and is good on the inside, it shows that it has been running over the pulleys or sheaves. If the blocks are very small, they increase the sliding of the strands and threads, and result in a more rapid wear. Rope made for hoisting and for rope transmission is made with four strands, as experience has shown this to be the most durable.

The length and weight of "stevedore" rope is estimated as follows:

Working strength in pounds = 720 (circumference in inches)²;
Weight in pounds per foot = $.032$ (circumference in inches)².

Technical Words relating to Cordage most frequently used.

Fibres twisted together.

— Two or more *small yarns* twisted together.

— The same as a thread but a little larger *yarns*.

— Two or more *large yarns* twisted together.

Several threads twisted together.

Several *strands* twisted together.

— A rope of three *strands*.

Laid. — A rope of four *strands*.

Three hawsers twisted together.

are laid up left-handed into *strands*.

are laid up right-handed into rope.

are laid up left-handed into a cable.

Twisting strands together in making the rope.

By joining to another rope by interweaving the strands.

By winding a string around the end to prevent untwisting.

When covered by winding a yarn continuously and tightly

round. — By wrapping with canvas.

— When two parts are bound together by a yarn, thread or string.

— When painted, tarred or greased to resist wet.

To pull on a rope.

Drawn tight or strained.

Splicing of Ropes.—The splice in a transmission rope is not only the part of the rope but is the first part to fail when the rope is worn. The rope is larger at the splice, the projecting part will wear on the end and the rope fail from the cutting off of the strands. The following are given for splicing a 4-strand rope.

The engravings show each successive operation in splicing a rope. Each engraving was made from a full-size specimen.

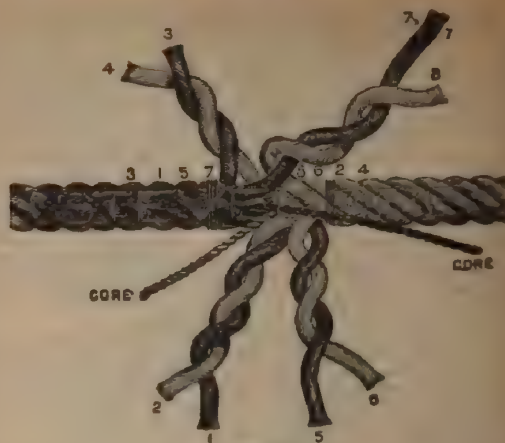


FIG. 78.



FIG. 79.



FIG. 80.

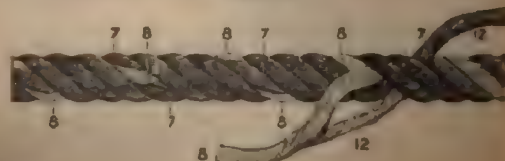


FIG. 81.

SPLICING OF ROPES.

of twine, 9 and 10, around the rope to be spliced, about 6 feet. Then unlay the strands of each end back to the twine, and lay them together and twist each corresponding pair of strands from them from being tangled, as shown in Fig. 78.

Strand 1 is now cut, and the strand 8 unlaidd and strand 7 carefully laid in a distance of four and a half feet from the junction.

Strand 6 is next unlaidd about one and a half feet and strand 5 laid in

the cores are now cut off so they just meet.

Strand 1 four and a half feet, laying strand 2 in its place.

Strand 3 one and a half feet, laying in strand 4.

Strands 6 and 7 are cut off to a length of about twenty inches, for convenience.

The rope now assumes the form shown in Fig. 79 with the meeting points three feet apart.

Each strand is successively subjected to the following operation:

At the point of meeting of the strands 8 and 7, unlay each one three feet, then the strand 8 and the strand 7 in halves as far back as they will go, and "whip" the end of each half strand with a small

the strand 7 is now laid in three turns and the half of 8 also turns. The half strands now meet and are tied in a simple knot, making the rope at this point its original size.

The rope is now opened with a marlin spike and the half strand of 7 is laid in three turns, the half strand of 8 by passing the end of the half strand 7 over the half strand of 8, as shown in the engraving, drawn taut and again worked off strand until it reaches the half strand 13 that was not laid in. Strand 13 is now split, and the half strand 7 drawn through the split made, and then tucked under the two adjacent strands, as in M. The other half of the strand 8 is now wound around the half strand 7 in the same manner. After each pair of strands has been worked in this manner, the ends are cut off at 12, leaving them about 12 inches long.

After a few days' wear they will draw into the body of the rope, so that the locality of the splice can scarcely be detected.

Splicing. (C. W. Hunt Co.)—The amount of coal that can be hoisted by a rope varies greatly. Under the ordinary conditions of use from 5000 to 8000 tons. Where the circumstances are more favorable the amounts run up frequently to 12,000 or 15,000 tons, occasionally in one case 32,400 tons to a single fall.

When a rope is first put in use, it is likely from the strain put upon it when the block is loosened from the tub. This occurs in the first two or three days. The rope should then be taken down and the ends put out of the rope. When put up again the rope should give until worn out.

It is generally held that the rope should be much larger than is needed to bear the load.

Experience for many years has substantially settled the most proper size of rope to be used which is given in the table below.

Ropes are not spliced, as it is difficult to make a splice that will take running over the sheaves, and the increased wear to be made in this way is very small.

It is usually hoisted with what is commonly called a "double whip," a running block that is attached to the tub which reduces the weight to approximately one half the weight of the load hoisted. The table gives the usual sizes of hoisting rope and the proper

Stevodore Hoisting-rope.

C. W. Hunt Co.

Proper Working Strain on the Rope in lbs.	Nominal size of Coal tubs. Double whip.	Approximate Weight of a Coil, in lbs.
350	1 1/2 to 1 5/8 tons.	350
500	1 5/8 " 1 3/4 "	500
650	1 3/4 " 1 7/8 "	650
800	1 7/8 " 2 "	800
1000	2 " 2 1/4 "	1000

ordered by circumference, transmission

act

Weight and Strength of Manila Cordage.

Dodge Manufacturing Co.

Size, Diameter in inches.	Weight of 100 Fathoms Manila in lbs.	Strain Borne by New Rope pounds.	Feet in a pound.	Size, Diameter in inches.	Weight of 100 Fathoms Manila in lbs.	Strain Borne by New Rope pounds.
3/16	12	540	50'	1 5/16	310	16,000
1/4	18	780	33' 4"	1 3/8	346	18,000
5/16	24	1,000	25	1 1/2	390	20,000
3/8	30	1,260	20	1 3/4	435	22,000
7/16	37	1,560	17 8	1 7/8	480	25,000
1/2	46	2,250	13	2	531	30,000
9/16	65	3,000	10 3	2 1/8	678	36,000
5/8	80	4,000	7 6	2 1/4	797	42,000
3/4	98	5,000	6	2 3/8	920	48,000
7/8	120	6,250	5	2 1/2	1,106	56,000
1 1/8	142	7,500	4 3	2 7/8	1,365	64,000
1 1/4	170	9,000	3 6	3	1,490	72,000
1 3/8	200	10,500	3	3 1/8	1,572	81,000
1 1/2	230	12,250	2 7	3 1/4	1,700	90,000
1 3/4	271	14,000	2 3	3 3/8	1,951	100,000

T. Spencer Miller (*Eng'g News*, Dec. 5, 1890) gives the following breaking strength of manila rope, which he considers more reliable than the strength computed by Mr. Hunt's formula. Breaking strength = circumference in inches². Mr. Miller's formula is: Breaking weight = circumference² × a coefficient which varies from 900 (for 1/2") to 700 (for 1 1/2") diameter rope, as shown in the table.

Diam. in.	Circumference in.	Ultimate Strength lbs.	Coefficient.	Diam. in.	Circumference in.	Ultimate Strength lbs.
1/2	1 1/4	2,000	900	1 1/4	50 1/4	10,000
3/4	2	3,250	845	1 3/8	44 1/4	12,000
7/8	2 1/4	4,000	820	1 1/2	41 1/2	15,000
1	2 3/4	5,000	790	1 5/8	38	18,000
1 1/8	3	7,000	780	1 3/4	51 1/2	21,500
1 1/4	3 1/4	9,350	765	2	56	25,000

For rope-driving Mr. Hunt recommends that the working strain not exceed 1/20 of the ultimate breaking strain. For further data on see "Rope-driving."

Knots.—A great number of knots have been devised of which only are illustrated, but those selected are the most frequently used. In the cuts, Fig. 82, they are shown open, or before being drawn tight, to show the position of the parts. The names usually given to them are:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A. Right of a rope. | P. Flemish loop. |
| B. Simple or Overhand knot. | Q. Chain knot with toggle. |
| C. Figure 8 knot. | R. Half hitch. |
| D. Double knot. | S. Timber-hitch. |
| E. Boat knot. | T. Clove hitch. |
| F. Bowline, first step. | U. Rolling-hitch. |
| G. Bowline, second step. | V. Timber-hitch and half. |
| H. Bowline completed. | W. Blackwall hitch. |
| I. Square or reef knot. | X. Fisherman's bend. |
| J. Sheet bend or weaver's knot. | Y. Round turn and half. |
| K. Sheet bend with a toggle. | Z. Wall knot commenced. |
| L. Carrick bend. | A A. " " completed. |
| M. Stovescore knot completed. | B B. Wall knot crown commenced. |
| N. Stovescore knot commenced. | C C. " " crown completed. |
| O. Slip knot. | |

To Splice a Wire Rope.—The tools required will be a small spike, zipping cutters, and either clamps or a small hemp-rope which to wrap around and untwist the rope. If a bench-vise it will be found convenient.

In splicing rope, a certain length is used up in making the allowance of not less than 18 feet for $\frac{1}{2}$ inch rope, and proportionally longer for larger sizes, must be added to the length of an end in ordering.

Having measured, carefully, the length the rope should be allowed, and marked the points *M* and *M'*, Fig. 83, unlay the strands at end *E* and *E'* to *M* and *M'* and cut off the centre at *M* and *M'*, and

(1), Interlock the six unlayed strands of each end alternately together so that the points *M* and *M'* meet, as in Fig. 84.

(2), Unlay a strand from one end, and following the unlay close the seam or groove it opens, the strand opposite it belonging to the end of the rope, until within a length equal to three or four times of one lay of the rope, and cut the other strand to about the same from the point of meeting as at *A*, Fig. 85.

(3), Unlay the adjacent strand in the opposite direction, and follow unlay closely, lay in its place the corresponding opposite strand, as ends as described before at *B*, Fig. 86.

There are now four strands laid in place terminating at *A* and *B*, eight remaining at *M* and *M'*, as in Fig. 85.

It will be well after laying each pair of strands to tie them temporarily at the points *A* and *B*.

Pursue the same course with the remaining four pairs of opposite



FIG. 83.



FIG. 84.



FIG. 85.

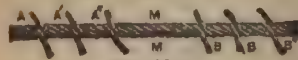


FIG. 86.



FIG. 87.

SPLICING WIRE ROPE.

stopping each pair about eight or ten turns of the rope short of the lug pair, and cutting the ends as before.

We now have all the strands laid in their proper places with the two ends passing each other, as in Fig. 86.

All methods of rope-splicing are identical to this point; their consists in the method of tucking the ends. The one given below is most generally practiced.

Clamp the rope either in a vise at a point to the left of *A*, Fig. 87, hand-clamp applied near *A*, open up the rope by untwisting said out the core at *A*, and seizing it with the nippers, let an assistant draw out slowly, you following it closely, crowding the strand in its place. Cut the core where the strand ends, and push the strand into its place. Remove the clamps and let the rope close together. Draw out the core in the opposite direction and lay the other strands remaining points, and hammer the rope lightly at the points where pass each other at *A*, *A'*, *B*, *B'*, etc., with small wooden mallets; splice is complete, as shown in Fig. 87.

If a clamp and vise are not obtainable, two rope slings and the levers may be used to untwist and open up the rope.

A rope spliced as above will be nearly as strong as the original smooth everywhere. After running a few days, the splice, if it cannot be found except by close examination.

The above instructions have been adopted by the leading rope

SPRINGS.

Definitions. A spiral spring is one which is wound around a fixed point or centre, and continually receding from it like a watch spring. A coil spring is one which is wound around an arbor, and at the same time acting like the thread of a screw. An elliptical or laminated spring is one of flat bars, plates, or "leaves," of regularly varying lengths, superposed one upon the other.

Laminated Steel Springs.—Clark (Rules, Tables and Data) gives the following from his work on *Railway Machinery*, 1855:

$$\Delta = \frac{1.66L^3}{bt^3n}; \quad s = \frac{bt^2n}{11.3L}; \quad n = \frac{1.66L^3}{\Delta bt^3};$$

Δ = elasticity, or deflection, in sixteenths of an inch per ton of load,

s = working strength, or load, in tons (2240 lbs.),

n = span, when loaded, in inches,

t = breadth of plates, in inches, taken as uniform,

b = thickness of plates, in sixteenths of an inch,

l = number of plates.

RE.—The span and the elasticity are those due to the spring when loaded.

When extra thick back and short plates are used, they must be replaced by an equivalent number of plates of the ruling thickness, prior to the employment of the first two formulæ. This is found by multiplying the number of extra thick plates by the cube of their thickness, and dividing by the cube of the ruling thickness. Conversely, the number of plates of the ruling thickness given by the third formula, required to be deducted and replaced by a given number of extra thick plates, are found by the same calculation. It is assumed that the plates are similarly and regularly formed, and they are of uniform breadth, and but slightly taper at the ends.

Reuleaux's Constructor gives for semi-elliptic springs:

$$P = \frac{Snbb^3}{6l} \quad \text{and} \quad f = \frac{6Pl^3}{Enbb^3};$$

max direct fibre-strain in plate;

b = width of plates;

n = number of plates in spring;

h = thickness of plates;

l = one-half length of spring;

f = deflection of end of spring;

P = load on one end of spring;

E = modulus of direct elasticity.

The above formula for deflection can be relied upon where all the plates in the spring are regularly shortened; but in semi-elliptic springs, as used, there are generally several plates extending the full length of the spring, the proportion of these long plates to the whole number is usually about

fourth. In such cases $f = \frac{5.5Pl^3}{Enbb^3}$ (G. R. Henderson, Trans. A. S. M. E., 1881.)

In order to compare the formulæ of Reuleaux and Clark we may make the following substitutions in the latter: s in tons = P in lbs. $\div 1120$; Δ in $\frac{1}{16}$ in. = f in in. $\times 16$; then

$$\Delta s = 16f = \frac{1.66 \times 8l^3 \times P}{4096 \times 1120 \times nbh^3}, \quad \text{whence} \quad f = \frac{Pl^3}{5,527,133};$$

f corresponds with Reuleaux's formula for deflection if in the latter we $E = 83,162,800$.

$$s = \frac{P}{1120} = \frac{256nbh^3}{11.3 \times 2l}, \quad \text{whence} \quad P = \frac{12,687nbh^3}{l},$$

s corresponds with Reuleaux's formula for working load when S in the latter is taken at 70,120.

The value of E is usually taken at 30,000,000 and S at 80,000, in which case Reuleaux's formulæ become

$$P = \frac{13,313nbh^3}{l} \quad \text{and} \quad f = \frac{Pl^3}{5,000,000nbh^3}.$$

Helical Steel Springs.—Clark quotes the following from the report of the *Steam Valves* (Trans. Inst. Engrs. and Shipbuilders in Scotland, 1854-55):

$$E = \frac{d^3 \times 10}{D^4 \times C},$$

E = compression or extension of one coil in inches,
 d = diameter from centre to centre of steel bar constituting the coil in inches,
 w = weight applied, in pounds,
 D = diameter, or side of the square, of the steel bar, in sixteenths of an inch,
 C = a constant, which may be taken as 22 for round steel and 16 for square steel.

NOTE.—The deflection E for one coil is to be multiplied by the number of free coils, to obtain the total deflection for a given spring.

The relation between the safe load, size of steel, and diameter of coil to be taken for practical purposes as follows:

$$D = \sqrt[3]{\frac{wd}{C}}, \text{ for round steel;}$$

$$D = \sqrt[3]{\frac{wd}{4.39C}}, \text{ for square steel.}$$

Rankine's Machinery and Millwork, p. 300, gives the following:

$$\frac{W}{u} = \frac{cd^3}{64nr^3}; \quad W_1 = \frac{.196fd^3}{r}; \quad v_1 = \frac{12,566nfr^3}{cd};$$

$$\frac{W_1}{2} = \text{greatest safe sudden load.}$$

In which d is the diameter of wire in inches; c a co-efficient of transverse elasticity of wire, say 10,500,000 to 12,000,000 for charcoal iron wire and 11,000,000 for steel wire; r radius to centre of wire in coil; n effective number of coils; f greatest shearing stress, say 30,000; W any load not exceeding greatest safe load; u corresponding extension or compression; W_1 greatest safe load; v_1 greatest safe steady extension or compression.

If the wire is square, of the dimensions $d \times d$, the load for a given deflection is greater than for a round wire of the diameter d in the ratio of 1.96 or of 1.43 to 1, or of 10 to 7, nearly.

Wilson Hartnell (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1889, p. 426), says: The size of a spring may be calculated from the formula on page 304 of "Rankine's Practical Rules and Tables"; but the experience with Salter's springs leads to the conclusion that the safe limit of stress is more than twice as great as there is in the formula, namely 60,000 to 70,000 lbs. per square inch of section with $\frac{3}{8}$ inch wire, and 50,000 with $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wire. Hence the work that can be done by springs of wire is four or five times as great as Rankine allows.

For $\frac{3}{8}$ inch wire and under,

$$\text{Maximum load in lbs.} = \frac{12,000 \times (\text{diam. of wire})^3}{\text{Mean radius of springs}};$$

$$\text{Weight in lbs. to deflect spring 1 in.} = \frac{180,000 \times (\text{diam. of wire})^3}{\text{Number of coils} \times (\text{rad. of spring})};$$

The work in foot-pounds that can be stored up in a spiral spring is 1 ft. lift if above 50 ft.

In a few rough experiments made with Salter's springs the comparative rigidity was noticed to be 12,500,000 to 13,700,000 with $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wire, 11,000,000 for $\frac{3}{8}$ inch, and 10,500,000 to 10,900,000 for $\frac{5}{8}$ inch wire.

Helical Springs.—J. Bognrup, in the *American Machinist* (Vol. 18, 1892), gives formulas for the deflection and carrying capacity of springs of round and square steel, as follow:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} W &= .8987 \frac{Sd^3}{D - d^3} \\ F &= 8 \frac{F_1 D - d^3}{D^2 d^3} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ for round steel,}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} W &= .471 \frac{Sd^3}{D - d^3} \\ F &= 4.712 \frac{F_1 D - d^3}{D^2 d^3} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ for square steel.}$$

W = carrying capacity in pounds,
 S = greatest tensile stress per square inch of material,
 d = diameter of steel,
 D = outside diameter of coil,
 F = deflection of one coil,
 E = torsional modulus of elasticity,
 P = load in pounds.

These formulas the following table has been calculated by Mr. Begg. A spring being made of an elastic material, and of such shape as to great amount of deflection, will not be affected by sudden shocks or to the same extent as a rigid body, and a factor of safety very much in for rigid constructions may be used.

HOW TO USE THE TABLE.

In designing a spring for continuous work, as a car spring, use a factor of safety than in the table; for intermittent working, as in an engine governor or safety valve, use figures given in table; for the engine multiply line W by 1.2 and line F by .59.

Example 1.—How much will a spring of $\frac{1}{2}$ " round steel and 3" outside diameter carry with safety? In the line headed D we find 3, and right under 473, which is the weight it will carry with safety. How many coils will this spring have so as to deflect 3" with a load of 400 pounds? Assume modulus of elasticity of 12 millions we find in the centre line headed E , .0610; this is deflection of one coil for a load of 100 pounds; $.0610 \times 4 = .244$ " is deflection of one coil for 400 pounds load, and $3 \div .244 = 12.25$ is the number of coils wanted. This spring will therefore be 12.25 coils when closed, counting working coils only, and stretch to $3\frac{3}{4}$ ".

Example 2.—A spring $3\frac{1}{2}$ " outside diameter of $\frac{7}{16}$ " steel is wound close; how can it be extended without exceeding the limit of safety? We assume safe load for this spring to be 702 pounds, and deflection of 1" for 100 pounds load .0405 inches; therefore $7.02 \times .0405 = .284$ " is the admissible opening between coils. We may thus, without knowledge, ascertain whether a spring is overloaded or not.

Carrying Capacity and Deflection of Helical Springs of Round Steel.

Diameter of steel, D = outside diameter of coil. W = safe working pounds—tensile stress not exceeding 60,000 pounds per square inch. Deflection by a load of 100 pounds of one coil, and a modulus of elasticity of 12 and 14 millions respectively. The ultimate carrying capacity about twice the safe load.

.25	.50	.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00		
35	15	9	7	5	4.5	3.8	3.3		
.0276	.3588	1.493	3.562	7.250	12.88	20.85	31.57		
.0232	.3075	1.228	3.053	6.211	11.04	17.97	27.06		
.0197	.2502	1.023	2.544	5.178	9.200	14.89	22.55		
50	75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	
107	65	46	36	30	25	22	19	17	
.0296	.0937	.2556	.5412	.9856	1.624	2.492	3.635	5.056	
.0176	.0804	.2191	.4639	.8418	1.392	2.195	3.107	4.334	
.0147	.0670	.182	.3866	.7040	1.160	1.780	2.689	3.612	
75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00
241	167	123	104	88	75	66	59	53	49
.0137	.0408	.0907	.1703	.2800	.4166	.5671	.7249	.1.250	1.660
.0114	.0330	.0778	.1460	.2457	.3829	.5332	.7028	1.077	1.423
.0099	.0292	.0648	.1217	.2048	.3190	.4693	.6607	.8975	1.186
1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
368	291	245	210	181	161	147	131	123	113
.0090	.0389	.0872	.1607	.2593	.3870	.5360	.7130	.9178	1.150
.0071	.0303	.0670	.1264	.2065	.3044	.4295	.5858	.7787	1.007
.0062	.0277	.0580	.1082	.1737	.2610	.3621	.4957	.6657	.8729

Carrying Capacity and Deflection of Helical Springs of Round Steel.—(Continued).

$d = \frac{1}{16}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	605	500	426	371	329	295	267	243	226
	F	.0139	.0242	.0392	.0593	.0854	.1187	.1583	.2066	.2640
$d = \frac{1}{8}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	785	650	539	458	393	343	308	288	268
	F	.0109	.0209	.0377	.0588	.0811	.1063	.1360	.1713	.2134
$d = \frac{3}{16}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	1019	850	709	598	508	438	388	348	313
	F	.0085	.0175	.0313	.0482	.0663	.0854	.1056	.1269	.1493
$d = \frac{1}{2}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	1269	1050	889	758	648	558	488	428	383
	F	.0069	.0145	.0259	.0408	.0571	.0739	.0913	.1093	.1279
$d = \frac{5}{8}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	1539	1250	1059	908	778	668	578	508	448
	F	.0055	.0115	.0209	.0338	.0481	.0629	.0783	.0943	.1109
$d = \frac{3}{4}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	1819	1450	1229	1038	888	768	668	588	513
	F	.0045	.0095	.0175	.0288	.0401	.0519	.0643	.0773	.0909
$d = \frac{7}{8}''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	2109	1650	1399	1178	1008	868	748	648	563
	F	.0035	.0075	.0145	.0248	.0341	.0439	.0543	.0653	.0769
$d = 1''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	2409	1850	1559	1308	1118	958	818	708	613
	F	.0025	.0055	.0115	.0208	.0281	.0359	.0443	.0533	.0629

The formulae for deflection or compression given by Clark, Heisterkamp, although very different in form, show a substantial agreement with the above when the same form. Let d = diameter of wire in inches, n the number of coils, w the applied weight, then

Compression or extension of one coil = $\frac{wD_1^3}{Cd^4}$;

or in pounds to cause comp. or ext. of 1 in. = $\frac{Cd^4}{nD_1^3}$;

Coefficient C reduced from Hartnell's formula is $8 \times 180,000 = 1,440,000$; to Clark, $10^4 \times 22 = 1,411,702$, and according to Begtrup (using for the torsional modulus of elasticity) = $12,000,000 \div 8 = 1,500,000$.

The formula for greatest safe extension, $v_1 = \frac{12,566nf_1^2}{cd}$ may take

$C_1 = \frac{7854nD_1^3}{100d}$ if we use 30,000 and 12,000,000 as the values for f respectively.

These formulae for safe load given above may be thus compared, d = diameter of wire, and D_1 = mean diameter of coil, Rankine, $\frac{W}{D_1^3}$; Clark, $W = \frac{3d \times 10^6}{D_1^3}$; Begtrup, $W = \frac{89278d^3}{D_1^3}$; Hartnell,

$\frac{W}{D_1^3}$. Substituting for f the value 30,000 given by Rankine, and for

as given by Begtrup, we have $W = 11,760 \frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ Rankine; $12,388 \frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$

for $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ Begtrup; 24,000 $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ Hartnell.

From the Pennsylvania Railroad specifications the capacity when the following springs, in which d = diameter of wire, D diameter of coil, $D_1 = D - d$, c capacity, H height when free, and h height ad, all in inches.

$d = \frac{1}{4}$	$D = 1\frac{1}{4}$	$D_1 = 1\frac{1}{4}$	$c = 400$	$H = 9$	$h = 6$
$\frac{3}{4}$	3	$2\frac{1}{2}$	1,900	8	5
$\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$	5	2,100	7	$4\frac{1}{4}$
1	5	4	8,100	$10\frac{1}{4}$	8
$1\frac{1}{4}$	8	$6\frac{3}{4}$	10,000	9	$5\frac{3}{4}$
$1\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	18,000	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{3}{4}$

Substituting the values of c in the formula $c = W \times \frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ we find x , the

of $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ to be respectively 32,000; 38,000; 32,400; 24,888; 34,560; range 34,000.

18,000 as the coefficient of $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ according to Rankine and Clark for and 24,000 as the coefficient according to Begtrup and Hartnell, for the safe load on these springs, as we take one or the other co-

	T .	S .	K .	D .	I .	C .
and Clark.....	150	600	1,012	3,000	3,750	5,400 lbs.
.....	500	1,200	2,024	6,000	7,500	10,800 "
when closed, as above	400	1,900	2,100	8,100	10,000	16,000 "

load (Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 173) gives the following:

$$P = \frac{Snd^3}{16R} \quad \text{and} \quad f = \frac{32PR^3}{Gnd^4};$$

P = load on spring;

S = maximum shearing fibre-strain in bar;

d = diameter of steel of which spring is made;

R = radius of centre of coil;

l = length of bar before coiling;

G = modulus of shearing elasticity;

f = deflection of spring under load.

and takes $S = 80,000$ and $G = 12,000,000$.

in a helical spring is almost wholly one of torsion. For the formulae for springs from torsional formula see Mr. Bly's quoted.

ELLIPTICAL SPRINGS, SIZES, AND PROOF TEST Pennsylvania Railroad Specifications, 1889.

Class.	Length betw'n centres, in.	Width over all, inches.	Bands, inches.	Width of plates, inches.	Tests.	
					To stand ins. High.	With Load of lbs.
A, Triple.....	40	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ between bands. 3 " " " 2 " " " 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ " " " 3 " " " 2 " " " 4 " " " 3 " " "	4800 5500 A. p. t. 6650 8000 A. p. t. 6000 8000
C, Quadruple..	40	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3	5 bet. centre of eye and top of leaf. 3 " " " 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ between bands. 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	When test 11,400 When test 8000 5400 6000
D, Triple.....	36	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3	3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	When test 11,400 When test 8000 5400 6000
E, Single... ..	40	sin.	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3 x 11/32	3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	When test 11,400 When test 8000 5400 6000
F, Triple.....	36	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3 x 11/32	3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	When test 11,400 When test 8000 5400 6000
G, Double.....	32	7 $\frac{3}{8}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3	3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	When test 11,400 When test 8000 5400 6000
H, Double.....	36	9 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	4	3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	When test 11,400 When test 8000 5400 6000
K, { Double, { 6 plates {	22	10 $\frac{3}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x $\frac{3}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 11/32	13/16 " " " 4 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	13,600 8000 10,000 A p. t.
L, { Double, { 7 plates {	22	10 $\frac{3}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x $\frac{3}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 11/32	13/16 " " " 4 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	15,600 8000 10,000 A p. t.
M, Quadruple..	40	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	3 x $\frac{3}{8}$	3	4 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " " 3 " " "	10,000 A p. t.

* A. p. t., auxiliary plates touching.

PHOSPHOR-BRONZE SPRINGS.

Wilfred Lewis (Engineers' Club, Philadelphia, 1885) made some tests with phosphor-bronze wire, .12 in. diameter, coiled in the form of a spiral spring, 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ in. diameter from centre to centre, making 52 coils.

This spring was loaded gradually up to a tension of 30 lbs., but as the load was removed it became evident that a permanent set had taken place. Such a spring of steel, according to the practice of the P. R. R., might be used for 40 lbs. A weight of 21 lbs. was then suspended so as to cause a small amount of vibration, and the length measured from day to day. In 24 hours the spring lengthened from 30 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches to 21 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches, and in 24 hours to 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches. It was concluded that 21 lbs. was too great for durability; that probably 10 lbs. was as much as could be depended upon with safety.

For a given load the extension of the bronze spring was just double that of a similar steel spring, that is, for the same extension the bronze spring is twice as strong.

SPRINGS TO RESIST TORSIONAL FORCE.

(Reuleaux's Constructor.)

Flat spiral or helical spring...	$P = \frac{S b l^3}{6 R^3}$	$f = R \phi = 12 \frac{F R^2}{E b l^3}$
Round helical spring	$P = \frac{8 \pi d^3}{32 R^3}$	$f = R \phi = \frac{64 P R^2}{\pi E d^3}$
Round bar, in torsion.....	$P = \frac{8 \pi d^3}{16 R^3}$	$f = R \phi = \frac{32 P R^2}{\pi G d^3}$
Flat bar, in torsion.....	$P = \frac{S}{3 R} \frac{b^3 h^3}{4 b^3 + h^3}$	$f = R \phi = \frac{3 P R^2}{G} \frac{4 b^3 + h^3}{b^3 h^3}$

P = force applied at end of radius or lever-arm R ; ϕ = angular motion of radius R ; S = permissible maximum stress, = 1.5 of proof stress in flexure; F = modulus of elasticity in tension; G = torsional modulus = $2.5 E$; l = developed length of spiral, or length of bar, d = diameter; b = breadth of flat bar; h = thickness.

Diameter.	Length.	Length after forming.	Weight.		Placm. out side of coil.	Height.		Capacity.	Capacity, partly closed.
			Normal.	Minimum.		Free.	Closed.		
inches.	inches.	inches.	lbs.	lbs.	inches.	inches.	inches.	lbs.	lbs. at height.
9/64	57 1/4	57 1/4	14	7 3/32	1	2 3/4	3	180	110 at 9 1/4 in.
3/16	25 1/4	25 1/4	14	7 1/16	1	2 3/4	1 1/2	240	170 at 0
11/64	75	75	14	1 9/16	1 1/4	3	0	270	500 at 6 1/2
1/4	94 1/4	94 1/4	11 1/2	9 1/16	1 1/4	5 1/2	0	400	
5/16	113 1/4	113 1/4	4 1/2		3	8 1/2	3 3/8	500	
3/8	140 1/4	140 1/4	11	10 5/8	5 3/4	7	5	7,000	1,500 at 0
7/16	165 1/4	165 1/4	10 1/2	18	6	8	11 1/4	2,000	1,300 at 5 1/2
1	185 1/4	185 1/4	22	21 1/2	5 1/4	8 1/2	6	6,000	3,000 at 0
1 1/16	205 1/4	205 1/4	33 1/2	32 1/4	5	10 1/2	8	7,500	4,000 at 7
1 1/8	225 1/4	225 1/4	45 1/2	44 1/4	4	9	5 1/2	10,000	4,000 at 7 1/2
1 1/4	245 1/4	245 1/4	60 1/2	59 1/4	3 1/2	8 1/2	3 3/8	10,000	6,000 at 4
1 1/2	265 1/4	265 1/4	80 1/2	79 1/4	3	9	6	11,000	6,000 at 7 1/4
1 3/8	285 1/4	285 1/4	100 1/2	99 1/4	2 3/4	8 1/2	4 1/2	13,000	6,000 at 4 1/2
1 5/16	305 1/4	305 1/4	120 1/2	119 1/4	2 1/2	9	6	14,000	6,800 at 7 1/2
1 3/4	325 1/4	325 1/4	140 1/2	139 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	5 1/2	16,000	7,000 at 7
1 7/8	345 1/4	345 1/4	160 1/2	159 1/4	2 1/4	8	5 1/2	18,000	7,000 at 7 1/4
2	365 1/4	365 1/4	180 1/2	179 1/4	2 1/4	8	0	19,000	7,000 at 7 1/4
2 1/8	385 1/4	385 1/4	200 1/2	199 1/4	2 1/4	8	4 1/2	19,000	7,000 at 5 7/16
2 1/4	405 1/4	405 1/4	220 1/2	219 1/4	2 1/4	8	3 3/8	28,000	13,000 at 4 1/2
2 3/8	425 1/4	425 1/4	240 1/2	239 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	28,000	13,000 at 5 1/2
2 1/2	445 1/4	445 1/4	260 1/2	259 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	16,700 at 5 1/2
2 5/8	465 1/4	465 1/4	280 1/2	279 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 5 27/32
2 3/4	485 1/4	485 1/4	300 1/2	299 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
2 7/8	505 1/4	505 1/4	320 1/2	319 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3	525 1/4	525 1/4	340 1/2	339 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 1/8	545 1/4	545 1/4	360 1/2	359 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 1/4	565 1/4	565 1/4	380 1/2	379 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 3/8	585 1/4	585 1/4	400 1/2	399 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 1/2	605 1/4	605 1/4	420 1/2	419 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 5/8	625 1/4	625 1/4	440 1/2	439 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 3/4	645 1/4	645 1/4	460 1/2	459 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
3 7/8	665 1/4	665 1/4	480 1/2	479 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4	685 1/4	685 1/4	500 1/2	499 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 1/8	705 1/4	705 1/4	520 1/2	519 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 1/4	725 1/4	725 1/4	540 1/2	539 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 3/8	745 1/4	745 1/4	560 1/2	559 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 1/2	765 1/4	765 1/4	580 1/2	579 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 5/8	785 1/4	785 1/4	600 1/2	599 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 3/4	805 1/4	805 1/4	620 1/2	619 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
4 7/8	825 1/4	825 1/4	640 1/2	639 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5	845 1/4	845 1/4	660 1/2	659 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 1/8	865 1/4	865 1/4	680 1/2	679 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 1/4	885 1/4	885 1/4	700 1/2	699 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 3/8	905 1/4	905 1/4	720 1/2	719 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 1/2	925 1/4	925 1/4	740 1/2	739 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 5/8	945 1/4	945 1/4	760 1/2	759 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 3/4	965 1/4	965 1/4	780 1/2	779 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
5 7/8	985 1/4	985 1/4	800 1/2	799 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16
6	1005 1/4	1005 1/4	820 1/2	819 1/4	2 1/4	8 1/2	3 1/2	42,000	21,000 at 6 5/16

Springs B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z are made of two coils, one inside of the other.
Springs B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z are made of four equal coils placed near together and joined by top and bottom cap plates.

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RIVETED JOINTS.

Fairbairn's Experiments. (From Report of Committee on Riveted Joints, *Proc. Inst. M. E.*, April, 1881.)

The earliest published experiments on riveted joints are contained in a memoir by Sir W. Fairbairn in the Transactions of the Royal Society. Pressing the relative strength of riveted joints:

Solid plate.....	100
Double-riveted joint.....	70
Single-riveted joint.....	66

These well-known ratios are quoted in most treatises on riveting, and are still sometimes referred to as having a considerable authority. It is to be noted, however, that Sir W. Fairbairn does not appear to have been aware of the proportion of metal punched out in the line of fracture ought to be taken into properly designed double and single riveted joints. These ratios would therefore appear to rest on a very unsatisfactory and unscientific basis of the experiments on which they were based.

Loss of Strength in Punched Plates.—A report by Mr. Parker and Mr. John, made in 1878 to Lloyd's Committee, on the effect of punching and drilling, showed that thin steel plates lost comparatively little strength from punching, but that in thick plates the loss was very considerable. The following table gives the results for plates punched and not drilled or reamed:

Thickness of Plates.	Material of Plates.	Loss of Tenacity, per cent.
$\frac{1}{4}$	Steel	8
$\frac{3}{8}$	"	18
$\frac{1}{2}$	"	26
$\frac{3}{4}$	"	33
$\frac{7}{8}$	Iron	18 to 23

The effect of increasing the size of the hole in the die-block is shown in the following table:

Total Taper of Hole in Plate, inches.	Material of Plates.	Loss of Tenacity by Punching, per cent.
1-16	Steel	17.8
$\frac{1}{8}$	"	12.3
$\frac{1}{4}$	"	(Hole ragged) 24.5

The plates were from 0.675 to 0.712 inch thick. When $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. punch was reamed out to $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. diameter, the loss of tenacity disappeared, the plates carried as high a stress as drilled plates. Annealing also restored to punched plates their original tenacity.

Strength of Perforated Plates.

(P. D. Bennett, *Eng'g*, Feb. 12, 1886, p. 155.)

Tests were made to determine the relative effect produced upon the strength of a flat bar of iron or steel: 1. By a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch hole drilled to required size; 2, by a hole punched $\frac{1}{8}$ inch smaller and then drilled to size of the first hole; and, 3, by a hole punched in the bar to the size of the drilled bar. The relative results in strength per square inch of original area were as follows:

	1.	2.	3.
	Iron.	Iron.	Steel.
Unperforated bar.....	1.000	1.000	1.000
Perforated by drilling.....	1.029	1.012	1.063
" " punching and drilling.....	1.030	1.008	1.050
" " punching only.....	0.795	0.894	0.935

In tests 2 and 3 the holes were filled with rivets driven by hydraulic pressure. The strength per square inch caused by drilling is equal to that of the increased strength of a bar of sectional area equal to the smallest section in Bennett's tests on an iron bar 0.74 in. diameter.

and a similar bar turned to 0.84 in. diameter at one point only, showed the relative strength of the latter to the former was 1.323 to 1.000.

Riveted Joints.—Drilling versus Punching of Holes.

The Report of the Research Committee of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers on Riveted Joints (1881), and records of investigations by Prof. W. Kennedy (1881, 1882, and 1885), summarize the existing information regarding the comparative effects of punching and drilling upon iron and steel plates. From an examination of the voluminous tables given in Professor Unwin's Report, the results of the greatest number of the experiments made on iron and steel plates lead to the general conclusion that, in thin plates, even of steel, do not suffer very much from punching, yet those of $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch thickness and upwards the loss of tenacity due to punching ranges from 10% to 23% in iron plates, and from 11% to 33% in the case of steel. In drilled plates there is no appreciable loss of strength. It is due to remove the bad effects of punching by subsequent reaming or filing; but the speed at which work is turned out in these days is not amenable to multiplied operations, and such additional treatment is seldom used. The introduction of a practicable method of drilling the plating of ships and other structures, after it has been bent and shaped, is a matter of great importance. If even a portion of the deterioration of tenacity can be prevented, a much stronger structure results from the same material and same scantling. This has been fully recognized in the modern English practice (1887) of the construction of steam-boilers with steel plates; punching in such cases being almost entirely abolished, and all rivet-holes being drilled after the plates have been bent to the desired form.

Comparative Efficiency of Riveting done by Different Methods.

The Reports of Professors Unwin and Kennedy to the Institution of Mechanical Engineers (*Proc.* 1881, 1882, and 1885) tend to establish the four following points:

- That the shearing resistance of rivets is not highest in joints riveted by any of the greatest pressures;
 - That the ultimate strength of joints is not affected to an appreciable extent by the mode of riveting; and, therefore,
 - That very great pressure upon the rivets in riveting is not the indispensable requirement that it has been sometimes supposed to be;
 - That the most serious defect of hand riveted as compared with machine-work consists in the fact that in hand-riveted joints visible slip occurs at a comparatively small load, thus giving such joints a low resistance as regards tightness, and possibly also rendering them liable to failure on sudden strains after slip has once commenced.
- The following figures of mean results, taken from Prof. Kennedy's tables (*ibid.* 1885, pp. 218-225), give a comparative view of hand and hydraulic riveting, as regards their ultimate strengths in joints, and the periods at which in both cases visible slip commenced.

Total Breaking Load.		Load at which Visible Slip began.	
Hand-riveting.	Hydraulic Riveting.	Hand-riveting.	Hydraulic Riveting.
Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
36.01	85.75	21.7	47.6
	77.00	35.0
29.16	82.70	25.0	63.7
	78.68	64.0
169.2	145.5	31.7	49.7
	140.2	46.7
193.6	183.1	25.0	66.0
	183.7

These figures hand riveting appears to be rather better than hydraulic riveting as far as regards ultimate strength of joint; but is very much inferior to hydraulic work, in view of the small proportion of load borne before visible slip commenced.

Some of the Conclusions of the Committee of Experiments on Riveted Joints.

(Proc. Inst. M. E., Apr. 1885.)

The conclusions all refer to joints made in soft steel plate rivets, the holes all drilled, and the plates in their natural state. In every case the rivet or shearing area has been assumed to be the area of the holes, not the nominal (or real) area of the rivets themselves. The strength of the metal in the joint has been compared with that cut from the same plates, and not merely with nominally similar metal.

The metal between the rivet-holes has a considerably greater resistance per square inch than the unperforated metal. This excess amounted to more than 30%, both in $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates. The pitch of the rivet was about 1.9 diameters. In other cases $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plates gave an excess of 15% at fracture with a pitch of 2 diameters, of 10% with $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates, and of 6.5%, with a pitch of 3.9 diameters; and $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch plates gave 7.8% excess with a pitch of 2.8 diameters.

In single-riveted joints it may be taken that about 22 tons per square inch is the shearing resistance of rivet steel, when the pressure on the rivet does not exceed about 40 tons per square inch. In double-riveted joints of about $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch diameter, most of the experiments gave about 22 tons per square inch as the shearing resistance, but the joints in one case failed at 22 tons.

The ratio of shearing resistance to tenacity is not constant, but varies very markedly and not very irregularly as the tenacity increases.

The size of the rivet heads and ends plays a most important part in the strength of the joints—at any rate in the case of single-riveted joints. An increase of about one third in the weight of the rivets (all this, of course, going to the heads and ends) was found to add about 10% to the resistance of the joint, the plates remaining unbroken at the full resistance of 22 tons per square inch, instead of tearing at a stress of only a little over 20 tons. The additional strength is probably due to the prevention of the distortion of the plates by the great tensile stress on the rivets.

The intensity of bearing pressure on the rivet exercises, with joints of the ordinary way, a very important influence on the strength. So long as it does not exceed 40 tons per square inch (measured on the projected area of the rivets), it does not seem to affect their strength. Stresses of 50 to 55 tons per square inch seem to cause the rivets to fail in most cases at stresses varying from 16 to 18 tons per square inch in ordinary joints, which are to be made equally strong in plate and rivet. The bearing pressure should therefore probably not exceed 42 or 44 tons per square inch. For double-riveted butt-joints perhaps, as will be seen, a higher pressure may be allowed, as the shearing stress may be less than 22 tons per square inch when the plate tears.

A margin (or net distance from outside of holes to edge of plate) of 1.5 diameters of the drilled hole has been found sufficient in all cases.

To attain the maximum strength of a joint, the breadth of the plates must be such as to prevent it from breaking zigzag. It has been found that the metal measured zigzag should be from 30% to 35% in excess of that straight across, in order to insure a straight fracture. This corresponds to a diagonal pitch of $2.3p + d/3$, if p be the straight pitch and d the diameter of the rivet-hole.

Visible slip or "give" occurs always in a riveted joint at a stress much below its breaking load, and by no means proportional to the load. A collation of the results obtained in measuring the slip indicates that it depends upon the number and size of the rivets in the joint, rather than anything else; and that it is tolerably constant for a given size of joint of given type of joint. The loads per rivet at which a joint will show slip visibly are approximately as follows:

Diameter of Rivet.	Type of Joint.	Riveting.	Slipping Load per Rivet.
$\frac{3}{8}$ inch	Single-riveted	Hand	2.5 tons
$\frac{3}{8}$ "	Double-riveted	Hand	3.0 tons
$\frac{3}{8}$ "	Double-riveted	Machine	7.0 tons
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	Single-riveted	Hand	2.5 tons
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	Double-riveted	Hand	4.0 tons
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	Double-riveted	Machine	6.0 tons

The probable load at which a joint of any breadth will commence pulling the number of rivets in the given breadth by the proper factor from the last column of the table above. It will be understood that the above figures are not given as exact; but they represent very well the results of the experiments.

The experiments point to simple rules for the proportioning of joints of any strength. Assuming that a bearing pressure of 43 tons per square inch be allowed on the rivet, and that the excess tenacity of the plate be equal to the original strength, the following table gives the values of the ratios of diameter d of hole to thickness t of plate ($d + t$), and of pitch p to diameter ($p + d$) in joints of maximum strength in $\frac{7}{8}$ -inch plate.

For Single-riveted Plates.

Tensile of Plate.	Shearing Resistance of Rivets.		Ratio. $d + t$	Ratio. $p + d$	Ratio. Plate Area Rivet Area
Lbs. per sq. in.	Tons per sq. in.	Lbs. per sq. in.			
67,300	32	49,300	2.48	2.30	0.667
62,720	32	49,300	2.48	2.40	0.785
67,300	24	53,760	2.38	2.27	0.713
62,720	24	53,760	2.38	2.36	0.690

It shows that the diameter of the hole (not the diameter of the rivet) be $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the thickness of the plate, and the pitch of the rivets be 2 times the diameter of the hole. Also, it makes the mean plate area equal to the rivet area.

A smaller rivet be used than that here specified, the joint will not be of maximum strength; but with any other size of rivet the best result will be got by use of the pitch obtained from the formula

$$p = a \frac{d^2}{t} + d,$$

where, d is the diameter of the hole.

The value of the constant a in this equation is as follows:

For 30-ton plate and 22-ton rivets, $a = 0.534$
" 28 " " 22 " " 0.558
" 30 " " 24 " " 0.570
" 28 " " 24 " " 0.606

mean, the pitch $p = 0.56 \frac{d^2}{t} + d$.

It is noticed that with too small rivets this gives pitches often considerably smaller in proportion than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the diameter.

Double-riveted lap-joints. A similar calculation to that given above with a somewhat smaller allowance for excess tenacity, on the assumption of the large distance between the rivet-holes, shows that for joints of maximum strength the ratio of diameter to thickness should remain pretty much the same for single-riveted joints; while the ratio of pitch to diameter of hole is 3.34 for 30-ton plates and 22 or 24 ton rivets, and 3.82 for 28-ton plates and the same rivets.

Still more than in the former case, it is likely that the prescribed pitch may often be inconveniently large. In this case the diameter of hole should be taken as large as possible; and the strongest joint for a given thickness of plate and diameter of hole can then be obtained by using the equation

$$p = a \frac{d^2}{t} + d,$$

the values of the constant a for different strengths of plate and rivets be taken as follows:

Table of Proportions of Double-riveted Lap-joints.In which $p = \frac{d^2}{t} + d$.

Thickness of Plate.	Original tenacity of Plate, Tons per sq. in.	Shearing Resistance of Rivets, Tons per sq. in.	Value of Constant, a
$\frac{3}{16}$ inch	30	24	1.15
$\frac{3}{8}$ "	28	24	1.22
$\frac{7}{16}$ "	26	22	1.05
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	24	22	1.12
$\frac{5}{8}$ "	30	24	1.17
$\frac{3}{4}$ "	28	24	1.25
$\frac{7}{8}$ "	30	22	1.07
$\frac{15}{16}$ "	28	22	1.14

Practically, having assumed the rivet diameter as large as possible, we can fix the pitch as follows, for any thickness of plate from $\frac{3}{16}$ to $\frac{15}{16}$ inch:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For 30-ton plate and 24-ton rivets } \left\{ \begin{aligned} p &= 1.16 \frac{d^2}{t} + d; \\ p &= 1.06 \frac{d^2}{t} + d; \\ p &= 1.24 \frac{d^2}{t} + d \end{aligned} \right. \end{aligned}$$

In double-riveted butt-joints it is impossible to develop the shearing resistance of the joint without getting excessive bearing pressure, because the shearing area is doubled without increasing the area on which the pressure acts. Considering only the plate resistance and the bearing pressure, and taking this latter as 45 tons per square inch, the hole would be about 4 times the diameter of the hole. We may probably, with some certainty, that a pressure of from 15 to 50 tons per square inch the rivets will cause shearing to take place at from 16 to 18 tons per sq. inch. Working out the equations as before, but allowing excess strength only 5% on account of the large pitch, we find that the proportions of double-riveted butt-joints of maximum strength, under given conditions, are of the following table:

Double-riveted Butt-joints.

Original Tenacity of Plate, Tons per sq. in.	Shearing Resistance of Rivets, Tons per sq. in.	Bearing Pressure, Tons per sq. in.	Ratio $\frac{d}{t}$	Ratio $\frac{p}{d}$
30	16	45	1.80	3.83
28	16	45	1.80	4.06
30	18	48	1.70	4.01
28	18	48	1.70	4.27
30	16	50	2.00	4.20
28	16	50	2.00	4.47

Practically, therefore, it may be said that we get a double-riveted butt of maximum strength by making the diameter of hole about 1.8 times the thickness of the plate, and making the pitch 4.1 times the diameter of hole.

The proportions just given belong to joints of maximum strength in a boiler the one part of the joint, the plate, is much more affected by than the other part, the rivets. It is therefore not unreasonable to add the percentage by which the plates might be weakened by corrosion before the boiler would be unfit for use at its proper steam pressure, and add correspondingly to the plate area. Probably the best thing to do in case is to proportion the joint, not for the actual thickness of plate, but a nominal thickness less than the actual by the assumed percentage. In this case the joint will be approximately one of uniform strength, and one it has reached its final workable condition; up to which time the plates as a whole have been weakened, the corrosion only bringing it

plates down to that of rivets.

Efficiencies of Joints.

Large results of experiments by the committee gave: For double-lap joints in $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plates, efficiencies ranging from 61.1% to 81.2%. For riveted butt-joints (in double shear) 61.4% to 71.3%. These low results probably due to the use of very soft steel in the rivets. For single-lap joints of various dimensions the efficiencies varied from 51.5% to

Experiments showed that the shearing resistance of steel did not increase so fast as its tensile resistance. With very soft steel, for example, of only 26 tons tenacity, the shearing resistance was about 80% of the tensile resistance, whereas with very hard steel of 52 tons tenacity the shearing resistance was only somewhere about 65% of the tensile resistance.

Relations of Pitch and Overlap of Plates to Diameter of Rivet-Hole and Thickness of Plate.

(Prof. A. B. W. Kennedy, *Proc. Inst. M. E.*, April, 1885.)

- t = thickness of plate;
 d = diameter of rivet (actual) in parallel hole;
 p = pitch of rivets, centre to centre;
 s = space between lines of rivets;
 l = overlap of plate.

which is as wide as is allowable without impairing the tightness of the joint.

For single-riveted lap-joints in the circular seams of boilers which have riveted longitudinal lap-joints,

$$\begin{aligned} d &= t \times 2.25; \\ p &= d \times 2.25 = t \times 5 \text{ (nearly);} \\ l &= t \times 6. \end{aligned}$$

For double-riveted lap-joints:

$$\begin{aligned} d &= 2.25t; \\ p &= 8t; \\ s &= 4.5t; \\ l &= 10.5t. \end{aligned}$$

Single-riveted Joints.

d	p	l
7-16	15-16	$1\frac{1}{2}$
9-16	14	$1\frac{1}{2}$
11-16	12-16	$1\frac{3}{8}$
13-16	17	$2\frac{1}{4}$
1	2.3-16	$2\frac{3}{8}$
$1\frac{1}{2}$	24	3
$1\frac{3}{4}$	2-13-16	$3\frac{3}{8}$

Double-riveted Joints.

t	d	p	s	l
3-16	7-16	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2
$\frac{1}{2}$	9-16	2	1-3-16	$2\frac{3}{4}$
5-16	11-16	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	3	$1\frac{3}{4}$	4
7-16	1	$3\frac{3}{4}$	2	$4\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$
9-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$	$5\frac{3}{4}$

These proportions and good workmanship there need be no fear of leakage of steam through the riveted joint.

The diagonal area, or area of plate, along a zigzag line of fracture, should be less than 30% in excess of the net area straight across the joint.

Professor Cooper (*R. R. Gazette*, Aug. 22, 1890) referring to Prof. Kennedy's rule quoted above, gives as a sufficiently approximate rule for the pitch between the rows in staggered riveting, one half of the pitch of rivets in a row plus one quarter the diameter of a rivet-hole.

Excess in Strength of Perforated over Unperforated Plates. (*Proc. Inst. M. E.*, October, 1888.)

It is between the rivet-holes has a considerably greater tensile resistance per square inch than the unperforated metal. This excess tenacity is about more than 20%, both in $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates, when the rivets were about 1.9 diameters. In other cases $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plate gave an excess of 15% at fracture with a pitch of 2 diameters, of 10% with 1.5 diameters, and of 6.8% with a pitch of 3.9 diameters; and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plate gave an excess with a pitch of 2.8 diameters.

Length of Double-riveted Seams, Calculated.—W. B. E. Jr., in *Power* for June, 1891, gives tables of relative strength of riveted parts of sheet between rivets in double-riveted seams, compared with the shearing strength of shell, based on the assumption that the shearing strength of rivets and the tensile strength of steel are equal. The following figures are sizes in his tables which show the nearest approximation to equal strength of rivets and parts of plates between the rivets, together with a percentage of each relative to the strength of the solid plate.

Thick- ness of Rivets, inches.	Size of Rivet- holes, inches.	Percentage of Strength of Plate.		Thick- ness of Plate, inches.	Pitch of Rivets, inches.	Size of Rivet- holes, inches.	Percentage of Strength of Plate.	
		Rivets.	Plate.				Rivets.	Plate.
1/16	3/4	.739	.785	7/16	2 3/4	3/4	.734	.728
1/8	9/16	.795	.775	7/16	3 1/4	13/16	.758	.740
1/8	5/8	.785	.800	7/16	3 3/4	3/4	.758	.759
1/8	11/16	.819	.810	7/16	4 1/4	15/16	.765	.773
1/8	9/16	.749	.755	1/2	2 1/2	3/4	.707	.700
1/8	5/8	.746	.762	1/2	2 3/4	13/16	.741	.718
1/8	11/16	.781	.780	1/2	3 1/4	3/4	.740	.731
1/8	3/4	.780	.793	1/2	3 3/4	15/16	.756	.750
1/8	5/8	.727	.722	1/2	4 1/4	1	.761	.758
1/8	11/16	.755	.738	9/16	2 1/2	13/16	.701	.690
1/8	3/4	.754	.760	9/16	3	3/4	.714	.708
1/8	5/8	.762	.776	9/16	3 1/4	15/16	.727	.722
1/8	3/4	.777	.788	9/16	3 3/4	1	.745	.733
1/8	11/16	.714	.711	9/16	4 1/4	1 1/16	.742	.750

R. Parsons (*Am. Engr. & R. R. Jour.*, 1893) holds that it is an error to assume that the shearing strength of the rivet is equal to the tensile strength. Referring to the apparent excess in strength of perforated over unperforated plates, he claims that on account of the difficulty in properly making rivet-holes, and of the stress caused by forcing, as is too often the case, this additional strength cannot be trusted much more than a fiction.

Using the sizes of iron rivets as generally used in American practice for plates from 1/4 to 1 inch thick: the tensile strength of the plates as compared with the shearing strength of the rivets as 40,000 for single-shear and 60,000 for double-shear. Mr. Parsons calculates the following table of relative strength of the rivets against shearing will be approximately equal to that of the plate to tear between rivet-holes. The diameter of rivets has in all cases been taken at 1/16 in. larger than the nominal diameter of the rivet is assumed to fill the hole under the power riveter.

Riveted Joints.

FOR BUTT WITH SINGLE WELD—STEEL PLATES AND IRON RIVETS.

Diameter of Rivets.	Pitch.		Efficiency.	
	Single.	Double.	Single.	Double.
1/16	1 in.	1 1/4 in.	55.7%	70.0%
1/8	1 3/16	2 1/16	52.7	68.6
3/16	1 11/16	2 3/4	49.0	65.9
1/2	2 1/16	3 7/16	43.0	60.4
3/4	2 3/8	3 5/8	42.0	59.5
1	2 7/8	4 1/8	38.0	55.4
1 1/8	3 1/16	4 5/8	38.1	

Calculated Efficiencies—Steel Plates and Steel Rivets.

The differences between the calculated efficiencies given in the table above are notable. Those given by Mr. Ruggles are probably too high, as he assumes the shearing strength of the rivets equal to the tensile strength of the plates. Those given by Mr. Parsons are probably lower than obtained in practice, since the figure he adopts for shearing strength is rather low, and he makes no allowance for excess of strength of rivets over the unperforated plate. The following table has been prepared by the author on the assumptions that the excess strength of the rivets is 10%, and that the shearing strength of the rivets per square inch is four fifths of the tensile strength of the plate. If t = thickness of plate, d = diameter of rivet-hole, p = pitch, and T = tensile strength of plate, then for single-riveted plates

$$(p - d)t \times 1.10T = \frac{\pi}{4}d^2 \times \frac{4}{3}T, \text{ whence } p = .571 \frac{d^2}{t} + d.$$

$$\text{For double-riveted plates, } p = 1.142 \frac{d^2}{t} + d.$$

The coefficients .571 and 1.142 agree closely with the averages given in the report of the committee of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, quoted on pages 357 and 358, *ante*.

Thickness.	Diam. of Rivet-hole.	Pitch.		Efficiency.		Thickness.	Diam. of Rivet-hole.	Pitch.	
		Single Riveting.	Double Riveting.	Single Riveting.	Double Riveting.			Single Riveting.	Double Riveting.
in.	in.	in.	in.	%	%	in.	in.	in.	in.
3/16	7/16	1.030	1.609	57.1	72.7	1/8	3/8	1.292	2.071
"	1/2	1.261	2.031	60.5	75.3	"	1/2	1.540	2.626
"	5/8	1.671	2.642	61.9	69.6	"	3/4	2.142	3.781
"	9/16	1.285	2.008	56.2	72.0	1/2	1/2	2.570	4.016
5/16	9/16	1.187	1.712	50.5	67.1	3/16	3/4	1.321	1.846
"	5/8	1.339	2.053	53.3	69.5	"	5/8	1.652	2.426
"	11/16	1.551	2.415	55.7	71.5	"	1	2.015	3.030
"	5/8	1.218	1.810	48.7	65.5	"	1 1/4	2.410	3.694
"	3/4	1.607	2.461	53.3	69.5	"	1 1/2	2.836	4.421
"	7/8	2.011	3.206	57.1	72.7	5/8	3/4	1.261	1.778
7/16	5/8	1.130	1.647	45.0	62.0	"	1	1.575	2.371
"	3/4	1.444	2.218	49.5	66.2	"	1 1/4	1.914	2.867
"	7/8	1.889	2.861	53.2	69.4	"	1 1/2	2.281	3.418
"	1	2.305	3.610	56.6	72.3	"	1 3/4	2.678	4.165

Riveting Pressure Required for Bridge and Heavy Work.

(Wilfred Lewis, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, Nov. 1900.)

A number of 3/8-inch rivets were subjected to pressures between 10,000 lbs. At 10,000 lbs. the rivet swelled and filled the hole without a head. At 30,000 lbs. the head was formed and the plates were pinched. At 30,000 lbs. the rivet was well set. At 40,000 lbs. the plate surrounding the rivet began to stretch, and the stretching more and more apparent as the pressure was increased to 50,000 lbs. From these experiments the conclusion might be drawn that the pressure required for cold riveting was about 300,000 lbs. per square inch section. In hot riveting, until recently there was never any cold set exceeding 60,000 lbs., but now pressures as high as 150,000 lbs. are common, and even 200,000 lbs. have been contemplated as desirable.

Shearing Resistance of Rivet Iron and Steel.

 (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1879, *Engineering*, Feb. 20, 1880.)

The shearing resistance of the rivets cannot be ascertained from riveted joints (1), because the uniform distribution of the stress on the rivets cannot be insured; (2) because of the friction of the rivets which has the effect of increasing the apparent resistance to shear-ment uncertain in amount. Probably in the case of single-riveted joints the shearing resistance is not much affected by the friction;

Ultimate Shearing Stress			
	Tons per sq. in.	Lbs. per sq. in.	
shear (12 bars)...	24.15	54,006	Clarke.
shear (8 bars)...	24.10	49,504	
" "	21.62	50,660	
" "	22.30	49,662	Barnaby.
rivets.....	23.05 to 25.57	51,632 to 57,277	Rankine.
rivets.....	24.82 to 27.94	54,477 to 62,362	
mean value.....	25.0	56,000	Riley.
rivets.....	19.01	42,582	Greig and Eyth.
" "	17 to 30	38,080 to 58,240	
1/2-in. rivets...	31.07 to 33.69	70,941 to 75,466	Parker.
3/4-in. rivets...	30.45 to 35.73	68,508 to 80,085	
mean value...	33.3	74,592	Riley.
" "	22.18	49,689	Greig and Eyth.

The experiments show that a rivet is 61% weaker in a drilled than in a punched hole. By rounding the edge of the rivet-hole the apparent resistance is increased 12%. Mr. Maynard found the rivets in drilled holes to be 45% stronger than in punched holes. But these results were obtained from riveted joints, and not by direct experiments on shearing. It is a great deal of difficulty in determining the true diameter of a rivet, and it is doubtful whether in these experiments the diameter was accurately ascertained. Messrs. Greig and Eyth's experiments show a greater resistance of the rivets in punched holes than in drilled holes.

As shown above, the apparent shearing resistance is less for double shear than for single shear. It is probably due to unequal distribution of the stress on the rivet sections.

The shearing resistance of a bar, when sheared in circumstances which are similar to those of a rivet, is usually less than the tenacity of the bar. The following table shows the decrease:

	Tenacity of Bar.	Shearing Resistance.	Ratio.
iron.....	20.4	16.5	0.62
steel.....	25.4	20.2	0.79
Eyth, iron...	22.2	19.0	0.85
" steel...	28.8	22.1	0.77

Mr. Greig's researches (in 1870) the shearing strength of iron was found to be 60% of the tenacity. Later researches of Bauschinger confirm this generally, but they show that for iron the ratio of the shearing resistance to the tenacity depends on the direction of the stress relatively to the direction of rolling. The above ratio is valid only if the shear is in a direction perpendicular to the direction of rolling, and if the tension is applied in the direction of rolling. The shearing resistance in a plane perpendicular to the direction of rolling is different from that in a plane parallel to that direction, and again differs according as the plane of shear is perpendicular or parallel to the breadth of the bar. In the former case the resistance is 18 to 20% greater than in a plane perpendicular to the fibres, or the tenacity. In the latter case it is only half as great as in a plane perpendicular to the fibres.

IRON AND STEEL.

CLASSIFICATION OF IRON AND STEEL

CLASSIFICATION OF IRON AND STEEL:

(W. Kent, *Railroad & Engineering Journal*, April, 1887.)

Generic Term.	IRON.			
How Obtained.	CAST. Or obtained from a fluid mass.	FROUGHT. Or welded from a pasty mass.		
Distinguishing Quality.	Non-malleable.	Malleable.	Will Not Harden.	Will Harden.
Species.	CAST IRON.		(7) WROUGHT IRON.	
Varieties.	(1) Ordinary castings.	(2) Malleable cast iron, obtained from No. 1 by annealing in oxide.	(8*) WROUGHT STEEL.	
		(3) Crucible, and (4) Bessemer, (5) Open-hearth steels, (6) Mils.	a. Obtained by direct process from ore, as Catalan, Clenot, and other process irons. b. Obtained by indirect process from cast iron, as fluey-hearth and puddled irons.	

* No. 6. This is the name given to a new product (having the same general properties and produced by the same process as soft cast steels) made by melting an alloy of aluminum to melted wrought iron or soft steel before pouring.

Sub-varieties of Nos. 3, 4, and 5, *poor*, *mild*, *medium*, and *hard* steels, according to percentage of carbon, the different

CAST IRON.

Use of Pig Iron. Pig iron is naturally graded according to its number of carbon, varying in different countries. In England the principal grades recognized are known as No. 1 and 2 gray large or No. 1 and 2, and No. 1 and 2, and No. 3. Intermediate grades are sometimes made as No. 2 L, between No. 1 and No. 2. Numbers are given to these more or less arbitrarily, and No. 1 is very gray, and soft (the term being used in the sense of malleability, but the quality is not different from the corresponding iron-threads and cast-iron). Southern cast-iron is generally harder than that of the north, and is a finer, more homogeneous material, of the same kind from all farms, are not so hard, but are more variable in determining quality of iron produced in different sections or parts of the country, and are not so hard as the latter than in the former method. The following apparatus of the five standard northern foundries and their per cent are given by J. N. Hartman (N. A., Feb., 1902):

	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5	No. 6
Carbon.....	2.75	2.50	2.25	2.00	1.75	1.50
and carbon.....	1.00	.75	.50	.25	.00	.00
.....	2.44	2.25	2.00	1.75	1.50	1.25
.....	1.25	1.00	.75	.50	.25	.00
.....	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
.....	.25	.25	.25	.25	.25	.25

CHARACTERISTICS OF IRON IRON.

1st.—A large, dark, coarse-grained iron, without all the features of the iron-iron. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

2nd.—A hard, large, and small, dark, hard, harder than No. 1 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

3rd.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 2 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

4th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 3 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

5th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 4 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

6th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 5 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

7th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 6 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

8th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 7 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

9th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 8 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

10th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 9 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

11th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 10 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

12th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 11 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

13th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 12 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

14th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 13 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

15th.—A hard, gray, coarse-grained, harder than No. 14 iron, and is very hard. The iron-iron is very hard, and is very hard.

iron. Carbon mechanically mixed with the iron as graphite is ting in color from gray to black, while the fracture of the iron is light to a very dark gray.

Silicon will expel carbon, if the iron, when melted, contains more than that it can hold and a portion of silicon be added.

Prof. Turner concludes from his tests that the amount of silicon the maximum strength is about 1.80%. But this is only true when a base is used. If an iron is used as a base which will produce a weak casting to begin with, each addition of silicon will decrease strength. Silicon is a weakening agent. Variations in the percentage of silicon added to iron will not insure a given strength or physical structure, but will depend upon the physical properties of the original iron.

After enough silicon has been added to cause solid castings, the addition and consequent increase of graphite weakens the casting, softness and strength given to castings by a suitable addition of silicon, by a further increase of silicon, changed to stiffness, brittleness and weakness.

As strength decreases from increase of graphite and decrease of carbon, deflection increases; or, in other words, bending is increased by graphite. When no more graphite can form and silicon still is added, deflection diminishes, showing that high silicon not only weakens but makes it stiff. This stiffness is not the same strength-stiffness caused by compact iron and combined carbon. It is a brittle stiffness.

In pig irons which received their silicon while in the blast, the graphite more easily separates, and the shrinkage is less than in ordinary iron. As silicon increases, shrinkage also increases. Silicon increases shrinkage, though by reason of its action upon the carbonary practice it is truly said that silicon "takes the shrinkage out of iron." The slower a casting crystallizes, the greater will be the shrinkage of graphite formed within it.

Silicon of itself, however small the quantity present, hardens the iron, but the decrease of hardness from the change of the combined carbon to graphite, caused by the silicon, is so much more rapid than that produced by the increase of silicon, that the total effect is to decrease hardness, until the silicon reaches from 3 to 5%.

As practical foundry-work does not call for more than 3% of ordinary use of silicon does reduce the hardness of castings; but reduced through its influence on the carbon, and not its direct influence on the iron.

When the change from combined to graphite carbon has occurred, hardness, say at from 2% to 5% of silicon, the hardening by itself becomes more and more apparent as the silicon increases.

Shrinkage and hardness are almost exactly proportional. Silicon varies, and other elements do not vary materially, castings with silicon are soft; as shrinkage increases, the castings grow hard but not exactly, the same proportion. For ordinary foundry practice of shrinkage may be made also the scale of hardness, provided no sulphur, and phosphorus especially, are not present to complicate the result.

The term "chilling" irons is generally applied to such as, when cast, would be gray, but cooled suddenly, become white either to a sufficient extent for practical utilization (e.g., in car-wheels) or so far as to be brittle. Many irons chill more or less in contact with the cold sand in the mould in which they are cast, especially if they are thin. Such a quality is a valuable quality, but for general foundry purposes it is not desirable. Some have all parts of a casting an even gray.

Silicon exerts a powerful influence upon this property of iron, or entirely removing their capacity of chilling.

When silicon is mixed with irons previously low in silicon the tendency to chill is increased.

It is not the percentage of silicon, but the state of the casting, the action of silicon through other elements, which causes the iron to chill.

Silicon irons have always had the reputation of imparting fluidity to castings. This comes, no doubt, from the fact that up to 3% or 4% of silicon does not increase the quantity of graphite in the resulting casting.

From the statement of Prof. Turner, that the maximum strength of iron is obtained with 1.80% of silicon, and his statement that a casting of iron that he may need to be as strong as what he calls a typical foundry iron, is not a typical foundry iron.

silicon of itself is not a softener or a lessener of shrinkage; its influence on carbon, and only during a certain stage, does it effects.

While phosphorus of itself, in whatever quantity present, iron, yet in quantities less than 1.5% its influence is not sufficient to overbalance other beneficial effects, which are exerted when the percentage reaches 1%. Probably no element of itself weakens such as phosphorus, especially when present in large quantities, decreased when phosphorus is increased. All high-phosphorus iron low shrinkage. Phosphorus does not ordinarily harden cast iron for the reason that it does not increase combined carbon.

of the metal is slightly increased by phosphorus, but not to the extent as has been ascribed to it.

of remaining long in the fluid state must not be confounded for it is not the measure of its ability to make sharp castings, the very thin parts of a mould. Generally speaking, the statement that, to some extent, phosphorus prolongs the fluidity of it is filling the mould.

with iron contained about 1% of phosphorus. The foundry-irons sought for for small and thin castings in the Eastern States contain, as a general thing, over 1% of phosphorus.

which contain from 4% to 7% silicon have been so much used for their ability to soften other irons that they have come to be known as "softeners" and as lesseners of shrinkage. These irons are valuable for silicon; but the irons which are sold most as softeners and lesseners are those containing from 1% to 2% of phosphorus. Therefore ascribe the reputation of some of them largely to the phosphorus and not wholly to the silicon which they contain.

1% of phosphorus will do all that can be done in a beneficial way above that amount weakens the iron, without corresponding increase in strength. It is not necessary to search for phosphorus-irons. Most irons contain more than is needed, and the care should be to keep it within limits. Only a small percentage of sulphur can be made to remain in iron, and it is difficult to introduce sulphur into gray cast iron or carbonized iron, although gray cast iron often takes from the furnace more sulphur as the iron originally contained. Percentages of sulphur could be retained by gray cast iron cannot materially injure it through an increase of shrinkage. The higher the carbon, the higher the silicon, the smaller will be the influence exerted by

the presence of sulphur on all cast iron is to drive out carbon and to produce a harder metal, and as a general thing, to

tained than when no sulphur is present. Thus, in some tests quoted by R. Akerman, it is stated that in the foundry-iron from used in the manufacture of cannons, a percentage of 0.15 to 0.31 of the iron increased its strength to a considerable extent. The of sulphur found originally in the iron put in the cupola is further increased by part of the sulphur that is invariably found in the coke. It is seldom that a coke with a small percentage of sulphur, whereas coke containing 1% of it and over is very common. The fuel in the cupola, if no special precautions are resorted to, the of sulphur in the metal will in most cases be increased.

That the sulphur contents of pig iron may be increased by contained in the coke used, is shown by some experiments reported by Mr. Nau. Seven consecutive heats were made.

The sulphur content of the coke was 1%, and 11.7% of fuel was charge.

Before melting, the silicon ranged from 0.320 to 0.830 in the iron; after melting, it was from 0.110 to 0.534, the loss in melting being to .575. The sulphur before melting was from .076 to .090, and after from .132 to .174, a gain from .041 to .098.

From the results the following conclusions were drawn:

1. In all the charges, without exception, sulphur increased in after its passage through the cupola. In some cases this loss than doubled the original amount of sulphur found in the pig iron.

2. The increase of the sulphur contents in the iron follows that of a greater amount of silicon from that same iron. A large limestone added to these charges would have produced a more and undoubtedly less sulphur would have been incorporated in.

3. This coke contained 1% of sulphur, and if all its sulphur had the iron there would have been an average increase of 0.12 of the seven charges, while the real increase in the pig iron amount .081. This shows that two thirds of the sulphur of the coke was by the iron in its passage through the cupola.

MANGANESE. Manganese is a nearly white metal, having a appearance when fractured as white cast iron. Its specific about 8, while that of white cast iron, reasonably free from iron but a little above 7.5. As produced commercially, it is combined with small percentages of silicon, phosphorus, and sulphur.

It is generally produced in the blast-furnace. If the manganese 40%, with the remainder mostly iron, and silicon not over 0.5%, called spiegel-eisen, and the fracture will show flat reflecting surface which it takes its name.

With manganese above 50%, the iron alloy is called ferro-manganese. As manganese increases beyond 50%, the mass cracks in cooling; it approaches 98% the mass crumbles or falls in small pieces.

Manganese combines with iron in almost any proportion, but containing manganese is remelted, more or less of the manganese by volatilization, and by oxidation with other elements present. If sulphur be present, some of the manganese will be likely to be and escape, thus reducing the amount of both elements in the iron.

Cast iron, when free from manganese, cannot hold more than .003, and 3.50% is as much as is generally present; but as manganese carbon also increases, until we often find it in spiegel-eisen as high as ferro-manganese as high as 8%. This effect on capacity to hold peculiar to manganese.

Manganese renders cast iron less plastic and more brittle. Manganese increases the shrinkage of cast iron. An increase the shrinkage 26%. Judging from some test records, manganese influence chill at all; but other tests show that with a given per silicon the carbon may be a little more inclined to remain in the form, and therefore the chill may be a little deeper. Hence, a chill to be the same, it would seem that the percentage of silicon a little higher with manganese than without it.

An increase of 1% of manganese increased the hardness 40% chill is required, manganese gives it by adding hardness to the iron.

J. B. Nau (*Iron Age*, March 29, 1894), discussing the influence of manganese on cast iron, says:

Manganese favors the combination between carbon and iron, and, when in sufficiently large quantities, is even greater than silicon, which would be naturally found in the iron.

reduces the capacity of iron to retain larger amounts of carbon in the combined state.

It is often used for foundry purposes when some chill and hardness is required in the casting. For the rolls of steel-rail cast into the mixture a large amount of manganiferous iron, obtained always presented the desired hardness of surface mottled structure on the outside. The inside, which cooled slower, was gray iron. One of the standard mixtures that produced good results was the following:

Gray iron with 1.3% silicon and 1.5% manganese;

Gray iron with 1% silicon and 1.5% manganese;

Steel-rail ends with about 0.35% to 0.40% carbon.

The pig from this mixture contained about 1% of silicon and 1%

of manganese, which differed but little from the preceding, was as

follows: Gray iron with about 1.3% silicon and 1.5% manganese;

Gray iron with about 1% silicon and 1.5% manganese;

Mottled iron with about 0.5% to 0.6% Si. and 1.2% Mn.

Steel-rail ends with about 0.35% to 0.40% C. and 0.6% to 1% Mn.

As the pig in the preceding mixtures contained also invariably

some phosphorus, so that the rolls obtained therefrom carried

some of that element. The last mixture used produced rolls

containing on average 0.8% to 1% of silicon and 1% of manganese. When

making those rolls from a mixture containing but 0.2% to 0.3%

of manganese the rolls were invariably of inferior quality, grayer, and con-

sequently softer. Manganese iron cannot be used indiscriminately for

castings. When greater softness is required in the castings man-

ganese iron can be used with advantage.

It increases the magnetism of the iron. This characteristic in-

crease in percentage of manganese that enters into the composition

of iron loses all its magnetism when manganese reaches 25%

of iron. This peculiarity has been made use of by French

foundrymen to draw a clear line between spiegel and ferro-manganese.

Spiegel contains less than 25% of manganese it is classified as spiegel.

Ferro-manganese contains more than 25% it is classified as ferro-manganese. For

castings of iron having to be avoided in castings of dynamo fields

belonging to electric machinery, where magnetic conduc-

tivity is the first consideration.

Distribution of Silicon in Pig Iron.—J. W.

Johnson, Nov. 12, 1891 finds in analyzing samples taken from every

part of the furnace having generally the highest percentage. In

the silicon decreased from 2.040 to 1.713 from the first bed

to the last. In another case the third bed had 1.320 Si., the seventh 1.718,

the eighth 1.103. He also finds that the silicon varies in each pig, be-

ing higher at the point than at the butt. Some of his figures are: point of

same 2.157; point of pig 1.834, butt of same 1.787.

Analysis of Cast Iron. (G. Lanza, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, x., 187.)—

Analyses were as follows:

	Gun Iron, per cent.	Common Iron, per cent.
Carbon.....	3.51
White.....	2.80
Gray.....	0.123	0.173
Phosphorus.....	0.155	0.413
Silicon.....	1.140	1.89

The specimens were 25 inches long and square in section; those tested

being very nearly one inch square, and those tested with

being cast nearly one and one quarter inches square, and

rolled down to one inch square.

	Tensile Strength.	Elastic Limit.	Modulus of Elasti- city.
Iron, 20,200 to 23,000 T. S. Av.	= 22,000	0.500	13,194,333
" 20,100 to 25,800 " " "	= 20,520	5.893	11,942,000
" 27,000 to 28,775 " " "	= 28,175	11,000	10,000,000
" 29,500 to 31,000 " " "	= 30,500	8,500	10,000,000

The elastic limit is not clearly defined in cast iron, the elongation being faster than the increase of the loads from the beginning of the test. The modulus of elasticity is therefore variable, decreasing as the load increases. For example, the following results of a test of common gray iron reported by Prof. Lanza:

Lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation in 13.4 inches.	Sets, in.	Modulus of Elasticity.
1000	.0004	18,217,400
3000	.0013	16,777,100
3600	.0024	14,085,400
4000	.0036	13,101,200
5000	.0048	12,809,200
6000	.0061	.0000	12,319,300
8000	.0088	.0001	11,600,800
10000	.0119	.0001	10,390,500
12000	.0162	.0007	9,714,200

CHEMISTRY OF FOUNDRY IRONS.

(C. A. Meissner, *Columbia College Q'ly*, 1890; *Iron Age*, 1900.)

Silicon is a very important element in foundry irons. Its tendency not above $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ is to cause the carbon to separate out as graphite, giving the casting the desired benefits of graphitic iron. Between $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ and $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ is best adapted for iron carrying a fair proportion of low silicon scrap, for ordinarily no mixture should run below $1\frac{3}{4}\%$ silicon to be castings.

From $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ to 5% silicon, as occurs in silvery iron, will carry heavy scrap. Castings are liable to be brittle, however, if not handled as regards proportion of scrap used.

From $1\frac{1}{4}\%$ to 2% silicon is best adapted for machine work; will give clean castings if not much scrap is used with it.

Below 1% silicon seems suited for drills and castings that have to great variations in temperature.

Silicon has the effect of making castings fluid, strong, and open, and also sound, by its tendency to separate the graphite from the metal, and consequent slight expansion of the iron on cooling, causing it to shrink thoroughly. Phosphorus, when high, has a tendency to make iron retain its heat longer, thereby helping to fill out all small spaces in it. It makes iron brittle, however, when above $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ in castings. It is not when high to use in a mixture of low-phosphorus irons, up to $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ gives good results, but, as said before, the casting should be below $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ to strong tendency when above $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ in pig to make the iron less graphitic, preventing the separation of graphite.

Sulphur in open iron seldom bothers the founder, as it is seldom above to any extent. The conditions causing open iron in the furnace are sulphur. A little manganese is an excellent antidote against sulphur. Irons above 1% manganese seldom have any sulphur of consequence.

Graphite is the all-important factor in foundry irons; unless this is in sufficient amount in the casting, the latter will be liable to be brittle. Graphite causes iron to slightly expand on cooling, makes it soft, tough, and ductile. (The statement as to expansion on cooling is denied by W. J. H. B.)

Relation of the Appearance of Fracture to the Chemical Composition. S. H. Chauvenet says when run from the bottom of the ladle the lower bed is almost always close grain, but shows practically the same analysis as the large grain in the rest of the cast. If the iron runs rapidly, the lower bed may have as large grain as any in the cast. It causes the seventh bed to fill up slowly and sluggishly, this bed is close-grained, although the eighth bed, if the obstruction is removed, is open grain. Neither the graphitic carbon nor the silicon seems to have influence on the fracture in these cases, since by analysis the graphitic carbon and silicon is the same in each. The question naturally arises whether it is not better to be guided by the analysis than by the fracture. The fracture is a guide, but it is not an infallible guide. Should not the analysis be made when the same cast be numbered under the same analysis?

Mr. H.

analyses made for the comparison of

analysis, and unless the condition of furnace, whether the iron ran slow, and from what part of pig bed the sample is taken, are known, the result is often very misleading. Take the following analyses:

	A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	F.
.....	4.315	4.818	4.270	3.328	3.869	3.861
.....	0.008	0.008	0.007	0.033	0.008	0.006
car..	3.010	2.757	2.680	2.243	3.070	3.100
carbon..	0.108	0.096

ry close-grain iron, dark color, by fracture, gray forge.

en-grain, dark color, by fracture, No. 1.

ry close-grain, by fracture, gray forge.

thin-grain, by fracture, No. 2, but much brighter and more open than C. or F.

ry large, open-grain, dark color, by fracture, No. 1.

ry close-grain, by fracture, gray forge.

Comparing analyses A and B, or E and F, it appears that the close-grain is in each case the highest in graphitic carbon. Comparing A and B, the graphite is about the same, but the close-grain is highest in

Analyses of Foundry Irons. (C. A. Meissner.)

SCOTCH IRONS.

Name.	Grade.	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese.	Sulphur.	Graphite.	Comb. Carbon.
.....	1	2.70	0.545	1.80	0.01	3.00	0.25
.....	1	2.47	0.760	2.51	0.015
.....	1	3.44	1.000	1.70	0.015
.....	2	2.70	0.810	2.60	0.02	2.00	0.80
.....	1	2.15	0.618	2.80	0.025	3.76	0.21
.....	1	2.50	0.840	1.70	0.010	2.75	3.75
.....	1	1.70	1.100	1.83	0.008	3.50	0.40
.....	1	3.08	1.200	2.85
.....	2	4.00	0.900	3.41	0.010	1.78	0.90

AMERICAN SCOTCH IRONS.

Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese	Sulphur.	No. Grade.	
6.00	0.430	1.00	1
1.67	1.830	1.00	casting
2.40	1.000	1.70	2
1.28	0.600	1.40	2
2.50	0.613	2.51	1
2.90	0.733	1.40	casting
3.44	1.000	1.70	0.015	1
3.35	1.300	1.50	0.012	1
3.63	0.503	2.85	1

CHARACTER OF SAMPLES.—No. 1. Well known Ohio Scotch iron.

..... but carries two-thirds scrap; made from part black-bar

..... brand. The high silicon gives it its scrap-carrying

..... A River Hill Scotch castings, made at scale works; cast

..... than strength.

No. 3. Formerly a famous Ohio Scotch brand, not now in the market. Made mainly from black-band ore.

No. 4. A good Ohio Scotch, very soft and fluid; made from black-band ore-mixture.

Nos. 5a and 5b. Brier Hill Scotch iron and castings; made for stove purposes; 350 lbs. of iron used to 150 lbs. scrap gave very soft fluid iron; worked well.

No. 6a. Shows comparison between Summerlee (Scotch) (6a) and Brier Hill Scotch (6b). Drillings came from a Cleveland foundry, which found both irons closely alike in physical and working quality.

No. 7. One of the best southern brands, very hard to compete with, owing to its general qualities and great regularity of grade and general working.

MACHINE IRONS.

Sample No.	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese.	Sulphur.	Graphite.	Comb. Carbon.	Grade No.
8	2.80	0.492	0.61	0.015	1
9	1.80	0.262	0.70	0.030	3
10a	2.66	0.770	1.20	0.020	2.51	2
10b	3.63	0.411	1.35	0.014	3.05	1
11	2.10	0.415	0.60	0.050	2
12	1.97	0.204	1.51	0.080	2.31	0.78	2
13	3.10	0.124	trace	0.021	2
14	2.12	0.610	0.80
15	1.70	0.632	1.60
16a	1.45	0.470	1.25	0.009	2
16b	1.40	0.316	1.37	0.008
17	3.26	0.436	0.25	1
18	0.60	0.184	0.90	0.015	1

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLES.—No. 8. A famous Southern brand noted for fine machine castings.

No. 9. Also a Southern brand, a very good machine iron.

Nos. 10a and 10b. Formerly one of the best known Ohio brands. Does not shrink; is very fluid and strong. Foundries having used this have reported very favorably on it.

No. 11. Iron from Brier Hill Co., made to imitate No. 3; was stronger than No. 3; did not pull castings; was fluid and soft.

No. 12. Copy of a very strong English machine iron.

No. 13. A Pennsylvania iron, very tough and soft. This is partially Bessemer iron, which accounts for strength, while high silicon makes it soft.

No. 14. Castings made from Brier Hill Co.'s machine brand for scale work very satisfactory, strong, soft and fluid.

No. 15. Castings made from Brier Hill Co.'s one half machine brand, one half Scotch brand, for scale works, castings desired to be of fair strength but very fluid and soft.

No. 16a. Brier Hill machine brand made to compete with No. 3.

No. 16b. Castings (clothes-hooks) from same, said to have worked badly, castings being white and irregular. Analysis proved that some other iron too high in manganese had been used, and probably not well mixed.

No. 17. A Pennsylvania iron, no shrinkage, excellent machine iron, soft and strong.

No. 18. A very good quality Northern charcoal iron.

"Standard Grades" of the Brier Hill Iron and Coal Company.

Brier Hill Scotch Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade Nos 1 and 2

Silicon	2.00 to 3.00
Phosphorus	0.50 to 0.75
Manganese	2.00 to 2.50

Used successfully for scales, mowing-machines, agricultural implements, novelty hardware, sounding-boards, stoves, and heavy work requiring special strength.

Brier Hill Silvery Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade No. 1.

Silicon	3.50 to 5.50
Phosphorus	1.00 to 1.50
Manganese	2.00 to 2.55

Used successfully for hollow-ware, car-wheels, etc., stoves, bumpers, and similar work, with heavy amounts of scrap in all cases. Should be mainly where fluidity and no great strength is required, especially for heavy work. When used with scrap or close pig low in phosphorus, castings of considerable strength and great fluidity can be made.

Fairly Heavy Machine Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade No. 1.

Silicon	1.75 to 2.50
Phosphorus	0.50 to 0.60
Manganese	1.20 to 1.40

The best iron for machinery, wagon-boxes, agricultural implements, pump-work, hardware specialties, lathe, stoves, etc., where no large amounts of scrap are to be carried, and where strength, combined with great fluidity and softness, are desired. Should not have much scrap with

Regular Machine Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade Nos. 1 and 2.

Silicon	1.50 to 2.00
Phosphorus	0.30 to 0.50
Manganese	0.80 to 1.00

Used for hardware, lawn-mowers, mower and reaper works, oil-well machinery, drills, fine machinery, stoves, etc. Excellent for all small fine castings requiring fair fluidity, softness, and mainly strength. Cannot be used alone for large castings, but gives good results on same when used with above-mentioned heavy machine grade; also when used with the scrap in right proportion. Will carry but little scrap, and should be used for good strong castings.

For Axes and Materials Requiring Great Strength, Grade No. 2.

Silicon	1.50
Phosphorus	0.200 and less.
Manganese	0.80

This gave excellent results.

A good neutral iron for guns, etc., will run about as follows:

Silicon	1.00
Phosphorus	0.25
Sulphur	0.20
Manganese	none.

It should be open No. 1 iron.

This gives a very tough, elastic metal. More sulphur would make tough but decrease elasticity.

For fine castings demanding elegance of design but no strength, phosphorus to 3.00% is good. Can also stand 1.50% to 2.00% manganese. For work of a hard, abrasive character manganese can run 2.00% in casting.

Analyses of Castings.

Sample No.	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese	Sulphur.	Graphite.	Comb. Carbon.
81	2.50	1.400	2.20			
82	0.85	0.351	0.92	0.030		
83	1.53	0.337	1.05	0.040	8.10	0.58
84a	1.84	0.577	1.04			
84b	2.20	0.742	1.10			
84c	2.50	1.308	1.16			
85a	2.50	0.418	0.54			
85b	5.10	1.220	1.14			
85c	5.50	0.873	0.80			
85d	2.88	0.408	1.10			
86	4.00	0.500	0.78			
87	3.00	1.400	0.90	0.025		
88	4.00	0.300	1.30			
1.20	0.300	1.20				

No. 31. Sewing-machine casting, said to be very fluid and good. This is an odd analysis. I should say it would have been too hard and brittle, yet no complaint was made.

No. 32. Very good machine casting, strong, soft, no shrinkage.

No. 33. Drillings from an annealer-box that stood the heat very well.

No. 34a. Drillings from door-hinge, very strong and soft.

No. 34b. Drillings from clothes-hooks, tough and soft, stood severe nailing.

No. 34c. Drillings from window-blind hinge, broke off suddenly on strain. Too high phosphorus.

No. 35a. Casting for heavy ladle support, very strong.

Nos. 35b and 35c. Broke after short usage. Phosphorus too high on bumpers.

No. 35d. Elbow for steam heater, very tough and strong.

No. 36. Cog wheels, very good, shows absolutely no shrinkage.

No. 37. Heater top network, requiring fluidity but no strength.

No. 37a. Gray part of above.

No. 37b. White, honeycombed part of above. Probably bad mud, got chilled suddenly.

STRENGTH OF CAST IRON.

Rankine gives the following figures:

Various qualities, T. S.	13,400 to	20,000, average	16,700
Compressive strength.....	52,000 to	145,000, "	112,000
Modulus of elasticity.....	14,000,000 to	22,000,000, "	17,000,000

Specific Gravity and Strength. (Major Wadsworth, 1856.)

Third-class guns: Sp. Gr. 7.087, T. S. 20,148. Another lot: least Sp. Gr. T. S. 22,402.

Second-class guns: Sp. Gr. 7.154, T. S. 24,767. Another lot: mean Sp. Gr. 7.302, T. S. 27,232.

First class guns: Sp. Gr. 7.304, T. S. 28,805. Another lot: greatest Sp. Gr. 7.402, T. S. 31,027.

Strength of Charcoal Pig Iron.—Pig iron made from Scotch ores, in furnaces at Wassaie and Millerton, N. Y., has shown over 100 lbs. T. S. per square inch, one sample giving 42,281 lbs. Mairker, Va., tested at the Washington Navy Yard showed: average for No. 2 iron, 41,320 lbs.; No. 3, 24,959 lbs.; No. 4, 41,320 lbs.; average density of No. 4, 7.320 (L. W., v. p. 44.)

Nos. 3 and 4 charcoal pig iron from Chaplinville, Conn., showed a strength per square inch of from 31,761 lbs. to 41,982 lbs. Charcoal pig iron from Shelby, Ala. (tests made in August, 1891), showed a strength 34,600 lbs. for No. 3; No. 4, 39,675 lbs.; No. 5, 46,450 lbs.; and a mean strength of 41,320 lbs. for Nos. 3, 4, and 5, 41,320 lbs. (Full. I & S, p. 4.)

Variation of Density and Tenacity of Gun-irons.—Increase of density invariably follows the rapid cooling of cast iron, the general rule the tenacity is increased by the same means. This generally increases quite uniformly with the density, until the latter attains to some given point; after which an increased density is accompanied by a diminished tenacity.

The turning-point of density at which the best qualities of gun-irons attain their maximum tenacity appears to be about 7.30. At this point of density, or near it, whether in proof-bars or gun-heads, the tenacity is greatest.

As the density of iron is increased its liquidity when melted is diminished. This causes it to congeal quickly, and to form cavities in the interior of castings. (Pamphlet of Budders' Iron Foundry, 1893.)

Specifications for Cast Iron for the World's Fair B. L. Guns, 1892.—Except where chilled iron is specified, all castings are of tough gray iron, free from injurious cold-chills or blow holes in pattern, and of a workmanlike finish. Sample pieces 1 in. square, and the same heat of metal in sand moulds, shall be capable of sustaining clear span of 4 feet 6 inches a central load of 500 lbs. when tested on rough bar.

Specifications for Tests of Cast Iron in 12" B. L. Guns.—(Pamphlet of Budders' Iron Foundry, 1893.)—Charcoal iron, 12 in. diameter, must average at each end at least 35,000 lbs. per square inch, and must be over 37,000 lbs. per square inch; it may be as low as 25,000 lbs. per square inch.

... finished by the chemist, while pouring at the point where
 to show in the white. The grades are to be by eighths of
 1/8, 2/8, 3/8, 5/8, 7/8, etc., until the iron is mottled; the lowest
 of an inch in depth of chill. The pigs of each cast are to be
 the depth of chill shown by its test-piece, and each grade
 itself at the furnace and in forwarding.

Cast Iron with Steel.—Car wheels are sometimes
 mixture of charcoal iron, anthracite iron, and Bessemer
 blowing shows the tensile strength of a number of tests of
 the average tensile strength of the charcoal iron used being

	lbs. per sq. in.
on with 2 1/2% steel	22,467
" 3 1/2% steel	26,733
" 6 1/2% steel and 6 1/2% anthracite	24,400
" 7 1/2% steel and 7 1/2% anthracite	28,150
" 21 1/2% ste l, 2 1/2% wro't iron, and 6 1/2% anth... ..	25,550
" 5 % steel, 5% wro't iron, and 10 % anth... ..	26,500

(*Jour. C. I. W.*, iii. p. 184.)

Partially Bessemerized.—Car wheels made of pur-
 sized iron (blown in a Bessemer converter for 3 1/2 minutes),
 a test mould over an inch deep, just as a test of cold-blast
 or car wheels would chill. Car wheels made of this blown
 50,000 miles. (*Jour. C. I. W.*, vi. p. 77.)

Iron.—(On October 15, 1891, the cast iron fly-wheel of a large
 engines belonging to the Amoskeag Mfg. Co., of Manchester,
 from centrifugal force. The fly-wheel was 30 feet diam-
 etres face, with one set of 12 arms, and weighed 116,000 lbs.
 out, the rim castings, as well as the ends of the arms, were
 of flaws, caused chiefly by the drawing and shrinking of the
 ens of the metal were tested for tensile strength, and varied
 per square inch in sound pieces to 1000 lbs. in spongy ones.
 flaws showed on the surface, and a rigid examination of the
 ey were erected failed to give any cause to suspect their true
 nents were carried on for some time after the accident in
 Company's foundry in attempting to duplicate the flaws, but
 in approaching the badness of these castings.

MALLEABLE CAST IRON.

Cast iron, or malleable iron castings, are castings made
 of iron which have been subjected to a process of decarburization

Rules for Use of Malleable Castings, by Committee of the Caprolactists' Ass'n, 1880.

1. Never run abruptly from a heavy to a light section.
2. As the strength of malleable cast iron lies in the skin, expose as much surface as possible. A star-shaped section is the strongest possible in which a casting can be made. For brackets use a number of thin ribs instead of one thick one.
3. Avoid all round sections; practice has demonstrated this to be the weakest form. Avoid sharp angles.
4. Shrinkage generally in castings will be 3/16 in. per foot.

Strength of Malleable Cast Iron.—Experiments on the strength of malleable cast iron, made in 1881 by a committee of the Master Builders' Association. The strength of this metal varies with the thickness as the following results on specimens from 1/4 in. to 1 1/2 in. in thickness show:

Dimensions.		Tensile Strength.	Elongation.	Elastic Limit.
in.	in.	lb. per sq. in.	percent in 4 in.	lb. per sq. in.
1.32	by .25	31,700	2	21,000
1.52	.30	31,700	2	15,500
1.53	.5	32,800	2	17,000
1.53	.64	32,100	2	19,400
2.	.78	25,100	1 1/4	15,400
1.51	.88	33,600	1 1/2	19,700
1.06	1.02	30,600	1	17,600
1.28	1.3	27,400	1	
1.52	1.54	28,300	1 1/4	

The low ductility of the metal is worthy of notice. The committee in the following table of the comparative tensile resistance and ductility of malleable cast iron, as compared with other materials:

	Ultimate Strength, lb. per sq. in.	Comparative Strength: Cast Iron = 1.	Elongation Percent in 4 in.	Comparative Ductility: Malleable Cast Iron = 1.
Cast iron	20,000	1	0.35	0.17
Malleable cast iron.	32,000	1.6	2.00	1
Wrought iron . . .	50,000	2.5	30.00	10
Steel castings . . .	60,000	3	10.00	3

Another series of tests, reported to the Association in 1892, gave the following:

Thickness.	Width.	Area.	Elastic Limit.	Ultimate Strength.	Elongation in 8 in.
in.	in.	sq. in.	lb. per sq. in.	lb. per sq. in.	percent
.271	2.81	.7615	23,520	32,620	1.5
.293	2.78	.8145	22,650	28,100	1.5
.30	2.82	1.698	20,595	32,020	1.5
.31	2.79	1.144	20,250	28,800	1.5
.329	2.76	1.46	19,520	27,875	1.5
.661	2.91	1.857	18,840	25,700	1.5
.8	2.76	2.208	18,330	25,120	1.5
1.05	2.82	2.800	18,220	28,720	1.5
1.117	2.81	3.138	17,050	25,510	1.5
1.321	2.82	2.879	18,410	26,950	1.5

WROUGHT IRON.

Influence of Chemical Composition on the Properties of Wrought Iron. (Beardslee on Wrought Iron and Chain Cables. Reprint by W. Kent. Wiley & Sons, 1879).—A series of 2000 tests of bars from 14 brands of wrought iron, most of them of high repute, made in 1877, by Capt. L. A. Beardslee, U.S.N., of the United States War Board. Forty-two chemical analyses were made of these irons, with a view to determine what influence the chemical composition had on the strength, ductility, and welding power. From the report of these by A. L. Holley the following figures are taken:

No.	Average Tensile Strength.	Chemical Composition.					
		S.	P.	Si.	C.	Mn.	Slag.
66,598	trace	0.065	0.080	0.212	0.005	0.102	
		0.084	0.105	0.512	0.029	0.452	
54,363	0.009	0.250	0.182	0.038	0.033	0.848	
	0.001	0.065	0.028	0.066	0.000	1.214	
52,761	0.008	0.231	0.156	0.015	0.017		
	0.003	0.140	0.182	0.027	trace	0.678	
51,734	0.005	0.291	0.321	0.051	0.053	1.721	
	0.001	0.067	0.065	0.045	0.007	1.168	
51,134	0.003	0.073	0.073	0.042	0.005	0.974	
50,765	0.007	0.160	0.154	0.042	0.021	

For two analyses are given they are the extremes of two or more runs of the brand. Where one is given it is the only analysis. Brand L is classed as a puddled steel.

ORDER OF QUALITIES GRADED FROM NO. 1 TO NO. 19.

Rank.	Tensile Strength.	Reduction of Area.	Elongation.	Welding Power.
1	18	19	most imperfect.	
2	6	3	badly.	
12	16	15	best.	
18	19	13	rather badly.	
13	1	4	very good.	
19	12	16	—	

Reduction of area varied from 54.2 to 25.0 per cent, and the elongation 29.9 to 8.3 per cent.

Of the purest iron of the series, ranked No. 18 in tensile strength, was one of the most ductile; brand B, quite impure, was below the rest both in strength and ductility, but was the best in welding power; quite impure, was one of the best in every respect except welding; the highest in strength, was not the most pure, it had the least slag, and its welding power was most imperfect. The evidence of the influence of chemical composition upon quality, therefore, is quite contradictory and confusing. The irons differing remarkably in their mechanical properties, it was found that a much more marked influence upon their properties was caused by different treatment in rolling than by differences in chemical composition.

As to slag Mr. Holley says: "It appears that the smallest and purest iron often has the most slag. It is hence reasonable to conclude that an iron may be dirty and yet thoroughly condensed."

In summary of "What is learned from chemical analysis," he says: "It may appear that little of use to the makers or users of wrought iron has been learned. . . . The character of steel can be surely predicted from the analyses of the materials: that of wrought iron is altered by and unobserved causes."

Influence of Reduction in Rolling from Pile to Bar on the Strength of Wrought Iron.

The tensile strength of the irons in Beardslee's tests ranged from 46,000 to 62,700 lbs. per sq. in. It was really a steel, not being considered. Some specimens were as high as 70,000 lbs. The amount of reduction of

area in rolling the bars has a notable influence on the strength and limit: the greater the reduction from pile to bar the higher the strength. The following are a few figures from tests of one of the brands:

Size of bar, in. diam.:	4	3	2	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
Area of pile, sq. in.:	80	80	72	25	9
Bar per cent of pile:	15.7	8.89	4.96	3.14	2.17
Tensile strength, lb.:	46,322	47,761	48,280	51,124	52,275
Elastic limit, lb.:	23,430	26,400	31,802	36,467	39,126

Specifications for Wrought Iron (F. H. Lewis, Engineers of Philadelphia, 1891).—1. All wrought iron must be tough, ductile, fibrous and of uniform quality for each class, straight, smooth, free from pockets, flaws, buckles, blisters, and injurious cracks along the edges; must have a workmanlike finish. No specific process or provision of manufacture will be demanded, provided the material fulfils the requirements of these specifications.

2. The tensile strength, limit of elasticity, and ductility shall be determined from a standard test-piece not less than $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, cut from full-sized bar, and planed or turned parallel. The area of cross section shall not be less than $\frac{1}{2}$ square inch. The elongation shall be measured on breaking on an original length of 8 inches.

3. The tests shall show not less than the following results:

	Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. inch	Limit of Elasticity, lbs. per sq. inch.	Elongation 8 inches per cent
For bar iron in tension	50,000	25,000	15
For shape iron	48,000	25,000	15
For plates under 26 in. wide,	48,000	25,000	12
For plates over 26 in. wide	46,000	25,000	10

4. When full-sized tension members are tested to prove the strength of their connections, a reduction in their ultimate strength of (500 \times width bar) pounds per square inch will be allowed.

5. All iron shall bend, cold, 180 degrees around a curve whose diameter is twice the thickness of piece for bar iron, and three times the thickness for plates and shapes.

6. Iron which is to be worked hot in the manufacture must be capable of bending sharply to a right angle at a working heat without any fracture.

7. Specimens of tensile iron upon being nicked on one side and bent shall show a fracture nearly all fibrous.

8. All rivet iron must be tough and soft, and be capable of bending until the sides are in close contact without sign of fracture on the concave side of the curve.

Pennsylvania Railroad Specifications for Merchant Iron or Steel.—Miscellaneous merchant bar iron or steel for which special specifications defining shapes and uses are issued, should have tensile strength of 50,000 to 55,000 lbs. per square inch and an elongation 20% in a section originally 2 inches long.

No iron or steel will be accepted under this specification if tensile strength falls below 48,000 lbs. or goes above 60,000 lbs. per square inch, nor if elongation is less than 15% in 2 inches, nor if it shows a granular fracture on line more than 50% of the fractured surface, nor if it shows any difficult welding.

In preparing test-pieces from round or rectangular bars, they will be turned or shaped so that the tested sections may be the central portion of the bar, in all sizes up to 13 inches in any diametrical or side measurement. In larger sizes test-pieces will be made to fall about half-way from center to circumference.

Bars of iron $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick or less, or textured forms of iron, such as angles, channels, etc., will be accepted if tensile strength is above 45,000 lbs. per square inch; but the testing of such sizes and sections is optional.

ions for Wrought Iron for the World's Fair

(*Eng'g News*, March 26, 1892.) All iron to be used in the
 of open trusses, laterals, pins and bolts, except plate iron
 ride, and shaped iron, must show by the standard test-pieces
 strength in lbs. per square inch of:

$$32,000 - \frac{7,000 \times \text{area of original bar in sq. in.}}{\text{circumference of original bar in inches}}$$

limit not less than half the strength given by this formula,
 of 30% in 8 in.

inches wide and under, and more than 8 inches wide, must
 standard test-pieces a tensile strength of 48,000 lbs. per sq. in.
 limit not less than 36,000 lbs. per square inch, and an elas-
 tic limit not less than 12%. All plates over 34 inches in width must have a
 strength not less than 46,000 lbs., with an elastic limit not less than
 12% per square inch. Plates from 34 inches to 36 inches in width must
 show a tensile strength of not less than 10%; those from 36 inches to 48 inches in
 width, 48 inches in width, 5%.

in, flanges of beams and channels, and other iron not herein-
 mentioned, must show by the standard test-pieces a tensile strength in
 pounds per square inch of:

$$50,000 - \frac{7,000 \times \text{area of original bar}}{\text{circumference of original bar}}$$

limit of not less than half the strength given by this formula,
 of 15% for bars $\frac{5}{8}$ inch and less in thickness, and of 12% for
 thickness. For webs of beams and channels, specifications
 apply.

must be tough and soft, and pieces of the full diameter of
 be capable of bending cold, until the sides are in close contact,
 fracture on the convex side of the curve.

Iron.—Mr. Vaclavin, of the Baldwin Locomotive Works,
 of the American Railway Master Mechanics' Association, in
 an advocate the softest iron in the market as the best for
 believed in an iron as hard as was consistent with heading.

The higher the tensile strength of the iron, the more vibra-
 tion, and for it is not so easily strained beyond the yield-point.
 specifications for stay-bolt iron call for a tensile strength of
 48,000 lbs. per square inch, the upper figure being preferred, and
 insisted upon as the minimum.

TABLE FOR UNIT STRAINS FOR IRON AND STEEL IN STRUCTURES.

H. Lewis, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, 1891.)

giving formulae for unit strains per square inch of net sectional
 area in determining the allowable working stress in each mem-
 ber. (For definitions of soft and medium steel see Specifi-
 cations.)

Tension Members.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
bolts or rivets	Will not be used	Will not be used	7000
.....	6000	" " "	7000
hangers			
riveted	5000	5500	7000
net sec-	8000	8000	Will not be used
members			
flanges			
net sec-	7000 $\left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right)$	8% greater than iron	9000 $\left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right)$
.....	Will not be used	Will not be used	9000 $\left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right)$
cross-sec-	15,000	16,000	(For eye-bars only, 17,500)

Shearing.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
On pins and shop rivets	6000	6000	7500
On field rivets.	4800	5200	Will not be used
In webs of girders.	Will not be used	5000	6000

Bearing.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
On projected semi-intrados of main-plin-holes	12,000	13,500	14,500
On projected semi-intrados of rivet-holes*	12,000	13,500	14,500
On lateral pins	13,000	16,500	18,000
Of bed-plates on masonry	250 lbs. per sq. in.		

* Excepting that in pin connected members taking alternate stresses, the bearing stress must not exceed 9000 lbs. for iron or steel.

Bending.

On extreme fibres of pins when centres of bearings are considered as points of application of strains:

Wrought Iron, 15,000. Soft Steel, 16,000. Medium Steel, 17,000.

Compression Members.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
Chord sections:			
Flat ends	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}} \right) - 30 \frac{l}{r}$	10% greater than iron	9% greater than iron
One flat and one pin end	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}} \right) - 35 \frac{l}{r}$		
Chords with pin ends and all end-posts	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}} \right) - 40 \frac{l}{r}$		
All trestle-posts	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}} \right) - 35 \frac{l}{r}$		
Intermediate posts	$7500 - 40 \frac{l}{r}$		
Lateral struts, and compression in collision struts, stiff suspenders and stiff chords	$10,500 - 50 \frac{l}{r}$		

In which formulae l = length of compression member in inches, and r = least radius of gyration of member in inches. No compression member shall have a length exceeding 15 times its least width, and no post should be used in which $l + r$ exceeds 125.

Members Subject to Alternate Tension and Compression.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
For compression only	Use the formula above		
For the greatest stress	$7000 \left(1 - \frac{\text{max. lesser}}{2 \text{ max. greater}} \right)$	8% greater than iron	3% greater than iron

Use the formula giving the greatest area of section.
The compression flanges of beams and plate girders shall have the gross section as the tension flanges.

turr, discussing the formulae proposed by Mr. Lewis, says: "Taking the experiments as a whole, I am constrained to believe that they at least 15% increase of resistance for soft-steel columns over those on iron, with from 20% to 25% for medium steel, rather than 10% and actively.

high capacity of soft steel for enduring torture fits it eminently for and combined stresses, and for that reason I would give it 16% over iron, with about 22% for medium steel.

tag tests on steel seem to show that 15% and 22% increases, for the respectively, are amply justified.

and not hesitate to assign 15% and 22% increases over values for iron in bending of soft and medium steel as being within the safe experience. Provision should also be made for increasing pin-bending and bearing stresses for increasing ratios of fixed to mov-

imum Permissible Stresses in Structural Materials

Buildings. (Building Ordinances of the City of Chicago, 1893.) crushing stress: For plates, 15,000 lbs. per square inch; for lintels, for corbels, compression, 13,500 lbs. per square inch, and tension per square inch. For girders, beams, corbels, brackets, and trusses, per square inch for steel and 12,000 lbs. for iron.

for girders:

$$\text{Flange area} = \frac{\text{maximum bending moment in ft.-lbs.}}{C D}$$

distance between centre of gravity of flanges in feet.

15,000 for steel.

12,000 for iron.

$$\text{Web area} = \frac{\text{maximum shear}}{C} \quad C = \begin{cases} 10,000 \text{ for steel,} \\ 6,000 \text{ for iron,} \end{cases}$$

its in single shear per square inch of rivet area:

	Steel.	Iron.
shop-driven,	8000 lbs.	7500 lbs.
field-driven	7500 "	6000 "

for girders:

$$S = \frac{c b d^3}{l}$$

b = breadth of beam in inches.
 d = depth of beam in inches.
 l = length of beam in feet.
 $c = \begin{cases} 120 \text{ for long-leaf yellow pine,} \\ 120 \text{ for oak,} \\ 100 \text{ for white or Norway pine.} \end{cases}$

portioning of Materials in the Memphis Bridge (1890.

Trans. A. S. C. E., 1893.)—The entire superstructure of the Memphis is of steel and it was all worked as steel, the rivet-holes being in all principal members and punched and reamed in the lighter

also members were proportioned on the basis of allowing the dead reduce a strain of 20,000 lbs. per square inch, and the live load a 10,000 lbs. per square inch. In the case of the central span, where load was twice the live load, this corresponded to 15,000 lbs. total square inch, this being the greatest tensile strain.

compression members were proportioned on a somewhat arbitrary distinction was made between live and dead loads. A maximum 15,000 lbs. per square inch was allowed on the chords and other compression members where the length did not exceed 16 times the extreme dimension, this strain being reduced 750 lbs. for each addition of length. In long compression members the maximum length led to 50 times the least transverse dimension, and the strains 15,000 lbs. per square inch, this amount being increased by 200 lbs. and by which the length is decreased

or reversals of strains occur the member was proportioned to reason of compression and tension on whichever basis tension or from there would be the greatest strain per square inch; and, in the net section was proportioned to resist the maximum tension, from section to resist the maximum compression.

for beams and girders were calculated on the strain being limited to per square inch in extreme fibres. Rivet-holes in cover-plates are deducted.

The rivets of steel in drilled or reamed holes were proportioned on basis of a bearing strain of 15,000 lbs. per square inch and a shearing strain of 7500 lbs. per square inch, and special pains were taken to get the shear in as many rivets as possible. This was the requirement for rivets. In the case of field rivets, the number was increased one-half.

The pins were proportioned on the basis of a bearing strain of 12,000 per square inch and a bending strain of 30,000 lbs. per square inch in extreme fibre, the diameters of the pins being never made more than one less than the width of the largest eye-bar attaching to them.

The weight on the rollers of the expansion joint on Pier II is 40,000 per linear foot of roller, or 3,333 lbs. per linear inch, the rollers being 12 in diameter.

As the sections of the superstructure were unusually heavy, and their load from dead load greatly in excess of those from moving load, it was the best to use a slightly higher steel than is now generally used for such structures, and to work this steel without pinching, all holes being on a somewhat softer steel was used in the floor-system and other light parts.

The principal requirements which were to be obtained as the result of tests on samples cut from finished material were as follows:

	Max. Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. inch.	Min. Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. inch.	Min. Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Min. per- centage of Elongation in 8 inches.	Min. per- centage of Reduction at Fracture
High-grade steel.	78,500	69,000	40,000	18	30
Eye-bar steel...	75,000	66,000	38,000	20	40
Medium steel...	72,500	64,000	37,000	22	44
Soft steel.....	63,000	55,000	30,000	28	50

TENACITY OF METALS AT VARIOUS TEMPERATURES.

The British Admiralty made a series of experiments to ascertain what effect of strength and ductility takes place in gun metal compositions when raised to high temperatures. It was found that all the varieties of gun metal suffer a gradual but not serious loss of strength and ductility up to a certain temperature, at which, within a few degrees, a great change takes place; the strength falls to about one-half the original, and the ductility is almost gone. At temperatures above this point, up to 500°, there is little if any further loss of strength; the temperature at which this great change takes place, loss of strength takes place, although uniform in the specimens cast in the same pot, varies about 100° in the same composition cast at different temperatures, or with some varying conditions in the foundry process. The temperature at which the change took place in No. 1 series was maintained to be about 370°, and in that of No. 2, at a little over 350°. What may be the cause of this important difference in the same composition of metal stated may be taken as certain. Rolled Muntz metal and copper is satisfactory up to 500°, and may be used as securing bolts with wrought iron, Yorkshire and remanufactured, increase in strength at 500°, but lose slightly in ductility up to 300°, where an increase begins to continue up to 500°, where it is still less than at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere. The strength of Landore steel is not affected by temperature up to 500°, but its ductility is reduced more than one-half. (*Trans.*, 1877.)

Tensile Strength of Iron and Steel at High Temperatures.—James F. Howard's tests (*Iron Age*, April 10, 1880), shows that the tensile strength of steel diminishes as the temperature increases, first until a minimum is reached between 300° and 350° F., the total drop being about 1000 lbs. per square inch in the softer steels, and from 2000 to 3000 lbs. in steels of over 80,000 lbs. tensile strength. From this minimum the strength increases up to a temperature of 400° to 650° F., the maximum being reached in the harder steels, the increase amounting to 1000 lbs. per square inch above the minimum strength at 300°.

at this maximum, the strength of all the steel decreases steadily (approximating 10,000 lbs. decrease per 100° increase of temperature) of 21,000 lbs. per square inch is still shown by .10 C. steel at 60° F., and by .60 to 1.00 C. steel at about 1600° F.

that of wrought iron increases with temperature from 60° up to a point from 400 to 600° F., the increase being from 8000 to 10,000 lbs. per inch, and then decreases steadily till a strength of only 6000 lbs. per inch is shown at 1500° F.

cast iron appears to maintain its strength, with a tendency to increase, up to 1500° F., beyond which temperature the strength gradually decreases.

Under the highest temperatures, 1500° to 1600° F., numerous experiments on a cylindrical surface of the specimen were developed prior to the present, it is remarkable that cast iron, so much inferior in strength to the wrought iron at atmospheric temperature, under the highest temperatures has the same strength as the high-temper steel then have.

Strength of Iron and Steel Boiler-plate at High Temperatures. (Chas. Huston, *Jour. F. I.*, 1877.)

AVERAGE OF THREE TESTS OF EACH.

Temperature, F.	68°	575°	925°
Boiler plate, tensile strength, lbs.	55,366	69,080	65,343
" " contr. of area %	26	23	21
Boiler plate, tensile strength, lbs.	54,600	68,083	64,350
" " contr. %	47	38	33
Boiler plate, tensile strength, lbs.	64,000	69,266	68,000
" " contr. %	38	30	21

Strength of Wrought Iron and Steel at High Temperatures. (Chas. Huston, *Jour. F. I.*, 1881, p. 241.)

Kollmann's experiments at Oberlin, Ohio, on the tensile strength of iron and steel at temperatures between 70° and 2000° F. Three kinds of metal were tested, wrought iron having an ultimate tensile strength of 52,464 lbs., an elastic limit of 18,260 lbs., and an elongation of 17.5%; fine-grained iron having an ultimate tensile strength of 56,992 lbs., and an elongation of 20%; and Bessemer steel having values of 64,826 lbs., 55,029 lbs., and 14.5%. The mean tensile strength of each material expressed in per cent of that at atmospheric temperature is given in the following table, the fifth column exhibits, for purposes of comparison, the results of experiments on by a committee of the Franklin Institute in the years

Temperature, F.	Fibrous Wrought Iron, p. c.	Fine-grained Iron, per cent.	Bessemer Steel, per cent.	Franklin Institute, per cent.
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
200.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	102.0
300.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	105.0
400.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	106.0
500.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	106.0
600.0	98.5	98.5	98.5	104.0
700.0	96.5	96.5	96.5	99.5
800.0	94.5	94.5	94.5	97.5
900.0	92.5	92.5	92.5	95.5
1000.0	90.5	90.5	90.5	93.5
1100.0	88.5	88.5	88.5	91.5
1200.0	86.5	86.5	86.5	89.5
1300.0	84.5	84.5	84.5	87.5
1400.0	82.5	82.5	82.5	85.5
1500.0	80.5	80.5	80.5	83.5
1600.0	78.5	78.5	78.5	81.5
1700.0	76.5	76.5	76.5	79.5
1800.0	74.5	74.5	74.5	77.5
1900.0	72.5	72.5	72.5	75.5
2000.0	70.5	70.5	70.5	73.5
2100.0	68.5	68.5	68.5	71.5
2200.0	66.5	66.5	66.5	69.5
2300.0	64.5	64.5	64.5	67.5
2400.0	62.5	62.5	62.5	65.5
2500.0	60.5	60.5	60.5	63.5
2600.0	58.5	58.5	58.5	61.5
2700.0	56.5	56.5	56.5	59.5
2800.0	54.5	54.5	54.5	57.5
2900.0	52.5	52.5	52.5	55.5
3000.0	50.5	50.5	50.5	53.5
3100.0	48.5	48.5	48.5	51.5
3200.0	46.5	46.5	46.5	49.5
3300.0	44.5	44.5	44.5	47.5
3400.0	42.5	42.5	42.5	45.5
3500.0	40.5	40.5	40.5	43.5
3600.0	38.5	38.5	38.5	41.5
3700.0	36.5	36.5	36.5	39.5
3800.0	34.5	34.5	34.5	37.5
3900.0	32.5	32.5	32.5	35.5
4000.0	30.5	30.5	30.5	33.5
4100.0	28.5	28.5	28.5	31.5
4200.0	26.5	26.5	26.5	29.5
4300.0	24.5	24.5	24.5	27.5
4400.0	22.5	22.5	22.5	25.5
4500.0	20.5	20.5	20.5	23.5
4600.0	18.5	18.5	18.5	21.5
4700.0	16.5	16.5	16.5	19.5
4800.0	14.5	14.5	14.5	17.5
4900.0	12.5	12.5	12.5	15.5
5000.0	10.5	10.5	10.5	13.5
5100.0	8.5	8.5	8.5	11.5
5200.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	9.5
5300.0	4.5	4.5	4.5	7.5
5400.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	5.5
5500.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	3.5

Effect of Gold on the Strength of Iron and Steel.

Conclusions were arrived at by Mr. Staffe in 1865:—
1. The absolute strength of iron and steel is not diminished, even at the lowest temperature which ever occurs in nature, as great as at the ordinary temperature (about 60° F.).

(2) That neither in steel nor in iron is the extensibility less in severe than at the ordinary temperature.

(3) That the limit of elasticity in both steel and iron lies higher in cold.

(4) That the modulus of elasticity in both steel and iron is increased with elevation of temperature, and diminished on elevation of temperature, so that these variations never exceed 0.05 % for a change of temperature of 1° F., and therefore such variations, at least for ordinary purposes, are of special importance.

Mr. C. P. Sandberg made in 1867 a number of tests of iron rails at various temperatures by means of a falling weight, since he was of opinion, although Mr. Styffe's conclusions were perfectly correct as regards strength, they might not apply to the resistance of iron to impact at temperatures. Mr. Sandberg convinced himself that "the breaking of iron, such as was usually employed for rails," as tested by impact or shocks, is considerably influenced by cold; such iron exhibiting only from one third to one fourth of the strength which it possesses at 54° F." Mr. J. J. Webster (Inst. C. E., 1880) gives reasons for doubting the accuracy of Mr. Sandberg's deductions, since the tests at the lower temperature were nearly all made with 21-ft. lengths of rail, while the higher temperatures were made with short lengths, the supply in every case being the same distance apart.

W. H. Barlow (Proc. Inst. C. E.) made experiments on bars of wrought iron, cast iron, malleable cast iron, Bessemer steel, and tool steel. The bars were tested with tensile and transverse strains, and also by impact, half of them at a temperature of 40° F., and the other half at 5° F.; the lower temperature was obtained by placing the bars in a freezing mixture being taken to keep the bars covered with it during the whole of the experiments.

The results of the experiments were summarized as follows:

1. When bars of wrought iron or steel were submitted to a tensile strain and broken, their strength was not affected by severe cold (5° F.). Brittleness was increased about 1% in iron and 3% in steel.

2. When bars of cast iron were submitted to a transverse strain at low temperature, their strength was diminished about 3% and their flex about 10%.

3. When bars of wrought iron, malleable cast iron, steel, and ordinary cast iron were subjected to impact at a temperature of 5° F., the force required to break them, and the extent of their flexibility, were reduced as follows, viz.:

	Reduction of Force of Impact, per cent.	Reduction of ility, per cent.
Wrought iron, about	3	10
Steel (best cast tool), about	3½	17
Malleable cast iron, about	4½	18
Cast iron, about	21	not taken

The experience of railways in Russia, Canada, and other countries in the winter is severe in that the breakages of rails are far more numerous in the cold weather than in the summer. On this account a softer class of steel is employed in Russia for rails than is usual in temperate climates.

The evidence extant in relation to this matter leaves no doubt that the capability of wrought iron or steel to resist impact is reduced by cold; the other hand, its static strength is not impaired by low temperature.

Effect of Low Temperatures on Strength of Rails

Axles. (Thos. Andrews Proc. Inst. C. E., 1891.)—Axles 6 ft. 6 in. between centres of journals, total length 7 ft. 3½ in., diameter at middle, at wheel sets 5½ in., journals 3½ in. were tested by impact at temperatures of 0° and 100° F. Between the blows each axle was half turned and was also replaced for 15 minutes in the water-bath.

The mean force of concussion resulting from each impact was as follows:

Let h = height of free fall in feet, w = weight of test ball, Area = energy, or work in foot-tons, x = extent of deflections between blows

$$\text{then } F \text{ (mean force)} = \frac{W}{x} = \frac{hw}{x}$$

the of these experiments show that whereas at a temperature of an average mean force of 170 tons was sufficient to cause the of the axes, at a temperature of 100° F. a total average mean of tons was requisite to produce fracture. In other words, the of the axes at a temperature of 0° F. was only about of it was at a temperature of 100° F. The total deflection at a temperature of 0° F. was 6.48 in., as 46 in. with the axes at 100° F. under the conditions stated; this an ultimate reduction of flexibility, under the test of impact, of for the cold axes at 0° F., compared with the warm axes at

EXPANSION OF IRON AND STEEL BY HEAT.

Howard, engineer in charge of the U. S. testing machine at Watertown, Mass., gives the following results of tests made on bars 35 inches long (see page 10, April 10, 1890):

No.	Marks.	Chemical composition.				Coefficient of Expansion.
		C.	Mn.	Si.	Fe by difference.	Per degree F. per unit of length.
Iron.						.0000067302
	1a	.09	.11		99.80	.0000067361
	2a	.20	.45		99.35	.0000066250
	3a	.51	.57		99.12	.0000065119
	4a	.57	.70		98.98	.000006507
	5a	.51	.58	.02	99.39	.0000066202
	6a	.57	.93	.07	98.43	.0000063891
	7a	.71	.58	.08	98.63	.0000064716
	8a	.81	.50	.17	98.46	.0000062167
	9a	.89	.57	.19	98.35	.0000062935
	10a	.97	.80	.28	97.95	.0000061700
Steel.						.0000059261
Steel.						.0000061286

DURABILITY OF IRON, CORROSION, ETC.

Quality of Cast Iron.—Frederick Graff, in an article on the of water-supply, says that the first cast-iron pipe used there was of These pipes were made of charcoal-iron, and were in constant use. They were uncoated, and the inside was well filled with In salt water good cast iron, even uncoated, will last for a century; but it often becomes soft enough to be cut by a knife, as is an cannon taken up from the bottom of harbors after long submergence. Fine-grained, hard white metal lasts the longest in sea water.—*ibid.*, April 23, 1887, and March 26, 1892.

Iron after Forty Years' Service. A square link 12 inches thick and about 12 feet long was taken from the Kioff in 40 years old, and tested in comparison with a similar link which was preserved in the stock-house since the bridge was built. The following record of a mean of four longitudinal test-pieces, 1 × 1½ × 9 inches from each link (*Stahl und Eisen*, 1890):

	Old Link taken from Bridge.	New Link from Store-house.
Strength per square inch, tons	21.8	22.2
Elongation, per cent.	11.1	11.5
Reduction, per cent.	14.05	13.42
Reduction, per cent.	15.35	18.75

Quality of Iron in Bridges. (G. Lindenthal, *Eng'n*, May 2, 1890.)—The Old Monongahela suspension bridge in Pittsburgh, Pa., was taken down in 1882. The wires of the cables were found to be half of their ultimate strength, yet on testing them after 37

use they showed a tensile strength of from 72,700 to 100,000 lbs. per inch. The elastic limit was from 67,100 to 78,600 lbs. per square inch at point of fracture, 35% to 75%. Their diameter was 0.13 in.

A new ordinary telegraph wire of same gauge tested for elongation showed: T. S., of 100,000 lbs.; E. L., 81,550 lbs.; reduction, 55%. Used as stays or suspenders showed: T. S., 43,770 to 49,720 lbs. per inch; E. L., 36,380 to 29,200. Mr. Lindenthal draws these conclusions from his tests:

"The above tests indicate that iron highly strained for a long time, years, but still within the elastic limit, and exposed to slight vibrations, does not deteriorate in quality.

"That if subjected to only one kind of strain it will not change its texture even if strained beyond its elastic limit, for many years. It will behave much as in a testing-machine during a long test.

"That iron will change its texture only when exposed to alternate straining, as in bending in different directions. If the bending is very rapid, as in violent vibrations, the effect is the same."

Corrosion of Iron Bolts.—(On bridges over the Thames.) Iron bolts exposed to the action of the atmosphere and rain-water were away in 25 years from a diameter of $\frac{3}{8}$ in. to $\frac{1}{4}$ in., and from $\frac{1}{2}$ in. to $\frac{1}{8}$ in.

Wire ropes exposed to drip in colliery shafts are very liable to corrosion. **Corrosion of Iron and Steel.**—Experiments made at the Iron Works, Wheeling, W. Va., on the comparative liability to rust of soft Bessemer steel: A piece of iron plate and a similar piece of steel, both clean and bright, were placed in a mixture of yellow loam with which had been thoroughly incorporated some carbonate of soda, ammonium chloride, and chloride of magnesium. The pieces were kept moist. At the end of 33 days the pieces of iron taken out, cleaned, and weighed, when the iron was found to have lost of its weight and the steel 0.72%. The pieces were replaced and after 66 days again, when the iron was found to have lost 2.06% of its weight and the steel 1.79%. (*Eng'g*, June 26, 1891.)

Corrosive Agents in the Atmosphere.—The experiments of Grace Chilvert (*Chemical News*, March 3, 1871) show that carbonic acid, the presence of moisture, is the agent which determines the corrosion of iron in the atmosphere. He subjected perfectly cleaned blanks of steel to the action of different gases for a period of four months, with the following results:

Dry oxygen, dry carbonic acid, a mixture of both gases, dry hydrogen, and ammonia: no oxidation. Damp oxygen: in three experiments only was slightly oxidized.

Damp carbonic acid: slight appearance of a white precipitate of iron, found to be carbonate of iron. Damp carbonic acid and ammonia: oxidation very rapid. Iron immersed in water containing carbonic acid oxidized rapidly.

Iron immersed in distilled water deprived of its gases by boiling, the iron in spots that were found to contain impurities.

Galvanic action is a most active agent of corrosion. It is produced when two metals, one electro-negative to the other, are placed in contact and exposed to dampness.

Sulphurous acid (the product of the combustion of the sulphur in coal) is an exceedingly active corrosive agent, especially when the exposed surface is covered with soot. This accounts for the rapid corrosion of iron in bridges exposed to the smoke from locomotives. (See account of experiments by the author on action of sulphurous acid in *Iron*, Frank & Co., 1875, p. 437.) An analysis of sooty iron rust from a railway bridge showed the presence of sulphurous, sulphuric, and carbonic acids, and ammonia. Blexam states that ammonia is formed from the nitrogen in the air during the process of rusting.

Rustless Coatings for Iron and Steel.—Tinning, enamelling, galvanizing, electro-chemical painting, and other protective methods are discussed in two important papers by M. P. Wood, *A. S. M. E.*, vols. xv and xvi.

A Method of Producing an Inoxidizable Surface on Iron and Steel by means of electricity has been developed by M. P. Wood (*Engineering*, 1891). The article to be protected is placed in a bath of an electrolyte, such as salt water, at a temperature of from 150° to 175° F. A direct current is sent through. The water is decomposed into hydrogen and oxygen.

and hydrogen, and the oxygen is deposited on the metal, while the carbon appears at the other pole, which may either be the tank in which the solution is conducted or a plate of carbon or metal. The current has sufficient electromotive force to overcome the resistance of the circuit and decompose the water; for if it be stronger than this, the oxygen comes from the iron to produce a pulverulent oxide, which has no adhesion. Under conditions as they should be, it is only a few minutes after the current appears at the metal before the darkening of the surface shows that a gas has united with the iron to form the magnetic oxide Fe_3O_4 . It is well known will resist the action of the air and protect the metal from rust. After the action has continued an hour or two the coating is very solid to resist the scratch-brush, and it will then take a brilliant

polish. Piece of thickly rusted iron be placed in the bath, its sesquioxide is rapidly transformed into the magnetic oxide. This outer layer of adhesion, but beneath it there will be found a coating which is a part of the metal itself.

Early experiments M. de Meritens employed pieces of steel only, wrought and cast iron he was not successful, for the coating came off at the slightest friction. He then placed the iron at the negative pole of a battery, after it had been already applied to the positive pole. Here the current was reduced, and hydrogen was accumulated in the pores of the metal. The specimens were then returned to the anode, when it was found that the coating appeared quite readily and was very solid. But the result was quite perfect, and it was not until the bath was filled with distilled water, instead of that from the public supply, that a perfectly satisfactory result was attained.

Japanese Plating of Iron as a Protection from Rust.

According to the Italian *Progresso*, articles of iron can be protected from rust by sinking them near the negative pole of an electric bath containing 1 litre of water, 50 grammes of chloride of manganese, and 200 grammes of nitrate of ammonium. Under the influence of the current the oxide on the articles a film of metallic manganese which prevents rusting.

Non-oxidizing Process of Annealing is described by H. Jones, in *Engineering News*, Jan. 2, 1892. The ordinary process of annealing, of which hard and brittle iron or steel is rendered soft and tough, consists in heating the metal to a good red-heat and then allowing it to cool.

While the metal is in a heated condition the surface becomes oxidized, and although for many classes of work the scale of oxide is of no importance, yet in some cases it is very undesirable and even a considerable expense in its removal.

The new process uses a non-oxidizing gas, and is the invention of Mr. H. Jones, of Hartford, Conn. The principal feature of this process is in keeping the annealing-retort in communication with the gas supply, so that during the entire process of heating and cooling, the gas is allowed to expand back into the main, and being, therefore, practically constant pressure.

The retorts used are made from wrought-iron tubes. The gas used is city gas from the mains supplying the city with illuminating gas. It is found that if metal which had been blued or slightly oxidized was subjected to the annealing process it came out bright, the oxide being reduced by the action of the gas. Practical use has been made of this fact in deoxidizing.

Five tests were made of specimens of metal annealed in illuminating gas and of specimens annealed in nitrogen. The results of these tests were compared with the results of tests of specimens annealed in an open retort, and of specimens of the unannealed metal, and the relative efficiency of the gas process was determined.

Specimens were made from steel wire, .188 in. in diameter and were drawn to diameters of .156 and .150 in. Different lots of wire were used in order to secure average results. The elongations were in each case reduced to an original length of 1.15 ins.

The difference in total per cent of elongation and in breaking load between specimens annealed in nitrogen and those annealed in illuminating gas was not great. The average results were as follows:

Lot.	Gas used.	No. Test Pieces.	Breaking Load, lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation.	
				Total p. c.	p. c. 2 in.
A	Nitrogen	4	82,140	29.12	22.8
B	Illuminating	4	53,140	38.08	27.2
C	Nitrogen	4	60,000	28.00	19.7
D	Illuminating	4	60,400	27.30	13.7
E	Nitrogen	5	57,230	30.88	23.7
F	Illuminating	5	57,070	29.60	22.2
G	Open fire	8	63,090	26.76	19.8
H	Unannealed	5	97,120	7.12	...
I	Unannealed	5	80,700	8.80	...

Painting Wood and Iron Structures. (E. H. Brown, in *Cloth of Phila., Engineering News*, April 20, 1893.)—A paint consists of two portions—the pigment and the vehicle or binder. The pigment is a substance which is more or less finely ground, so as to be capable of being spread out in a thin layer or coating on the surface to be painted. The vehicle or binder is the liquid in which the pigment is mixed or ground, which serves to spread the pigment over the surface to be painted, and which also holds it to that surface. For the most part the most generally used vehicle is linseed oil.

Linseed oil possesses the peculiar property of drying by uniting with the oxygen of the air to form a tough, leather-like compound called linseed. For painting on wood, zinc white has valuable pigment properties. These seem to be most fully developed when this pigment is mixed in conjunction with white lead, and then to the best advantage when the mixture is used as a final coat over an elastic under-coating of white lead. So far as other white base has been discovered which possesses at the same time the other properties which render white lead valuable, namely, covering and spreading capacity.

Of the inert pigments, lampblack is probably the most valuable. It is almost pure carbon, it is practically unchangeable except by fire. It has the peculiar property of absorbing great quantities of linseed oil, and hence spreading over a large surface. French ochre, an earth pigment consisting of more or less of the hydrated oxide of iron, possesses the property of absorbing a large quantity of oil, and hence has considerable spreading capacity, and also holds very firmly to any wooden surface to which it may be applied.

The various mineral and metallic paints are almost all natural or artificial iron oxides. While these are cheap and useful for painting rough iron structures they are sometimes really quite dangerous for application on wood, because, instead of preventing oxidation, they are apt to furnish a nidus for it.

Coal tar is much used as a paint for the roughest class of work, both on wood and iron; in the latter case especially for cast-iron pipes, smokestacks, and work to be buried underground. It has the nature both of a resin and of an asphalt. It has the disadvantage of becoming exceedingly brittle by the action of weathering at 115° F. Asphalt permits of somewhat wider range of temperature, but otherwise exhibits the same peculiarities. These substances, when they are probably the most valuable of paints, especially under conditions of exposure to which they are applied, finally leaving the upper portions almost bare. This is the case even underground.

Red lead has long been regarded as the best possible preservative for iron. But in order to be most effective, the iron must be perfectly clean and free from any suspicion of rust, and absolutely dry. Red lead must be perfectly pure and of the best and most careful preparation. The only well known corroding house may be depended upon for purity, and always for quality. It is simply a red oxide of lead. The best type of red lead mineral, which is made by roasting white lead. On account of its cost this is not so frequently used as it would deserve. Red lead prepared directly from the metal, which is first oxidized to the yellow litharge, and then to the red oxide. This, however, does not give as good a result as the red lead prepared by roasting white lead. Up, settlings, and tailings of the white lead process, mixed up quickly with linseed oil, it must be used with caution, and, moreover, it is rather difficult to

is a great temptation to add some substance, such as whiting, to make it work freer, as well as to cost less money for material. In painting iron work it is essential that the iron itself should be abraded from rust. Rust has the peculiar property of spreading and forming a centre, if there be the slightest chance to do so. Hence, a spot of rust on the iron may grow under the surface of the paint, if it be true, as Dr. Dudley asserts, that linseed oil is permeable to moisture, and in time the paint will be flaked off by the rust thus gradually exposing the bare surface of the iron to the action of the drying agent, oxygen in the presence of water. It is necessary to remove the scale possible from wrought iron by means of stiff wire and to remove the rust by a pickle of very dilute acid, which should be thoroughly washed off before the paint is applied. The iron should be dry and at least moderately warmed before it is painted. The best method of painting a tin roof is to carefully remove the oil or grease from the surface of the tin while it is yet bright, then to apply a coat of red lead and linseed oil, or the best asphaltic paint, and to follow this with one or two coats of graphite paint, which is almost unchangeable by atmospheric action, and is waterproof as well.

As a Preservative of Iron.—A. J. Whitney writes to *Science*, August, 1891, that in 30 years' experience he has found red lead to be the best material for preserving iron under all circumstances.

Quantity of Paint Required for a Given Surface. (M. P. Wood.)— $1 \text{ ft. of surface} \div 200 = \text{gallons of liquid paint for two coats; sq. ft.} \div 18 = \text{lbs. of pure white lead for three coats.}$

Properties of Paints.—*The Railroad and Engineering Journal*, vols. 10 and 1891, has a series of articles on paint as applied to wooden structures, its chemical nature, application, adulteration, etc., by Dr. C. B. Smith, and F. N. Pease, assistant chemist, of the Penna. R. R. The results of a long series of experiments on paint as applied to wood.

Graphite Paint. (M. P. Wood.)—Graphite, mixed with pure boiled linseed oil, in which a small percentage of litharge, red lead, manganese, or iron salt has been added at the time of boiling to aid in the oxidation, forms a most effective paint for metallic surfaces, as well as for fibrous substances. Wood surfaces protected by this paint, from the action of sea-water for a number of years, are found in good state of preservation.

STEEL.

RELATION BETWEEN THE CHEMICAL COMPOSITION AND PHYSICAL CHARACTER OF STEEL.

Water (see *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vols. xxi and xxii, 1893-4) gives several hundred analyses and tensile tests of basic Bessemer steel. From a study of them draws conclusions as to the relation of composition to strength, the chief of which are condensed as follows:

One of the facts is that a pure iron, without carbon, phosphorus, manganese, or sulphur, if it could be obtained, would have a tensile strength of 14,750 lbs. per square inch, if tested in a $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plate. With this as a basis, a table is constructed by adding the following hardening power by increase of tensile strength, for the several elements

constant effect of 900 lbs. for each 0.01%.

the effect is higher in high-carbon than in low-carbon steels, as hundreds of... 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17
has an effect of lbs. 900 1000 1100 1200 1300 1400 1500 1600 1700
the effect decreases as the per cent of manganese increases.

per cent.....	{	.00	.15	.20	.25	.30	.35	.40	.45	.50	.55
		to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to
		15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60

values for .01% 240 240 240 240 240 240 240 240 240 240 240
from 0 Mn... 3000 4200 5000 6000 7000 8000 9000 10,000 11,000

Silicon is so low in this steel that its hardening effect has been considered.

With the above additions for carbon and phosphorus the following has been constructed (abridged from the original by Mr. Webster) figures given the additions for sulphur and manganese should be above.

Estimated Ultimate Strengths of Basic Bessemer Plates.

For Carbon, .08 to .24; Phosphorus, .00 to .10; Manganese and Sulphur in all cases.

Carbon.	.08	.08	.10	.12	.14	.16	.18	.20
Phos. .005	39,950	41,550	43,250	44,950	46,650	48,300	49,900	51,500
" .01	40,350	41,950	43,750	45,550	47,350	49,050	50,750	52,500
" .02	41,150	42,750	44,750	46,750	48,750	50,550	52,150	53,750
" .03	41,950	43,550	45,750	47,950	50,150	52,050	53,650	55,250
" .04	42,750	44,350	46,750	49,150	51,550	53,550	55,150	56,750
" .05	43,550	45,150	47,750	50,350	52,950	55,050	56,650	58,250
" .06	44,350	45,950	48,750	51,550	54,350	56,550	58,150	59,750
" .07	45,150	46,750	49,750	52,750	55,750	58,050	59,650	61,250
" .08	45,950	47,550	50,750	53,950	57,150	59,550	61,150	62,750
" .09	46,750	48,350	51,750	55,150	58,550	61,050	62,650	64,250
" .10	47,550	49,150	52,750	56,350	59,950	62,550	64,150	65,750
.001 Phos =	80 lbs.	80 lbs.	100 lb.	100 lb.	120 lb.	120 lb.	150 lb.	150 lb.

In all rolled steel the quality depends on the size of the bloom from which it is rolled, the work put on it, and the temperature at which it is finished, as well as the chemical composition.

The above table is based on tests of plates $\frac{3}{4}$ inch thick and 36 inches wide; for other plates Mr. Webster gives the following corrections for thickness and width. They are made necessary only by the thickness and width on the finishing temperature in ordinary steel is frequently spoiled by being finished at too high a temperature.

Corrections for Size of Plates.

Plates.	Up to 70 ins. wide. Over 70
Inches thick.	Lbs.
$\frac{3}{4}$ and over.....	- 2000
11/16 ".....	- 1750
$\frac{5}{8}$ ".....	- 1500
9/16 ".....	- 1250
$\frac{7}{8}$ ".....	- 1000
7/16 ".....	- 500
$\frac{5}{8}$ ".....	0
5/16 ".....	+ 3000

Comparing the actual result of tests of 408 plates with the results, Mr. Webster found the variation to range as in the table.

Summary of the Differences Between Calculated and Actual Results in 408 Tests of Plate Steel.

In the first three columns the effects of sulphur were not considered; in the last three columns the effect of sulphur was estimated at each 0.01% of S.

	Universal Mill.	Sheared.	Both Mills.	Universal Mill.	Sheared.
Percent within 1000 lbs.,	23.4	32.1	25.4	21.6	24.0
" " " 2000	40.9	42.0	45.6	42.5	44.0
" " " 3000	62.5	71.2	67.6	67.8	73.0
" " " 4000	75.5	81.0	78.7	82.5	85.0
" " " 5000	80.5	91.1	90.4	93.0	95.0

figure in the table would indicate that if specifications were drawn for steel plates not to vary more than 5000 lbs. T. S. from a specified ton to a total range of 10,000 lbs.), there would be a probability of one of 5% of the blooms rolled, even if the whole lot was made of identical chemical analysis. In 1000 heats only 2% of the heats meet the requirements of the orders on which they were graded; if plates was much less than 1%, as one plate was rolled from each heat before rolling the remainder of the heat.

Radfield (*Jour. Iron & Steel Inst.*, No. 1, 1894) gives the strength of Swedish iron, remelted and tested as cast, 20.1 tons (45,034 lbs.) as cast; remelted and forged, 21 tons (47,040 lbs.). The analysis of the metal was: C, 0.08; Si, 0.04; S, 0.02; P, 0.02; Mn, 0.01; Fe, 99.82.

Effect of Oxygen upon Strength of Steel.—A. Lantz, of the Iron Works, Germany, in a letter to Mr. Webster, says: "We have found in the current year (1893) that oxygen plays an important rôle, till now unexplained—such, indeed, that given a like content of carbon, phosphorus, manganese in the blows, a blow with greater oxygen content gives more hardness and less ductility than a blow with less oxygen content." The method used for determining oxygen is that of Prof. Ledebur, given in *Iron & Steel*, May, 1892, p. 193. The variation in oxygen content may be a difference in strength of nearly one-half ton per square inch. (*Iron & Steel Inst.*, No. 1, 1894.)

OF VARIATION IN STRENGTH OF BESSEMER AND OPEN-HEARTH STEELS.

Carnegie Steel Co. in 1888 published a list of 1057 tests of Bessemer and open-hearth steel, from which the following figures are selected:

Kind of Steel.	No. of Tests.	Elastic Limit.		Ultimate Strength.		Elongation per cent in 8 inches.	
		High't.	Lowest	High't.	Lowest	High't.	Lowest
Structural.....	100	46,570	39,230	71,300	61,450	21.00	23.75
".....	170	47,090	39,370	73,540	65,200	30.25	23.15
Angles.....	72	41,890	32,630	63,450	50,130	24.30	26.25
Fire-box.....	25	62,790	50,350	36.00	23.22
".....	19	66,062	59,440	27.50	19.35
Bridge.....	20	69,840	63,970	30.90	22.75

REQUIREMENTS OF SPECIFICATIONS.

Elastic limit, 35,000; tensile strength, 62,000 to 70,000; elong. 22% in 8 in.
 Elastic limit, 40,000; tensile strength, 67,000 to 75,000.
 Elastic limit, 30,000; tensile strength, 56,000 to 64,000; elong. 20% in 8 in.
 Elastic strength, 50,000 to 62,000; elong. 20% in 4 in.
 Elastic strength, 60,000 to 65,000; elong. 18% in 8 in.
 Elastic strength, 64,000 to 70,000; elong. 20% in 8 in.

Strength of Open-hearth Structural Steel. (Pencoyd Iron

As a general rule, the percentage of carbon in steel determines its strength and strength. The higher the carbon the harder the steel, the less the tenacity, and the lower the ductility will be. The following list gives the average physical properties of good open-hearth steel:

Ultimate Tensile, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Stretch in 8 inches.	Reduction of Area, %.
57,000	34,000	28 per cent.	55 per cent.
62,000	37,000	26 "	50 "
67,000	40,000	24 "	45 "
72,000	43,000	22 "	40 "
77,000	46,000	20 "	35 "
82,000	49,000	18 "	30 "
87,000	52,000	16 "	25 "

Coefficient of elasticity is practically uniform for all grades of steel, the average for iron, viz., 29,000,000 lbs. These figures form the average series of tests from rolled bars, and can only serve as

proximation in single instances, when the variation from 10 to 15 carbon should be capable of without fracture, after being chilled from a red heat in oil. Steel below .10 carbon will occasionally submit to the same treatment; .15 carbon will occasionally submit to the same treatment, usually bend around a curve whose radius is equal to that of the specimen; about 90% of specimens stand the latter bending test without fracture. As the steel becomes harder its ability to endure the test becomes more exceptional, and when the carbon runs a little over 25% of specimens will stand the last-described bending test. Having about .40% carbon will usually harden sufficiently to bend and maintain an edge.

Mehrtens gives the following tables in *Stahl und Eisen* (Frankfurt, 1893):

Basic Bessemer Steel. 680 Charges.		Basic Open-hearth Tural Steel. 489 Charges.	
Elastic Limit, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Elastic Limit, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
35,500 to 38,400.....	15.0	34,400 to 37,000.....	15.0
38,400 to 39,800.....	31.6	37,000 to 38,400.....	31.6
39,800 to 41,300.....	27.5	38,400 to 39,800.....	27.5
41,300 to 42,700.....	16.0	39,800 to 41,300.....	16.0
42,700 to 46,400.....	9.9	41,300 to 42,700.....	9.9
Tensile Strength, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Tensile Strength, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
55,600 to 56,900.....	18.67	55,600 to 56,900.....	18.67
56,900 to 58,300.....	38.67	56,900 to 58,300.....	38.67
58,300 to 59,700.....	29.53	58,300 to 59,700.....	29.53
59,700 to 61,200.....	15.60	59,700 to 61,200.....	15.60
61,200 to 62,300.....	8.53	61,200 to 62,300.....	8.53
STRUCTURAL STEEL.		Rivet Steel.	
Elongation, per cent.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Elongation, per cent.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
21 to 25.....	2.65	20 to 25.....	2.65
25 to 26.....	8.53	25 to 26.....	8.53
26 to 27.....	17.35	26 to 27.....	17.35
27 to 28.....	26.76	27 to 28.....	26.76
28 to 29.....	23.68	28 to 29.....	23.68
29 to 30.....	14.41	29 to 30.....	14.41
30 to 32.5.....	6.62	30 to 32.5.....	6.62
RIVET STEEL.		Rivet Steel.	
25.2 to 26.....	20.0	51,800.....	20.0
26 to 27.....	15.0	51,800 to 53,300.....	15.0
27 to 28.....	25.0	53,300 to 54,900.....	25.0
28 to 29.....	25.0	54,900 to 56,300.....	25.0
29 to 29.8.....	15.0	56,300 to 56,900.....	15.0

In the basic Bessemer steel over 90% was below 0.06 phosphorus, below 0.10; manganese was below 0.6 in over 90%, and below 0.5 in over 84%, the maximum being 0.07; and sulphur was below 0.05 in 84%, the maximum being 0.07; and 0.10, and silicon below 0.01 in all. In the basic open-hearth steel was below 0.06 in 90%, the maximum being 0.08; manganese below 0.07 in 88%, the maximum being 0.12. The steel was below 0.09 to 0.11.

Low Tensile Strength of Very Pure Steel.—Soft open-hearth steel, tested by the author in 1881, showed a tensile strength of only 42,594 lbs. per sq. in. A piece of American mild steel showed a tensile strength of 48,000 lbs. per sq. in. Both steels contained about .10 carbon and .01% sulphur, and were very low in sulphur, manganese, and silicon. The test bars were about 2 x 3/8 in. section.

Low Strength Due to Insufficient Work.—Trans. A. I. M. E., 1885.—Soft steel ingots, made in the open-hearth, and rolled down from 10,000 to 20,000 lbs. tensile strength, and then reheated in oil, and a reduction of 6% in tensile strength was observed.

from 55,000 to 65,000 lbs. tensile strength, an elongation of 27 to 33%, and a reduction of area of from 55% to 70%. Any part of the above reduction in thickness ordinarily yields in its tensile tests.

of Soft Steel.—A. E. Hunt (Trans. A. I. M. E., 1883, vol. 11). Steel, no matter how low in carbon, will harden to a certain degree by being heated red hot and plunged into water, and that it will harden more by being plunged into brine and less when quenched in oil.

was a heat of open-hearth steel of 0.15% carbon and 0.29% of phosphorus gave the following results upon test-pieces from the same

	Maximum Load. lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation in 8 in. Per cent.	Reduction of Area. Per cent.
quenched in water.....	55,000	27	62
quenched in brine.....	74,000	25	50
quenched in oil.....	84,000	22	43
	67,700	28	49

ductility of such hardened steel does not decrease to the extent that tenacity would indicate, and is much superior to that of the high tenacity, still the greatly increased tenacity after hardening that there must be a considerable molecular change in the steel, and that if such a hardening should be created in plate, there must be very dangerous internal strains caused

Cold Rolling.—Cold rolling of iron and steel increases the ultimate strength, and decreases the ductility. Major experiments on bars rolled and polished cold by Lanth's process show an increase of load required to give a slight permanent set in reverse, 10%; torsion, 130%; compression, 16% on short bars, and 6% on columns 8 in. long; tension, 95%. The hardening by the weight required to produce equal indentations, and it was found that the hardness was as great in the center as elsewhere. Sir W. Fairbairn's experiments showed an ultimate tensile strength of 50%, and a reduction in the elongation of 1 in. or 30%, to 0.75 in. or 7.5%.

of Tests of Full-size Eye-bars and Sample of Same Steel Used in the Memphis Bridge.

(Geo. S. Morison, Trans. A. S. C. E., 1893.)

Full-size Eye-bars, 1½ in. x 1 to 3 3/16 in. thick.			Sample Bars from Same Melts, about 1 in. area.			
Ratio.	Elastic Limit.	Max. Load.	Reduction.	Elongation.	Elastic Limit.	Max. Load.
p. c.	lbs. per sq. in.		p. c.	p. c.	lbs. per sq. in.	
10.8	35,100	67,490	47.5	27.5	41,580	73,050
8.2	37,380	70,100	52.0	24.4	42,050	75,620
11.8	39,700	65,500	47.9	28.8	40,280	70,280
17.3	33,140	65,060	47.5	27.5	41,580	73,050
13.5	32,560	65,600	44.5	20.0	43,750	75,000
15.3	31,110	61,060	42.7	28.8	42,210	69,730
18.7	33,990	63,220	52.2	28.1	40,380	69,720
13.5	29,220	63,100	48.3	28.8	38,060	71,300
6.9	28,190	55,160	43.2	24.2	38,320	70,220
14.1	29,670	62,140	50.6	20.3	40,200	71,080
11.8	32,700	65,400	40.3	25.0	39,360	69,360
19.3	30,500	58,870	40.3	25.0	40,910	70,360
12.3	33,360	73,550	51.5	25.5	40,410	69,000
15.7	32,520	60,710	45.6	27.0	40,400	70,490
14.9	28,000	58,720	44.4	29.5	40,000	66,300
13.1	32,230	62,270	42.8	21.9	40,520	68,200
15.1	29,970	58,680	45.7	27.0	40,610	68,200

Length of the full-sized eye-bars was about 8000 lbs. less than that of the sample test-pieces.

TREATMENT OF STRUCTURAL STEEL

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Effect of Punching and Shearing.—There is a loss of tensile strength of higher tensile strength steel, it is 2.5 percent for structural steel should not be punched or sheared, or that low-tensile steels can be punched or sheared, or that low-tensile steels can be punched or sheared. But extensive evidence is furnished indicating that steel of 20,000 lb. per sq. in. of moderate thickness and tensile strength, including high tensile strength, is not affected by the process of punching or shearing. The physical effects of punching and shearing as decided by tensile tests are far less than those of the process of rolling.

Reduction of ductility.—elevation of tensile strength at elastic limit of steel of ultimate tensile strength.

In very thin material the superficial disturbance described is less than that, in fact, a degree of thickness is reached where this disturbance practically ceases. On the contrary, as thickness is increased the disturbance becomes more evident.

The effects described do not invariably ensue, for unknown reasons they are sometimes marked deviations from what seems to be a general rule.

By thoroughly annealing sheared or punched steels the ductility is largely restored and the exaggerated elastic limit reduced, the effect being modified by the temperature of reheating and the method of cooling.

It is probable that the best results combined with least expenditure can be obtained by punching all holes where vital strains are not transferred to the rivets; and by reaming for important joints where strains at rivet joints are vital, or wherever perforation may reduce sections to a minimum. The reaming should be sufficient to thoroughly remove the material disturbed by punching; to accomplish this it is best to enlarge punched holes at least $\frac{1}{8}$ in. diameter with the reamer.

Riveting.—It is the current practice to perforate holes $\frac{1}{16}$ in. less than the rivet diameter. For work to be reamed it is also a usual requirement to punch the holes from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{16}$ in. less than the finished diam. the holes being reamed to the proper size after the various parts are assembled.

It is also excellent practice to remove the sharp corner at both ends of the reamed holes, so that a fillet will be formed at the junction of the rivet and head of the finished rivets.

The rivets of either iron or mild steel should be heated to a bright red-yellow heat and subjected to a pressure of not less than 30 tons per sq. inch of sectional area.

For rivets of ordinary length this pressure has been found sufficient to completely fill the hole. If, however, the holes and the rivets are exceptionally long, a greater pressure and a slower movement of the die than is used for shorter rivets has been found advantageous in accomplishing the more sluggish flow of the metal throughout the longer hole.

Welding.—No welding should be allowed on any steel that enters structures.

Upsetting.—Enlarged ends on tension bars for screw-threads, etc., are formed by upsetting the material. With proper treatment sufficient increment of enlarged sectional area over the body of the bar is result is entirely satisfactory. The upsetting process should be performed so that the properly heated metal is compelled to flow without folding or lapping.

Annealing.—The object of annealing structural steel is for the purpose of securing homogeneity of structure that is supposed to be impaired by rapid heating, or by the manipulation necessarily attendant on certain processes. The objects to be annealed should be heated throughout to uniform temperature and uniformly cooled.

The physical effects of annealing, as indicated by tensile tests, depend on the grade of steel, or the amount of hardening elements associated with it, also on the temperature to which the steel is raised, and the method of cooling the heated material.

The physical effects of annealing medium-grade steel, as indicated by tensile tests, are reported very differently by different observers, some showing opposite results from others. It is evident, when all the above factors are considered, that the obtained results must vary both in direction and in magnitude.

the same as wrought iron. A good mild steel can be easily as wrought iron in the shop or the field, and even heat treatment. It was, however, often thought necessary to require annealing to remove the initial strains due to rolling. The amount of great advantage to all steel above 64,000 lbs. per square inch, but it is questionable whether it is necessary in the case of thin plates. The distortions due to heating cause trouble in subsequent work, especially of thin plates. It cannot be denied, however, that annealing gives greater toughness.

It is a mistake to treat all unmachined mild steel for a strength of 56,000 to 60,000 lbs. per square inch. Rough treatment of the work in the same way as wrought iron. Rough treatment at a blue heat must, however, be prohibited. Such treatment is borne by wrought iron, although it does not suffer so much. Shearing is to be avoided, except to prepare rough plates, afterwards to be smoothed by machine tools or files before using. Grinding is to be avoided, because the edges of holes are thereby rounded off the yield point. Reaming drilled holes is not necessary, when sharp drills are used and neat work is done. A slight grinding of the edges of drilled holes is all that is necessary. Work should while heated should be avoided as far as possible, and the work should bear this in mind when designing structures. Upsetting, bending ought to be avoided, but when necessary the material should be annealed after completion.

The forging of a mild-steel rivet should be finished as quickly as possible, to avoid the dangerous heat. For this reason machine work is the special advantage in machine work from the fact that the rivet is retained upon the rivet until it has cooled sufficiently to allow of the consequent loosening of the rivet.

Forging and Drilling of Steel Plates. (Proc Inst. M. E., Vol. 100.)—In Prof. Unwin's report the results of the greater number of experiments made on iron and steel plates lead to the general conclusion that, while thin plates, even of steel, do not suffer very much from punching, yet in those of $\frac{1}{2}$ in. thickness and upwards the loss of tensile strength ranges from 10% to 25% in iron plates and from 15% to 25% in mild steel. Mr. Parker found the loss of tenacity in steel plates punched as high as fully one third of the original strength of the plate. On the contrary, there is no appreciable loss of strength in iron plates punched.

It is to be noted that the loss of strength is not due to the effect of punching, but to the effect of the heat of the punch.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR STEEL.

Steel.—There has been a change during the ten years from the opinions of engineers, as to the requirements in structural steel, in the direction of a preference for metal of low phosphorus and great ductility. The following specifications of different grades are given by A. E. Hunt and G. H. Clapp, Trans. A. I. M. E. 1890,

MEMBERS.	1870.	1881.	1882.	1885.	1887.	1893.
.....	50,000	40@45,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	85,000
.....	50,000	70@80,000	70,000	70,000	67@75,000	63@70,000
% in.....	12%	18%	18%	18%	30%	24%
.....	20%	30%	45%	42%	42%	45%
.....	O.H.	O.H. or B.	O.H.	Not spec.	O.H. or B.	O.H. or B.
MEMBERS:						
.....	Same	50@55,000	50,000	50,000	Same as tension members.	
.....	as	80@90,000	80,000	80,000	"	
% in.....	ten-	12%	15%	15%	"	
.....	slon.	30%	35%	35%	"	

(*Iron Age*, Nov. 3, 1892) says: Regarding steel to be used under boilers as wrought iron, that is, to be punched without treatment to be a decided opinion (and a growing one) among engineers not safe to use steel in this way, when the ultimate tensile force 65,000 lbs. The reason for this is, not so much because marked change in the material of this grade, but because all Bessemer steel, has a tendency to segregations of carbon and phosphorus, producing places in the metal which are harder than they should be. As long as the percentages of carbon and phosphorus the effect of these segregations is inconsiderable; but when they are increased, the existence of these hard spots in the metal is more marked, and it is therefore less adapted to the treatment wrought iron is subjected to.

The consensus of opinion that at an ultimate of 64,000 to 65,000 lbs. of carbon and phosphorus (which are the two hardeners) reach a point where the steel has a tendency to become tender, when subjected to rough treatment.

Steel, therefore, running in ultimate strength from 54,000 to 64,000 lbs., is now generally considered a safe material for this class of work.

W. A. Miller, engineer of tests of Carnegie, Phipps & Co., writes as follows regarding grades of structural steel (*Eng'g News*, June 2, 1892):

Steel.—Steel shall be of three grades—soft, medium, high.

Specimens from finished material for test, cut to size shall have an ultimate strength of from 54,000 to 64,000 lbs. per sq. in. (limit one half the ultimate strength); minimum elongation of 20% (minimum reduction of area at fracture 50%). This grade of steel shall be 100° flat on itself, without sign of fracture on the outside of the piece.

Specimens from finished material for test, cut to size shall have an ultimate strength of 60,000 to 68,000 lbs. per sq. in. (limit one half the ultimate strength); minimum elongation 20% (minimum reduction of area at fracture 40%). This grade of steel shall be 100° to a diameter equal to the thickness of the piece tested, or flaw on the outside of the bent portion.

Specimens from finished material for test, cut to size shall have an ultimate strength of 66,000 to 74,000 lbs. per sq. in. (limit one half the ultimate strength); minimum elongation 20% (minimum reduction of area at fracture 35%). This grade of steel to bend 100° to a diameter equal to three times the thickness of the test-piece, or flaw on the outside of the bent portion.

Engineers' Club of Phila., 1891, gives specifications for structural steel: The phosphorus in acid open-hearth steel must be less than 0.08%, and in all Bessemer or basic steel must be less than 0.05%. It shall be tested in specimens of at least one half square inch in the finished material. Each metal of steel will be tested in rolled, and also widely differing gauges of the same.

The first thing I noticed when I stepped out of the car was the cold. It was a sharp, biting cold that seemed to penetrate my coat. I shivered as I walked towards the building, my hands tucked into my pockets. The air was thick with the scent of old stone and the distant hum of city traffic. I had never before, and I will never again, feel so alone in a crowd.

As I approached the entrance, I saw a man in a dark suit standing near the door. He looked at me for a moment, his expression unreadable. I hesitated, unsure if I should go in. But then I remembered the letter I had just received, the one that had changed everything. I took a deep breath and stepped forward.

The interior of the building was dimly lit, with light streaming in from high windows. The walls were covered in tapestries and the floor was made of polished wood. I walked through a series of corridors, each more ornate than the last. The air was warm and smelled of incense. I felt a sense of awe and wonder as I explored the place.

Finally, I reached a large hall with a high ceiling. In the center of the hall stood a large, ornate table. On the table were several books and a small, glowing object. I approached the table with a sense of purpose, my heart pounding in my chest. I reached out and touched the glowing object, and in that moment, I knew that I had found what I was looking for.



I had found it. The answer to my questions, the key to my destiny. I looked at the glowing object with a mixture of fear and excitement. It was small and delicate, but it felt like it held the power of the universe. I picked it up and held it in my palm, feeling its warmth and the way it seemed to pulse with life.

I looked around the hall, searching for anyone who might see me. But the corridors were empty, and the only sound was the soft hum of the glowing object. I knew that I was alone, and that gave me a sense of freedom. I had no one to worry about, no one to tell me what to do. I was on my own, and I was going to do whatever I wanted.

I looked back at the glowing object, and I saw a reflection of myself in its light. I saw a man who was brave and determined, a man who was not afraid to face the unknown. I saw a man who was ready to do whatever it took to achieve his goals. I saw a man who was the same as I was, and that gave me the courage I needed to move forward.

I took a deep breath and stepped forward, my hand still holding the glowing object. I walked towards the door, my heart pounding in my chest. I knew that I was about to enter a new world, a world of danger and adventure. But I was also about to discover the truth about myself and the world around me. I was ready for whatever came my way, and I was going to make the most of it.

type as stated above for test-bars, and be capable of bending without sign of fracture on the convex surface of the bend.

Ship, and Tank Plates. W. F. Mattes (*Iron Age*, July) contends that the different qualities of steel plates be classified

	Tank.	Ship.	Shell.	Fire-box.
longitudinal	Limit,	55,000	55,000	55,000
8-in. longitudi-	75,000	to 65,000	to 65,000	to 60,000
n, per cent.		20	22½	25
longitudinal				
transverse	Flat.	Flat.	Flat.	Flat.
	{ Over 1 in.	{ Over ½ in.	{ Over ½ in.	{ Flat.
	diam.	diam.	diam.	
limit	0.15	0.10	0.06	0.045
			0.065	0.05
condition	Easy.	Careful.	Close.	Rigid.

manufacturing firm in Pittsburgh advertises six different grades of steel plates as follows:

Fire-box. Extra flange. Flange. Shell. Tank.
Average phosphorus content in these grades is, respectively:
.03 .04 .06 .08 .10.

Specifications for steel plates are the following (1880):

U. S. Navy.—Shell: Tensile strength, 58,000 to 67,000 lbs. per sq. in.; 25% in 8-in. transverse section, 25% in 8 in. longitudinal section. Tensile strength, 50,000 to 58,000 lbs.; elongation, 25% in 8 inches. Requirements: P. not over .035%; S. not over .040%.

Test: Specimen to stand being bent flat on itself.

Test: Steel heated to cherry red, plunged in water 82° F., and curved 1½ times thickness of the plate.

U. S. Navy.—Tensile strength, 58,240 to 67,300 lbs.; elongation in the cold-bending and quenching tests as U. S. Navy.

Boiler-makers' Association.—Tensile strength, 55,000 to 65,000 lbs. in 8 in., 30% for plates ½ in. thick and under; 25% for plates ½ in. and over.

Test: For plates ½ in. thick and under, specimen must bend without fracture; for plates over ½ in. thick, specimen must bend 180° around a mandril, 1½ times the thickness of the

requirements: P. not over .040%; S. not over .030%.

Shipmasters' Association.—Tensile strength, 63,000 to 72,000 lbs. on pieces 6 in. long.

On plates, heated to a low red and cooled in water the temperature is 82° F., to undergo without crack or fracture being curved the diameter of which does not exceed three times of the piece tested.

Shell-plates, Front Tube-plate, and Butt-strips.

(1892.) The metal desired is a homogeneous steel having a tensile strength of 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., and an elongation of 25% in a test 8 in. long. These plates will not be accepted if the test-

strength of less than 55,000 lbs. per sq. in.; 2. An elongation of less than 8 in. long less than 20%; 3. A tensile strength over 60,000 lbs. per sq. in.; should, however, the elongation be 27% or over, plates tested for high strength.

Fire-box Plates, including Back Tube-plate.

(1892.) The metal should show a tensile strength of 60,000 lbs. per sq. in. and an elongation of 28% in a test section originally 8 in. long.

Composition.	Desired.	Will be Rejected.
not above.....	0.18 per cent.	over 0.25, below 0.15
not above.....	0.03	over 0.01
not above.....	0.10	over 0.55
not above.....	0.02	over 0.01
not above.....	0.02	over 0.05
not above.....	0.03	over 0.05

These plates will not be accepted if the test-piece show strength of less than 55,000 lbs. per sq. in.; 2. An elongation originally 8 in. long, less than 25% (30% in plates $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick); strength over 65,000 lbs. per sq. in. (68,000 for plates $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick); however, the elongation be 30% or over, plates will not be accepted; 4. Any single seam or cavity more than $\frac{1}{4}$ in. long, three fractures obtained on test for homogeneity, as described.

Homogeneity test: A portion of the test-piece is nicked, grooved on a machine, transversely about a sixteenth of an inch in three places about $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. apart. The first groove should be on one side, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. from the square end of the piece; the second on the opposite side; and the third, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. from the opposite side from it. The test-piece is then put in a vice, and a groove about $\frac{1}{4}$ in. above the jaw, care being taken to keep the projecting end of the test-piece is then broken off by a hammer, a number of light blows being used, and the bend is taken from the groove. The piece is broken at the other two grooves in the same way. The object of this treatment is to open and render visible any seams due to failure to weld up, or to foreign inter-metallic cavities due to gas bubbles in the ingot. After rupture, a fracture is examined, a pocket lens being used if necessary, the length of the seams and cavities is determined. The length of the cavity determines the acceptance or rejection of the plate.

Dr. C. B. Dudley, chemist of the Penna. R. R. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xx, p. 700), gives as an example of the progressive improvements the following: In the early days of steel boilers the force called for steel of not less than 50,000 lbs. tensile strength, and 25% elongation. Some metal was received having 55,000 lbs. strength, and as the elongation was all right it was accepted. As plates were being flanged in the boiler-shop they cracked in pieces. As a result, an upper limit of 65,000 lbs. tensile strength was established.

Am. Ry. Master Mechanics' Assn., 1894.—Same as Penna. R. R. of 1892, including homogeneity test.

Plate, Tank, and Sheet Steel. (Penna. R. R., 1894.)—Taken lengthwise of each plate, $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick and over, will have a tensile strength of 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., and an elongation of 25% in a section originally 2 in. long.

Sheets will not be accepted if the tests show the tensile strength of less than 55,000 lbs. or greater than 70,000 lbs. per sq. in., nor if the elongation be below 20%.

Steel Billets for Main and Parallel Rods. (Penna. R. R., 1894.)—One billet from each lot of 25 billets or smaller shipments, or parallel rods for locomotives will have a piece drawn in a hammer and a test-section will be turned down on this piece to a diameter of 2 in. long. Such test-piece should show a tensile strength of 85,000 lbs. and an elongation of 15%.

No lot will be acceptable if the test shows less than 80,000 lbs. strength or 12% elongation in 2 in.

Locomotive Spring Steel. (Penna. R. R., 1897.)—Steel of more than 0.01 in. in thickness, or more than 0.02 in. in width, or which break where they are not nicked, or which are nicked and held, fail to break square across where they are returned. The metal desired has the following composition: manganese, 0.25%; phosphorus, not over 0.02%; silicon, not over 0.05%; copper, not over 0.02%.

Shipments will not be accepted which show on analysis: more than 1.10% of carbon, or over 0.50% of manganese, 0.05% of phosphorus, 0.05% of sulphur, and 0.05% of copper.

Steel for Locomotive Driving-axes. (Penna. R. R., 1897.)—Steel for driving axes should have a tensile strength of 85,000 lbs. and an elongation of 15% in section originally 2 in. long and taken midway between centre and circumference of the axle.

Axes will not be accepted if tensile strength is less than 80,000 lbs. or elongation is below 12%.

Steel for Crank-pins. (Penna. R. R., 1898.)—Steel for

certifications of the several dates given

cently between the two ends of the pin was so marked that it determined not to put the lot of 50 pins in use. To guard against this sort in future, the specifications are to be amended to require difference in ultimate strength of the two specimens shall not be more than

For axles. (Penna. R. R., 1891.)—For each 100 axles ordered 101 tested, from which one will be taken at random, and subjected to the following test.

For passenger cars and passenger locomotive and tender trucks made of steel and be rough turned throughout. Two test-pieces from an axle, and the test sections of $\frac{5}{8}$ in. diameter by 2 in. long any part of the axle provided that the centre line of the test-piece from the centre line of the axle. Such test-pieces should have length of 80,000 lbs. per sq. in. and an elongation of 20%. Axles accepted if the tensile strength is less than 75,000 lbs. or the elongation below 15%, nor if the fractures are irregular.

Freight cars and freight-locomotive tender trucks must be made of iron and will be subjected to the following test, which they must stand before use:

For DIAMETER AT CENTRE—Five blows at 20 ft. of a 1640-lb. weight, away between supports 3 ft. apart; axle to be turned over after

For DIAMETER AT CENTRE—Five blows at 25 ft. of a 1640-lb. weight, away between supports 3 ft. apart; axles to be turned over after

For Rails.—P. H. Dudley (Trans. A. S. C. E. 1893) recommends the following chemical composition for rails of the weights specified:

per yard....	60, 65, and 70 lbs.	75 and 80 lbs.	100 lbs.
Carbon.....	.45 to .55%	.50 to .60%	.45 to .75%
Weights: Manganese,	.80% to 1.00%;	silicon, .10% to .15%;	phosphorus, .06%;
	sulphur, not over .07%.		

Itself up to or over 1% increases the hardness and tensile strength rapidly, and at the same time decreases the elongation. The carbon in the early rails ranged from 0.25 to 0.5 of 1%, while in the very heavy sections it has been increased to 0.5, 0.6, and 0.75 of 1%. Good irons and suitable sections it can run from 0.55 to 0.75 of 1% to the section, and obtain fine-grain tough rails with low

carbon is a necessary ingredient in the first place to take up the oxide and in the bath of molten metal during the blow. It also is of great

the diameter without showing cracks or flaws. The steel must be more than .085 of 1% of phosphorus, nor more than .04 of 1% of sulphur.

A lot of 30 successive tests of rivet steel of the low tensile strength and 12 tests of the higher tensile strength gave the following results:

	Low Steel.	High Steel.
Tensile strength, lbs. per sq. in.	51,200 to 54,100	59,100 to 62,000
Elastic limit, lbs. per sq. in.	31,050 to 33,150	32,080 to 34,180
Elongation in 8 in., per cent.	30.5 to 35.25	28.5 to 32.5
Carbon, per cent.11 to .14	.16 to .19
Phosphorus027 to .029	.031 to .033
Sulphur033 to .035	.031 to .033

The safest steel rivets are those of the lowest tensile strength, are the least liable to become hardened and fracture by hammer break from repeated concussive and vibratory strains to which subjected in practice. For calculations of the strength of rivets, tensile strength may be taken as the average of the figures above, 52,655 lbs., and the shearing strength at 45,000 lbs. per sq. in.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES ON STEEL.

May Carbon be Burned Out of Steel?—Experiments of the Laboratory of the Penna. Railroad Co. (Specifications for steel with the steel of spiral springs, show that the place from which are taken for analysis has a very important influence on the carbon found. If the sample is a piece of the round bar, and the taken from the end of this piece, the carbon is always higher; borings are taken from the side of the piece. It is common to find a difference of 0.10% between the centre and side of the bar, and in some difference is as high as 0.24%. Furthermore, experiments made on samples taken from the drawn end of the bar show, usually, less carbon than samples taken from the round part of the bar, even though the bar be taken out of the side in both cases.

Apparently during the process of reducing the metal from the round bar, with successive heatings, the carbon in the outside is burned out.

"Recalescence" of Steel.—If we heat a bar of copper of constant strength, and note carefully the interval of time passing from each degree to the next higher degree, we find the intervals increase regularly, i.e., that the bar heats more and more as its temperature approaches that of the flame. If we substitute steel for one of copper, we find that these intervals increase rapidly to a certain point, when the rise of temperature is suddenly and is greatly retarded or even completely arrested. After this the temperature is resumed, though other like retardations may be temperature rises farther. So if we cool a bar of steel slowly, the temperature is greatly retarded when it reaches a certain point. If the steel contains much carbon, and if certain favorable conditions be maintained, the temperature, after descending regularly, stops spontaneously very abruptly, remains stationary a while, and then descends. This spontaneous reheating is known as "recalescence."

These retardations indicate that some change which absorbs heat occurs within the metal. A retardation while the temperature points to a change which absorbs heat; a retardation during cool to some change which evolves heat. (Henry M. Howe, on "Heat of Steel," Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xxii.)

Effect of Nicking a Steel Bar.—The statement is sometimes made, that, owing to the homogeneity of steel, a bar with a surface crack in one of its edges is liable to fail by the gradual spreading of the crack, thus break under a very much smaller load than a sound bar. It is contended this does not occur, as this metal has a fibrous structure. Benjamin Baker has, however, shown that this theory, at least in static stress is concerned, is opposed to the facts, as he put nicked in specimens of the mild steel used at the Forth Bridge that the tensile strength of the whole was thus reduced by only one per square inch of section. In an experiment by the Union Iron Works, a full sized steel counter-bar, with a screw turned buckle, was tested under a heavy statical stress, and at the same time the buckle was allowed to drop on it from various heights, and was broken by ordinary statical strain, and showed a breaking

per square inch. The longer of the broken parts was then placed fine and put under the following loads, whilst a weight, as already was dropped on it from various heights at a distance of five the sleeve-nut of the turn-buckle, as shown below:

ounds per sq. in.	50,000	55,000	60,000	63,000	65,000
	ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.
fall	2 1	2 6	3 0	4 0	5 0

which was then shifted so as to fall directly on the sleeve-nut, and the load as follows:

specimen in lbs. per square inch	65,350	65,350	68,800
	ft.	ft.	ft.
fall	3	6	6

seen that under this trial the bar carried more than when originally statically, showing that the nicking of the bar by saw-wing had slightly weakened its power of resisting shocks.—*Eng'g News.*

Electric Conductivity of Steel.—Louis Campredon reports in *Le* the results of a series of experiments made to ascertain the relative electric resistance and chemical compositions of steel. The (No. 17, 3 mm. diameter. The results are given in the table below:

Car- bon.	Silicon.	Sulphur.	Phos- phorus.	Manga- nese.	Total.	Electric Resist- ance, Ohms.
0.050	0.020	0.050	0.030	0.210	0.410	127.7
0.100	0.020	0.050	0.040	0.240	0.450	133.0
0.100	0.020	0.060	0.040	0.250	0.480	137.5
0.100	0.020	0.050	0.050	0.310	0.530	140.3
0.120	0.030	0.070	0.050	0.340	0.600	142.7
0.110	0.030	0.060	0.060	0.350	0.610	144.5
0.100	0.020	0.070	0.040	0.400	0.830	149.0
0.120	0.020	0.070	0.070	0.400	0.830	150.3
0.110	0.020	0.060	0.060	0.400	0.750	156.0
0.100	0.030	0.060	0.080	0.540	0.850	173.0

ation of these series of figures shows that the purer and softer steel is its electric conductivity, and, furthermore, that manganese is the element which most influences the conductivity.

Gravity of Soft Steel. (W. Kent, Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv. 1896.) Specimens of boiler-plate of C. 0.14, P. 0.03 gave an average sp. gr. of 7.854, maximum variation 0.008. The pieces were first planed to remove scale indentations, then filed smooth, then cleaned in chromic acid, and then boiled in distilled water, to remove all traces of the surface.

Figures of specific gravity thus obtained by careful experiment on both pieces of steel are, however, too high for use in determining the weight of rolled plates for commercial purposes. The actual average of these plates is always a little less than is shown by the calipers, and because the oxide of iron on the surface, and because the surface is not so smooth and regular. A number of experiments on commercial steel, in comparison of other authorities, led to the figure 7.854 as the specific gravity of open-hearth boiler-plate steel. This figure is considered as being the same figure with change of position of the point (7.854) which expresses the relation of the area of a circle to the circumscribed square. Taking the weight of a cubic foot of water (62.35 lbs. average of several authorities), this figure gives 489.775 (weight of a cubic foot of steel, or the even figure, 490 lbs., may be a convenient figure, and accurate within the limits of the error of 0.1).

A method of approximating the weight of iron plates is to count to weigh 40 lbs. per square foot one inch thick. Taking this as a basis, 23 gives almost exactly the weight of steel boiler-plate (40 × 12 × 1.02 = 489.6 lbs. per cubic foot).

General Failures of Bessemer Steel.—G. H. C. (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv. 1896.) Their paper on "The Inspection of Materials of Construction."

the United States" (Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xix), say: Numerous could be cited to show the unreliability of Bessemer steel for structural purposes. One of the most marked, however, was the following. A plate weighing 30 lbs. to the foot, 20 feet long, on being unloaded it broke in two about 6 feet from one end.

The analyses and tensile tests made do not show any cause for this. The cold and quench bending tests of both the original $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. plates, and of pieces cut from the finished material, gave satisfactory results; the cold-bending tests closing down on themselves without fracture.

Numerous other cases of angles and plates that were so hard as to break off short in punching, or, what was worse, to break in two have come under our observation, and although makers of Bessemer claim that this is just as likely to occur in open hearth as in Bessemer, we have as yet never seen an instance of failure of this kind in Bessemer steel having a composition such as C 0.25%, Mn 0.70%, P 0.004%.

J. W. Wailes, in a paper read before the Chemical Section of the Association for the Advancement of Science, in speaking of failures of steel, states that investigation shows that "these failures in steel of one class, viz. soft steel made by the Bessemer process."

Segregation in Steel Ingots. (A. Pourcel, Trans. A. I. M. E.—H. M. Howe, in his "Metallurgy of Steel," gives a résumé of steel with the results of numerous analyses, bearing upon the phenomenon of segregation.)

In 1881 Mr. Stubbs, of Manchester, showed the heterogeneous analyses made upon different parts of an ingot of large section.

A test-piece taken 34 inches from the head of the ingot 7 5 feet gave by analysis very different results from those of a test-piece inches from the bottom.

	C.	Mn.	Si.	S.
Top	0.92	0.535	0.043	0.161
Bottom	0.37	0.493	0.006	0.025

Windsor Richards says he had often observed in test-pieces of different points of one plate variations of 0.05% of carbon. Segregation is especially pronounced in an ingot in its central portion, and at the space of the piping.

It is most observable in large ingots, but in blocks of smaller and limited dimensions, subjected to the influence of solidification in casting within thick walls will permit, it may still be observed. An ingot of Martin steel, weighing about 1000 lbs., and having a length of 10 feet and a section of 10.24 inches square, gave the following:

	C.	S.	P.
1. Upper section:			
Border	0.330	0.040	0.033
Centre	0.530	0.077	0.027
2. Lower section:			
Border	0.280	0.029	0.006
Centre	0.290	0.030	0.023
3. Middle section:			
Border	0.320	0.025	0.025
Centre	0.320	0.043	0.043

Segregation is less marked in ingots of extra-soft metal cast in moulds of considerable thickness. It is, however, still important to plain the difference often shown by the results of tests on plates from different portions of a plate. Two samples, taken from the ends of a flat ingot, one on the outside and the other in the centre, 7 5 from the upper edge, gave:

	C.	S.	P.
Centre	0.14	0.053	0.072
Exterior	0.11	0.036	0.027

Manganese is the element most uniformly disseminated in the steel.

For cannon of large calibre, if we reject, in addition to the sand and called the *masselotte* (sinking head), one third of the length of the ingot, we can obtain a tube practically homogeneous in composition because the central part is naturally removed by the boring of the extra-soft steels, destined for ship or boiler plates. The only perfectly perfect homogeneity lies in the obtaining of a metal bearing its name of extra-soft metal.

the consequences of segregation must be suppressed by reducing, as possible, the elements subject to liquation.

Uses of Steel for Structural Purposes. (G. G. Davis, A. S. C. E., 1901).—The Pennsylvania Railroad Company used Bessemer steel in American locomotive boilers in the year 1850, but it was too hard and brittle for such use. The first plates of boilers had a tenacity of 85,000 to 92,000 lbs. and an elongation of 15%. The results were not favorable, and the steel works were offered a material of less tenacity and more ductility. The results were therefore reduced to a tenacity of 78,000 lbs. or less, and an elongation of 15% or more. Even with this, between the years 1850 and 1880, many explosions occurred and many careful examinations were made to determine their cause. It was found on examining the boilers that there were incipient changes in the metal, many cracks and points near them were corroded with rust, all caused by flaws in manufacturing. It was evident that the material was not good and that the treatment must be changed. In the beginning of the 1860's, chief engineer of the Lloyds, stated that there was then in the steamer in possession of a steel boiler; a year later there were 168 there were but five large English steamers built of steel, there were 116 building. The use of Bessemer steel in bridges began first on the Dutch State railways in 1863-64, then in England. In 1874 a bridge was built of Bessemer steel in Australia. The first cast steel for bridges was in America, for the St. Louis Arch Bridge, the wire of the East River Bridge. These gave an impetus to the use of cast steel, and before 1880 the Glasgow and Plattsmouth bridges on the Missouri River were also built of cast steel. Steel was used for the first time in the Glasgow Bridge. Since 1880 the use of mild steel in all kinds of engineering structures has steadily

STEEL CASTINGS.

Engineering Congress, Dept. of Marine Eng'g, Chicago, 1893.)

American steel foundries had successfully produced a considerable variety and difficult castings, of which the following are the most specimens:

up to 34,000 lbs.; stern-posts up to 54,000 lbs.; stems up to 11,000 lbs.; shaft-struts up to 32,000 lbs.; up to 7500 lbs.; stern-pipes up to 9000 lbs.

The range of success in these classes of castings since 1890 has ranged from the more difficult forms to 90% in the simpler ones; the tensile strength from 62,000 to 78,000 lbs., elongation from 15% to 25%. The record is that of a guide, cast in January, 1893, which had 60,000 lbs. tensile strength and 15.6% elongation.

Steel castings of which anything is generally known were made for the Philadelphia & Reading R. R. in July, 1847, by the Lehigh Steel Works, now the Midvale Steel Co. The moulds were of a mixture of ground fire-brick, black-lead crucible-pots and fire-clay, and washed with a black-lead wash. The steel was cast in crucibles, and was about as hard as tool steel. The surface was very smooth, but the interior was very much honey-combed. This was before the days when the use of silicon was known for the purpose. The sponginess, which was almost universal, was a great obstacle to the general adoption.

It was to leave the ground pots out of the moulding mixture and to mould with finely ground fire-brick. This was a great improvement, especially in very heavy castings, but this mixture still clung so to the casting that only comparatively simple shapes could be made.

A mould made of such a mixture became almost as hard as the casting, and was such an obstacle to the proper shrinkage of castings, that all complicated in shape, they had so great a tendency to crack in their successful manufacture almost impossible. By this time silicon had been discovered, and the only obstacle in the way of the successful manufacture of steel castings was a suitable moulding mixture. This was ultimately found in mixtures having the various kinds of silica sand as the

most fertile sources of defects in castings is a hard shape can be cast successfully if they are so designed.

cool uniformly. Mr. Cramp says while he is not yet prepared to do anything that can be cast successfully in iron can be cast in steel, it seems to point that way in all cases where it is possible to provide sinking-heads for feeding the casting.

H. L. Gantt (Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 710) says: Steel castings shrink much more than iron ones, but with less regularity. The shrinkage varies with the composition and the heat of the metal; the more the metal the greater the shrinkage; and, as we get smoother castings, the metal, it is better to make allowance for large shrinkage and the metal as hot as possible. Allow $3/16$ or $1/4$ in. per ft. in. for shrinkage, and $1/4$ in. for finish on machined surfaces, except such as "cast up." Cope surfaces which are to be machined should, in hard castings, have an allowance of from $3/8$ to $1/2$ in. for finish, as mass of metal slowly rising in a mould is apt to become crusty on surface, and such a crust is sure to be full of imperfections. On steel castings $1/8$ in. on drag side and $1/4$ in. on cope side will be sufficient. They should have less than $1/4$ in. finish on a side and very large ones should have as much as $1/2$ in. on a side. Blow-holes can be entirely prevented by the addition of manganese and silicon in sufficient quantities, both of these cause brittleness, and it is the object of the conscientious maker to put no more manganese and silicon in his steel than is sufficient to make it solid. The best results are arrived at when all possible castings are of a uniform thickness, or very nearly so.

The following table will illustrate the effect of annealing on strength and elongation of steel castings:

Carbon.	Unannealed.		Annealed.	
	Tensile Strength.	Elongation.	Tensile Strength.	Elongation.
.25%	68,738	22.40%	67,210	31
.37	85,540	8.90	82,228	91
.53	90,121	2.35	106,413	91

The proper annealing of large castings takes nearly a week.

The proper steel for roll pinions, hammer dies, etc., seems to be that containing about .60% of carbon. Such castings, properly annealed, have well and seldom broken. Miscellaneous gearing should contain carbon to .60%, gears larger in diameter being softer. General machinery should, as a rule, contain less than .30% of carbon, those exposed to shocks containing as low as .20% of carbon. Such castings will give a strength of from 60,000 to 90,000 lbs. per sq. in. and at least 15% extension in 2 in. long specimen. Machinery and hull castings for war vessels of the United States Navy, as well as carriages for naval guns, contain from .30% of carbon.

The following is a partial list of castings in which steel seems rapidly taking the place of iron: Hydraulic cylinders, crossheads and for large engines, roughing rolls, rolling-mill spindles, coupling bolts, pinions, gearing, hammer-heads and dies, riveter stakes, castings for car couplers, etc.

For description of methods of manufacture of steel castings by the mer. open hearth, and crucible processes, see paper by P. G. Sauer, A. I. M. E. xlv. 118.

Specifications for steel castings issued by the U. S. Navy Department (abridged): Steel for castings must be made by either the open hearth or the crucible process, and must not show more than .003 of phosphorus. Castings must be annealed, unless otherwise directed. The tensile strength of steel castings shall be at least 60,000 lbs., with an elongation of 15% in 8 in. for all castings for moving parts of the machinery and 10% in 8 in. for other castings. Bars 1 in. sq. shall be capable of being bent cold, without fracture, through an angle of 90°, over a radius not less than $1 1/2$ in. All castings must be sound, free from injurious roughness, pits, shrinkage, or other cracks, cavities, etc.

Specifications, 1888. Steel castings should have a tensile strength of not less than 60,000 lbs. per sq. in. and an elongation of 15% in 8 in. Castings will not be accepted if tensile

20,000 lbs., nor if the elongation is less than 12%, nor if cast-blow-holes and shrinkage cracks. Castings weighing 80 lbs. or more have cast with them a strip to be used as a test-piece. The diameter of this strip must be $\frac{3}{4}$ in. sq. by 12 in. long.

MANGANESE, NICKEL, AND OTHER "ALLOY" STEELS.

Manganese Steel. (H. M. Howe, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xli.)—Manganese steel is an alloy of iron and manganese, incidentally, and probably also, containing a considerable proportion of carbon.

For small proportions of manganese on the hardness, strength, and ductility of iron is probably slight. The point at which manganese has a predominant effect is not known: it may be somewhere between 2% and 6%.

As the proportion of manganese rises above 2.5% the strength of the steel diminishes, while the hardness increases. This effect reaches a maximum with somewhere about 6% of manganese. When the proportion of manganese rises beyond 6% the strength and ductility both increase. Hardness diminishes slightly, the maximum of both strength and ductility being reached with about 14% of manganese. With this proportion the steel is still so hard that it is very difficult to cut it with steel tools. As the proportion of manganese rises above 15% the ductility falls off abruptly, the remaining nearly constant till the manganese passes 18%, when it diminishes suddenly.

It is said to be so extremely brittle that it can be powdered under a hammer when cold; yet it is ductile when hot.

The steel is very free from blow-holes; it welds with great difficulty. Its toughness is increased by quenching from a yellow heat; its electrical conductivity is enormous, and very constant with changing temperature. Its thermal conductivity. Its remarkable combination of great hardness and toughness cannot be materially lessened by annealing, and great tensile strength with astonishing toughness and ductility, at once creates and explains its usefulness. The fact that manganese steel cannot be softened, or remains so hard that it can be machined only with great difficulty, is a barrier to its usefulness.

Following comparative results of abrasion tests of manganese and carbon steels were reported by T. T. Morrell:

BY PRESSURE AGAINST A REVOLVING HARDENED-STEEL SHAFT.

Weight of manganese steel.....	1.0
" blue-tempered hard tool steel.....	0.4
" annealed hard tool steel.....	7.5
" hardened Otis boiler-plate steel.....	7.0
" annealed " " ".....	14.0

ABRASION BY AN EMERY-WHEEL.

Weight of hard manganese steel wheels.....	1.00
" softer " " ".....	1.19
" hardest carbon-steel wheels.....	1.23
" soft " " ".....	2.85

Manganese steel seems to be of an anomalous kind. It is hard, but under some conditions not rigid. It is very hard in its resistance to abrasion; it is not always hard in its resistance to impact.

The steel forges readily at a yellow heat, though at a bright white heat it is very hard under the hammer. But it offers greater resistance to impact, i. e., it is harder when hot, than carbon steel.

One important single use for manganese-steel is for the pins which connect the buckets of elevated dredgers. Here abrasion chiefly is to be

avoided. For the links of common chain-elevators, for the stamp-shoes, for the knuckles of an air-coupler, manganese steel has not met expectations.

Manganese steel has been regularly adopted for the blades of the Cyclopes. Some manganese-steel wheels are reported to have run over 100,000 miles on a New England railroad.

Nickel Steel.—The remarkable tensile strength and ductility of nickel steel, shown by the test bars and the behavior of nickel steel in shot tests, are witness of the valuable qualities conferred by the addition of a few per cent of nickel.

The following tests were made on nickel steels by Mr. Maunsel W. the Bethlehem Iron Company (*Eng. & M. Jour.*, Sept. 10, 1893.)

	Specimen from—	Diam., in.	Length, in.	Tensile Str'gth, lbs per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	p. c. ex.	p. c. cont.	
81% nickel steel.	Forged bars.*	.625	4	276,800	2.75	Specimens broken in compression.
		240,595	4.25	6.0	
		105,300	19.25	55.0	
		105,300	19.25	55.0	
	1 1/4-in. round rolled bar.†	.564	4	142,800	74,000	13.0	32.2	Anchors.
		143,200	74,000	12.32	25.6	
		117,600	64,000	17.0	40.0	
		119,200	65,000	16.66	42.1	
		91,600	51,000	22.25	53.2	
		91,200	51,000	21.62	53.4	
27% nickel steel.	1 1/4 in. sq. bar, rolled.‡	85,200	53,000	21.92	49.5	Anchors.
		86,000	48,000	21.25	47.4	
		.708	8	115,164	51,820	36.25	66.23	
		112,600	60,000	37.87	62.82	
		102,010	39,180	41.37	69.59	
		102,510	40,200	44.00	68.34	
	1-in. round bar, rolled.§	.500	2	114,590	56,020	47.25	68.4	Anchors.
		115,910	59,080	45.25	62.3	
		105,240	45,170	49.65	72.8	
		106,780	45,170	55.50	63.6	

* Forged from 6 in. ingot to 5/8 in. diam., with conical heads for bolts.

† Showing the effect of varying carbon.

‡ Rolled down from 1 1/4-in. ingot to 1 1/4-in. square billet, and turned to size.

§ Rolled down from 1 1/4 in. ingot to 1-in. round, and turned to size.

Nickel steel has shown itself to be possessed of some exceedingly valuable properties; these are, resistance to cracking, high elastic limit and tenacity. Resistance to cracking, a property to which the name of malleability has been given, is shown more remarkably as the percentage of nickel increases. Bars of 27% nickel illustrate this property. A 1 1/4-in. square was nicked 1/4 in. deep and bent double on itself without further than the splintering off, as it were, of the nicked portion. Sudden failure of this steel would be impossible; it seems to possess the tenacity of malleable iron with the strength of steel. With this percentage of nickel steel is practically non-corrodible and non-magnetic. The resistance to cracking shown by the lower percentages of nickel is best illustrated by many trials of nickel-steel armor.

The elastic limit rises in a very marked degree with the addition of 1% of nickel, the other physical properties of the steel remaining much the same or perhaps slightly increased.

In such places (shafts, axles, etc.) where failure is the result of the fatigue of the metal this higher elastic limit of nickel steel will tend to prolong definitely the life of the piece, and at the same time, through its toughness, offer greater resistance to the sudden strains of shock.

Hovoe states that the hardness of nickel steel depends on the proportion of nickel and carbon jointly, nickel up to a certain percentage increases the hardness, beyond this lessening it. Thus white steel with 2% of carbon and 0.50% of carbon cannot be machined, with less than 5% nickel it can be worked cold readily, provided the proportion of carbon be low. As the proportion of nickel rises higher, cold-working becomes less easy. It is easily worked whether it contain much or little nickel.

The presence of manganese in nickel steel is most important, as it is found that without the aid of manganese in proper proportions, the condition of the metal would not be successful.

Tests of Nickel Steel. Two heats of open hearth steel were made at the Cleveland Rolling Mill Co., one ordinary steel made with 200 lbs. of scrap and pig, and 1 1/2 lbs. ferro-manganese, the other the same with addition of 34 or 540 lbs. of nickel. Tests of six plates rolled from 1/2 in. to 1 in. thick gave results as follows:

Ordinary steel: 32,500 to 50,500; E. L. 32,800 to 37,000; elong. 25% to 30% in 2 in.; 170 to 67,100; 47,100 to 48,800; 63.6.

of aluminum to Al_2O_3 equals 7800 cal.; silicon to SiO_2 is stated as 7800. Iron of aluminum may be classed along with that of silicon, sulfur, phosphorus, arsenic, and copper, as giving no increase of hardness to iron, whilst for some special purposes aluminum may be employed in the manufacture of iron, at any rate with our present knowledge of its properties, this use cannot be large, especially when taking into consideration its comparatively high price. Its special advantage seems to be that it combines in itself the advantages of both silicon and manganese; and as alloys containing these metals are so cheap and aluminum extensive use seems hardly probable.

Lead, in discussion of Mr. Hadfield's paper, said: Every one of our engineers indicated that aluminum can kill the most fiery steel, providing that it is added in sufficient quantity to combine with all the oxygen in the steel contains. The metal will then be absolutely dead, and like dead melted silicon steel. If the aluminum is added as metal, and not as a compound, and if the addition is made just before the steel is cast, 1/10% is ample to obtain perfect solidity in the steel.

Chrome Steel. (F. L. Garrison, *Jour. F. I.*, Sept. 1891.)—Chromium increases the hardness of iron, perhaps also the tensile strength and elastic limit, but lessens its weldability.

Chrome, according to Berthier, is made by strongly heating the ores of iron and chromium in brasqued crucibles, adding powdered charcoal, so that the oxide of chromium is in excess, and fluxes to scorchify the matter and prevent oxidation. Chromium does not appear to give any power of becoming harder when quenched or chilled. Howe states that chrome steels forge more readily than tungsten steels, and when not containing over 0.5 of chromium nearly as well as ordinary carbon steels of the same percentage of carbon. On the whole the status of chrome steel is not very clear.

There are other steel alloys coming into use, which are so numerous that it would seem to be only a question of time when they will get out of the race. Howe states that many experienced chemists find no chromium, or but the merest traces, in chrome steel sold in the market.

Langley (Trans. A. S. C. E. 1892) says: Chromium, like manganese, hardens iron even in the absence of carbon. The addition of 1% of chromium to a carbon steel will make a metal which gets excessively hard. Hitherto its principal employment has been in the production of shot and shell. Powerful molecular stresses result during cooling, and shells frequently break spontaneously months after they are made.

then, when the percentage of tungsten is high, it has to be treated very carefully; and in order to avoid breaking it, not only is it necessary to rehearse it several times while it is being hammered, but when the tool has acquired the desired shape hammering must still be continued gently and with numerous blows until it becomes nearly cold. Then only can it be cooled entirely.

Tungsten is not only employed to produce steel of an extraordinary hardness, but more especially to obtain a steel which, with a moderate hardness, allies great toughness, resistance, and ductility. Steel from Assam, used for this purpose, contained carbon, 0.52%; silicon, 0.04%; tungsten, 0.1%; phosphorus 0.04%; sulphur, 0.00%.

Mechanical tests made by Styffe gave the following results:

Breaking load per square inch of original area, pounds.	172,464
Reduction of area, per cent	0.54
Average elongation after fracture, per cent	13

According to analyses made by the Duc de Luynes of ten specimens of the celebrated Oriental damasked steel, eight contained tungsten, two of them in notable quantities (0.518% to 1%), while in all of the samples analysis nickel was discovered ranging from traces to nearly 4%.

Stein & Schwartz of Philadelphia, in a circular say: It is stated that tungsten steel is suitable for the manufacture of steel magnets, since it retains its magnetism longer than ordinary steel. Mr. Kuessche has used tungsten up to 9% fluo a specialty. Dr. Heppé, of Leipzig, has written a number of articles in German publications on the subject. The following instructions are given concerning the use of tungsten: In order to produce cast iron possessing great hardness an addition of one half to one and a half of tungsten is all that is needed. For bar iron it must be carried up to 1% to 2%, but should not exceed 2½%. For puddled steel the range is large, but an addition beyond 2½% only increases the hardness, so that it is brought up to 1½% only for special tools, coinage dies, drills, etc. For tires that have proved best, and for axles ½ to 1½%. Cast steel to which tungsten has been added needs a higher temperature for tempering than ordinary steel, and should be hardened only between yellow, red, and white. (These colors of tungsten steel should be drawn between cherry-red and blue, and draw well on iron and steel. Tempering is best done in a mixture of 5 parts yellow rosin, 3 parts of tar, and 2 parts of tallow, and then the articles once more heated and then tempered as usual in water of about 15° C.)

Whitworth Compressed Steel. (Proc. Inst. M. E., May, 1887, p. 167.) In this system a gradually increasing pressure up to 6 or 8 tons per square inch is applied to the fluid ingot, and within half an hour or so after the application of the pressure the column of fluid steel is shortened 1½ inch per foot or one eighth of its length; the pressure is then kept on several hours, the result being that the metal is compressed into a perfect solid and homogeneous material, free from blow-holes.

In large gun-ring ingots during cooling the carbon is driven to the center, the centre containing 0.8 carbon and the outer ring 0.3. The centre is let out until a test shows that the inside of the ring contains the same percentage of carbon as the outside.

Compressed steel is made by the Bethlehem Iron Co. and the Carnegie Steel Co. for armor-plate and for gun and other heavy forgings.

CRUCIBLE STEEL.

Selection of Grades by the Eye, and Effect of Heat Treatment. (J. W. Langley, *Amer. Chemist*, November, 1876.)—In 1874 John Mottell & Parkin, of Pittsburgh, selected eight samples of steel which they believed to form a set of graded specimens, the order being based on the quantity of carbon which they were supposed to contain. They were numbered from one to eight. On analysis, the quantity of carbon was found to follow the order of the numbers, while the other elements present—silicon, phosphorus, and sulphur—did not do so. The method of selection was as follows:

The steel is melted in black-lead crucibles capable of holding about 200 pounds; when thoroughly fluid it is poured into cast-iron moulds, and the solid top of the ingot is broken off, exposing a freshly fractured surface. The appearance presented is that of confused groups of crystals all appearing to have started from the outside and to have met in the centre. In general form is common to all ingots of whatever composition, but the degree of coarseness of the grain long and critically exercised, a white-hot

able difference is perceived between varying samples of steel, and difference is now known to be owing almost wholly to variations in the amount of combined carbon, as the following table will show. Twelve samples were analysed by the eye alone, and analyses of drillings taken direct from the bar before it had been heated or hammered, gave results as below:

Iron by Diff.	Carbon.	Diff. of Carbon.	Silicon.	Phos.	Sulph.
99.614	.302019	.047	.018
99.435	.490	.188	.034	.005	.016
99.363	.523	.219	.043	.047	.018
99.270	.649	.120	.039	.030	.012
99.119	.801	.152	.029	.035	.015
99.096	.841	.040	.039	.024	.010
99.014	.867	.026	.057	.014	.018
99.040	.871	.004	.053	.021	.012
98.900	.965	.084	.059	.070	.016
98.861	1.005	.050	.068	.031	.012
98.752	1.068	.063	.120	.064	.005
98.834	1.079	.021	.039	.044	.004

the carbon is seen to increase in quantity in the order of the number of the other elements, with the exception of total iron, bear no relation to the numbers on the samples. The mean difference of carbon is .071. In steels the discrimination is less perfect.

The appearance of the fracture by which the above twelve selections made can only be seen in the cold ingot before any operation, except that of casting, has been performed upon it. As soon as it is heated, the structure changes in a remarkable manner, so that all trace of its primitive condition appears to be lost.

One method of rendering visible to the eye the molecular and chemical changes which go on in steel is by the process of hardening or tempering. When the metal is heated and plunged into water it acquires an increase of hardness, but a loss of ductility. If the heat to which the steel is raised just before plunging is too high, the metal acquires intense brittleness, but it is so brittle as to be worthless; the fracture is of a bright, glassy, or sandy character. In this state it is said to be burned, and it can again be restored to its former strength and ductility by annealing; and for all practical purposes, but in just this state it again shows traces of structure corresponding with its content in carbon. The nature of these changes can be illustrated by plunging a bar highly heated at one end and cold at the other into water, and then breaking it off in pieces of equal length, when the fractures will be found to show appearances characteristic of the temperature to which the sample was raised.

The specific gravity of steel is influenced not only by its chemical analysis, but by the heat to which it is subjected, as is shown by the following densities referred to 60° F.):

The specific gravities of twelve samples of steel from the ingot; also of six hammered bars, each bar being overheated at one end and cold at the other, in this state plunged into water, and then broken into pieces of equal length.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
.....	7.855	7.836	7.841	7.829	7.838	7.824	7.819	7.818	7.813	7.807	7.803	7.805
Sample 1.	7.818	7.791	7.789	7.752	7.744	7.690
2.	7.814	7.811	7.784	7.755	7.749	7.711
3.	7.805	7.830	7.780	7.738	7.755	7.769
4.	7.820	7.840	7.808	7.778	7.780	7.794
5.	7.831	7.830	7.812	7.790	7.819	7.811
6.	7.844	7.824	7.829	7.825	7.820	7.825

* Order of samples from bar.

Effect of Heat on the Grain of Steel. (W. Metcalf Steel, p. 842.)—A simple experiment will show the alteration in high-carbon steel by different methods of hardening. If a bar be nicked at about 9 or 10 places, and about half an inch apart, a specimen is obtained for the experiment. Place one end of the good fire, so that the first nicked piece is heated to whiteness, while the other end, being out of the fire, is heated up less and less as it goes on. As soon as the first piece is at a good white heat, the bar, of course, burns a high carbon steel, and the temperature of the rest gradually passes down to a very dull red, the metal should be taken from the fire and suddenly plunged in cold water, in which it should be quite cold. It should then be taken out and carefully dried. An examination with a file will show that the first piece has the greatest hardness, while the last piece is the softest, the intermediate pieces gradually passing from one condition to the other. On now breaking off the pieces, it will be seen that very considerable and characteristic changes have been produced in the appearance of the metal. The first bar piece will be open or crystalline in fracture; the succeeding pieces become closer in the grain until one piece is found to possess that even grain and velvet-like appearance which is so much prized by the best steel users. The first pieces also, which have been too much heated, will probably be cracked; those at the other end will not be through. Hence if it be desired to make the steel hard and strong, the temperature used must be high enough to harden the metal, but not sufficient to open the grain.

Changes in Ultimate Strength and Elasticity by Hammering, Annealing, and Tempering. (J. W. Traut, A. S. C. E. 1892.) The following table gives the result of the tests on some round steel bars, all from the same ingot, which were subjected to tensile stresses, and also by bending till fracture took place:

Number.	Treatment.	Angle of cold bend, degrees.	Carbon		Diameter, in.	Elastic limit, pounds per square inch.	Tensile, pounds per square inch.	Elongation, per cent.
			Total.	Semi-graphitic.				
1	Cold-hammered bar	159	1.23	.47	.575	92,430	141,500	15
2	Bar drawn black....	75	1.25	.47	.575	114,700	138,400	18
3	Bar annealed	175	1.31	.70	.580	98,110	98,410	10
4	Bar hardened and drawn black	30	1.09	.86	.578	152,800	246,700	8

The total carbon given in the table was found by the color test, affected, not only by the total carbon, but by the condition of the steel. The analysis of the steel was:

Silicon242	Manganese.....	
Phosphorus.....	.02	Carbon (true total carbon combustion)	
Sulphur009		

Heating Tool Steel. (Miller, Metcalf & Parkin, 1877.)—In three distinct stages or times of heating: First, for forging; second, for hardening; third, for tempering.

The first requisite for a good heat for forging is a clean fire and a good fuel, so that jets of hot air will not strike the corners of the piece; the fire should be regular, and give a good uniform heat to the whole piece forged. It should be keen enough to heat the piece as rapidly as possible, and allow it to be thoroughly heated through, without being so hot as to overheat the corners.

Steel should not be left in the fire any longer than is necessary to clear through, as "soaking" in fire is very injurious; and, on the other hand, it is necessary that it should be hot through, to prevent surface cracks.

By observing these precautions a piece of steel may always be heated uniformly, and to even a high temperature, when there is much forging to be done.

and most economical of welding fluxes is clean, crude borax, the first thoroughly melted and then ground to fine powder. When the steel is properly heated, it should be forged to shape as quickly as possible, and just as the red heat is leaving the parts intended for cutting edges should be refined by rapid, light blows, continued until the pieces are cooled.

At the stage of heating, for hardening, great care should be used: first, that the cutting edges and working parts from heating more than the body of the piece; next, that the whole part to be hardened is heated uniformly through, without any part becoming visibly hotter than the rest. A uniform heat, as low as will give the required hardness, is the best for hardening.

A variation of heat, which is great enough to be seen, there will be shown in grain, which may be seen by breaking the piece; and a variation in temperature, there is a very good chance for a flaw. Many a costly tool is ruined by inattention to this point. Too high heat is to open the grain; to make the steel coarse, and an irregular heat is to cause irregular grain, irregular strains,

and if the piece is properly heated for hardening, it should be thoroughly quenched in plenty of the cooling medium, water, or oil, as the case may be.

Place of the cooling bath, to do the work quickly and uniformly is very necessary to good and safe work.

For a large piece safely a running stream should be used.

When hardening is caused by the use of too small baths,

At the stage of heating, to temper, the first important requisite is uniformity. The next is time; the more slowly a piece is brought to temper, the better and safer is the operation.

Various tools are to be made it is a wise precaution to try small pieces of steel at different temperatures, so as to find out how low a heat will give the necessary hardness. The lowest heat is the best for any steel.

To Forge.—The trouble in the forge fire is usually uneven heating, too high heat. Suppose the piece to be forged has been put in the fire, and forced as quickly as possible to a high yellow heat, almost up to the scintillating point. If this be done, in a few minutes the outside will be quite soft and in a nice condition for forging, while the parts will not be more than red-hot. Now let the piece be struck with the hammer and forged, and the soft outside will yield so readily that the hard inside, that the outer particles will be torn off, and the inside will remain sound.

In case to be reversed and the inside to be much hotter than the outside, that the inside shall be in a state of semi-fusion, while the outside is red and firm. Now let the piece be forged, and the outside will be heated and the whole piece will appear perfectly good until it is cooled, when it is found to be hollow inside.

Even if the piece had been heated soft all through, or if it had been cooled all through, it would have forged perfectly sound.

For a high heat is more desirable to save heavy labor but in the case of a fine steel it is to be used for cutting purposes it must be heated to a very heavy forging refine the bars as they slowly cool, with heats such refined bars until they are soft, he raises the heat again, and he cannot get them fine again unless he has a steam-hammer at command and knows how to use it well.

Tempering. (Miller, Metcalf & Yackin.)—Annealing or softening is done by heating steel to a red heat and then cooling it very slowly, so that it does not get hard again.

The degree of heat, the more will steel be softened, until the steel is reached, when the steel is melted.

It follows that the higher a piece of steel is heated the softer it will be cooled, no matter how slowly it may be cooled; this is proved that an ingot is always harder than a rolled or hammered bar.

There is nothing gained by heating a piece of steel hotter than cherry-red; on the contrary, a higher heat has several disadvantages. First. If carried too far, it may leave the steel actually harder than the heat would leave it. Second. If a scale is raised on the surface it will be harsh, granular oxide of iron, and will spoil the tool. Third. A high scaling heat continued for a long time will

If any number of forces be applied at a point some in one direction and others in a contrary direction, their resultant is equal to the sum of those that act in one direction, diminished by the sum of those that act in the opposite direction; or, the resultant is equal to the algebraic sum of the components.

Parallelogram of Forces.—If two forces acting on a point be represented in direction and intensity by adjacent sides of a parallelogram, their resultant will be represented by that diagonal of the parallelogram which passes through the point. Thus OR , Fig. 88, is the resultant of OQ and OP .

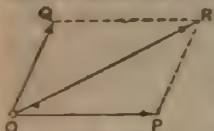


FIG. 88.

Polygon of Forces.—If several forces be applied at a point and act in a single plane, the resultant is found as follows:

Through the point draw a line representing the first force; through the extremity of this draw a line representing the second force, and so on throughout the system; finally, draw a line from the starting-point to the extremity of the last force.

drawn, and this will be the resultant required.

Suppose the body A , Fig. 89, to be urged in the directions $A1$, $A2$, $A3$, and $A5$ by forces which are to each other as the lengths of these lines. Suppose these forces to act successively and the body to first move from 1 to 2 ; the second force $A2$ then acts and finding the body at 1 would carry it to 3 ; the third force would then carry it to 4 , the fourth to 5 , and the fifth to 6 . The line $A5'$ represents in magnitude and direction the resultant of all the forces considered. If there had been an additional force, $A4$, in the group, the body would be returned by that force to its original position, supposing the forces to act successively, but if they had acted simultaneously the body would never have moved at all; the tendencies to motion balancing each other.

It follows, therefore, that if the several forces which tend to move a body can be represented in magnitude and direction by the sides of a closed polygon taken in order, the body will remain at rest; but if the forces are represented by the sides of an open polygon, the body will move and the direction will be represented by the straight line which closes the polygon.

Twisted Polygon.—The rule of the polygon of forces holds true when the forces are not in one plane. In this case the lines $A1$, $A2$, $A3$, etc., form a twisted polygon, that is, one whose sides are not in one plane.

Parallelepipedon of Forces.—If three forces acting on a point be represented by three edges of a parallelepipedon which meet in a common point, their resultant will be represented by the diagonal of the parallelepipedon that passes through their common point.

Thus OR , Fig. 90, is the resultant of OQ , OS , and OP . OM is the resultant of OP and OQ , and OR is the resultant of OM and OS .

Moment of a Force.—The moment of a force (sometimes called statical moment), with respect to a point, is the product of the force by the perpendicular distance from the point to the direction of the force. The fixed point is called the centre of mo-

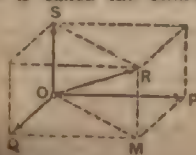


FIG. 90.

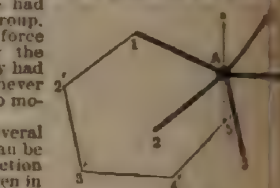


FIG. 89.

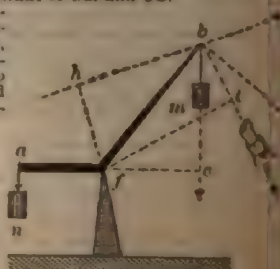


FIG. 91.

Thus the resultant of the two forces Q and P , Fig. 93, is equal

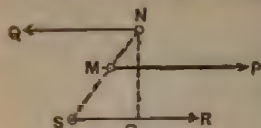


FIG. 93.

product of one of the forces by the distance between the two.

Since a couple has no single resultant, no single force can be found which is equivalent to it. To prevent the rotation of a body acted on by a couple, the action of two other forces is required, forming a second couple.

94, P and Q forming a couple, may be balanced by a second couple formed by R and S . The point of application of either R or S may be a fixed pivot or axis.

Moment of the couple $PQ = P(c + b + a) =$ moment of $RS = Rb$. Also, $P + R = Q + S$.

The forces R and S need not be parallel to P and Q , but if not, then their components parallel to PQ are to be taken instead of the forces themselves.

Equilibrium of Forces.—A system of forces applied at points of a solid body will be in equilibrium when they have no tendency to produce motion, either of translation or of rotation.

The conditions of equilibrium are: 1. The algebraic sum of the components of the forces in the direction of any three rectangular axes, separately equal to 0.

2. The algebraic sum of the moments of the forces, with respect to any three rectangular axes, must be separately equal to 0.

If the forces lie in a plane: 1. The algebraic sum of the components of the forces, in the direction of any two rectangular axes, must be equal to 0.

2. The algebraic sum of the moments of the forces, with respect to any axis in the plane, must be equal to 0.

If a body is restrained by a fixed axis, as in case of a pulley, Fig. 94, the forces will be in equilibrium when the algebraic sum of the moments of the forces with respect to the axis is equal to 0.

CENTRE OF GRAVITY.

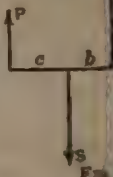
The centre of gravity of a body, or of a system of bodies rigidly together, is that point about which, if suspended, all the parts of the body are in equilibrium, that is, there will be no tendency to rotation. It is the point through which passes the resultant of the efforts of gravitation on the elementary particles of a body. In bodies of equal heaviness, the centre of gravity is the centre of magnitude.

The centre of magnitude of a figure is a point such that if it be divided into equal parts the distance of the centre of magnitude from any given plane is the mean of the distances of the several equal parts from that plane.

If a body be suspended at its centre of gravity, it will be in equilibrium in all positions. If it be suspended at a point out of its centre of gravity, it will swing into a position such that its centre of gravity is vertically below its point of suspension.

To find the centre of gravity of any plane figure mechanically, suspend the figure by any point near its edge, and mark on it the direction of the plumb-line hung from that point; then suspend it from some other point, and again mark the direction of the plumb-line in like manner. The intersection of the two plumb-lines will be at the point of intersection of the two lines.

Centre of Gravity of Regular Figures.—The centre of gravity of a regular figure is its geometrical centre; for instance, of a



um, regular polygon, circle, circular ring, prism, cylinder, spheroid, middle frustums of spheroid, etc.

ngle : On a line drawn from any angle to the middle of the opposite of a distance of one third of the line from the side; or at the of such lines drawn from any two angles.

zium or trapezoid : Draw a diagonal, dividing it into two triangles, draw a line joining their centres of gravity. Draw the other making two other triangles, and a line joining their centres. The of the two lines is the centre of gravity required.

of a circle : On the radius which bisects the arc, $2cr + 3l$ from being the chord, r the radius, and l the arc.

circle : On the middle radius, $.4244r$ from the centre.

front : On the middle radius, $.6002r$ from the centre.

ent of a circle : $c^2 + 12a$ from the centre. c = chord, a = area.

pholic surface : In the axis, $3/5$ of its length from the vertex.

parabola (surface) : $3/5$ length of the axis from the vertex, and at base from the axis.

or pyramid : In the axis, $1/4$ of its length from the base.

boloid : In the axis, $3/4$ of its length from the vertex.

der, or regular prism : In the middle point of the axis.

um of a cone or pyramid : Let a = length of a line drawn from the cone when complete to the centre of gravity of the base, and tion of it between the vertex and the top of the frustum; then centre of gravity of the frustum from centre of gravity of its

$$\frac{3a'^3}{8a^3}$$

$$4(a^2 + a'u' + a'^2)^2$$

bodies, fixed one at each end of a straight bar, the common cavity is in the bar, at that point which divides the distance of their respective centres of gravity in the inverse ratio of the of this solution the weight of the bar is neglected. But it may a third body, and allowed for as in the following directions :

than two bodies connected in one system: Find the common cavity of two of them ; and find the common centre of these two a third body, and so on to the last body of the group.

method, by the principle of moments: To find the centre of system of bodies, or a body consisting of several parts, whose res are known. If the bodies are in a plane, refer their several to rectangular co-ordinate axes. Multiply each weight by its to one of the axes, add the products, and divide the sum by the weights: the result is the distance of the centre of gravity from Do the same with regard to the other axis. If the bodies are ne, refer them to three planes at right angles to each other, and the mean distance of the sum of the weights from each of the

MOMENT OF INERTIA.

nt of inertia of the weight of a body with respect to an axis is the sum of the products obtained by multiplying the weight of every particle by the square of its distance from the axis. If the inertia with respect to any axis = I , the weight of any element = w , and its distance from the axis = r , we have $I = \sum w r^2$.

nt of inertia varies, in the same body, according to the position It is the least possible when the axis passes through the centre

To find the moment of inertia of a body, referred to a given the body into small parts of regular figure. Multiply the weight by the square of the distance of its centre of gravity from the um of the products is the moment of inertia. The value of the inertia thus obtained will be more nearly exact, the smaller and ous the parts into which the body is divided.

OF INERTIA OF REGULAR SOLIDS.—Rod, or bar, of uniform thick- respect to an axis perpendicular to the length of the rod,

$$I = W \left(\frac{l^2}{8} + d^2 \right), \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

of rod, $2l$ = length, d = distance of centre of gravity from axis.

$$\text{plate, axis in its } \} I = W \left(\frac{r^2}{4} + a^2 \right); \dots \dots$$

plate.

Circular plate, axis perpendicular to the plate, $I = W \left(\frac{r^2}{2} + d^2 \right)$.

Circular ring, axis perpendicular to its own plane, $I = W \left(\frac{r^2 + r'^2}{2} + d^2 \right)$.

r and r' are the exterior and interior radii of the ring.

Cylinder, axis perpendicular to the axis of the cylinder, $I = W \left(\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{l^2}{3} + d^2 \right)$.

r = radius of base, l = length of the cylinder.

By making $d = 0$ in any of the above formulae we find the moment of inertia for a parallel axis through the centre of gravity.

The moment of inertia, Σar^2 , numerically equals the work done which if concentrated at the distance unity from the axis of rotation requires the same work to produce a given increase of angular velocity as a body requires. It bears the same relation to angular acceleration as weight does to linear acceleration (Bainbridge). The term moment of inertia is also used in regard to areas, as the area-moment of inertia strain. In this case $I = \Sigma ar^2$, in which a is any elementary area at distance from the centre. (See Moment of Inertia, under Strength of Materials, p. 247.)

CENTRE AND RADIUS OF GYRATION.

The centre of gyration, with reference to an axis is a point at which the entire weight of a body be concentrated, its moment of inertia being unchanged; or, in a revolving body, the point in which the weight of the body may be conceived to be concentrated, as if a platinum were substituted for a pound of revolving feathers, the velocity and the accumulated work remaining the same. The distance from the axis is the radius of gyration. If W = the weight of the body, $I = \Sigma ar^2$ = its moment of inertia, and k = its radius of gyration,

$$I = Wk^2 = \Sigma ar^2; \quad k = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma ar^2}{W}}.$$

The moment of inertia = the weight \times the square of the radius of gyration.

To find the radius of gyration divide the body into a considerable number of equal small parts—the more numerous the more nearly exact the result—then take the mean of all the squares of the distances of the parts from the axis of revolution, and find the square root of the mean. Or, if the moment of inertia is known, divide it by the weight and take the square root. For radius of gyration of an area, as a cross-section of a beam, divide the moment of inertia of the area by the area and take the square root.

The radius of gyration is the least possible when the axis passes through the centre of gravity. This minimum radius is called the permanent radius of gyration. If we denote it by k and any other radius of gyration by k' , we have for the five cases given under the head of moment of inertia the following values:

(1) Rod, axis perpen. to length, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} k = l \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}; \quad k' = \sqrt{\frac{l^2}{3} + d^2}. \end{array} \right.$

(2) Circular plate, axis in its plane, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} k = \frac{r}{2}; \quad k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} + d^2}. \end{array} \right.$

(3) Circular plate, axis perpen. to plane, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} k = r \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}; \quad k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{2} + d^2}. \end{array} \right.$

(4) Circular ring, axis perpen. to plane, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} k = \sqrt{\frac{r^2 + r'^2}{2}}; \quad k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2 + r'^2}{2} + d^2}. \end{array} \right.$

(5) Cylinder, axis perpen. to length, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} k = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{l^2}{3}}; \quad k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{l^2}{3} + d^2}. \end{array} \right.$

Table of Gyration and Squares of Radii of Gyration.

(of gyration of sections of columns, see page 249.)

For Solid.	Rad. of Gyration.	Square of R. of Gyration.
Rects at its base.....	.5773 <i>h</i>	$\frac{1}{6}h^2$
" mid-height.....	.3886 <i>h</i>	$1/12h^2$
axis at end.....	.5773 <i>l</i>	$\frac{1}{6}l^2$
" mid-length..	.3886 <i>l</i>	$1/12l^2$
Referred to axis 2 <i>a</i> ... length <i>l</i> , base <i>b</i> , axis mid-breadth.....	.577 $\sqrt{b^2 + l^2}$.289 $\sqrt{4l^2 + b^2}$	$(b^2 + l^2) \div 3$ $\frac{4l^2 + b^2}{12}$
Referred to axis mid-length.. " <i>h</i>289 $\sqrt{h^2 + l^2}$.408 <i>h</i>	$(h^2 + l^2) \div 12$ $\frac{h^2}{6}$
Tube: sides <i>b</i> , <i>h</i> , diam. <i>h</i> , ax. diam. axis <i>h</i> , <i>h'</i> , axis diam. Hinder: length <i>l</i> , mid-length.....	.289 <i>h</i> $\sqrt{\frac{h+3b}{h+b}}$ $\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{h^2 + h'^2}$.289 $\sqrt{l^2 + 3h^2}$	$\frac{h^2}{12} \cdot \frac{h+3b}{h+b}$ $\frac{1}{4}h'^2 = h'^2 \div 4$ $\frac{l^2}{12} + \frac{h^2}{4}$
Solid wheel of uni- form cylinder of any to axis of cyl.....	.7071 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{2}r^2$
Slender, or flat ring: outer and inner longitudinal axis; length.....	.7071 $\sqrt{R^2 + r^2}$.289 $\sqrt{l^2 + 3(R^2 + r^2)}$	$\frac{(R^2 + r^2) \div 2}{l^2} + \frac{R^2 + r^2}{2}$ $\frac{l^2}{12} + \frac{R^2}{2}$
Axis its diameter. ..	.289 $\sqrt{l^2 + 6R^2}$	$\frac{l^2}{12} + \frac{R^2}{2}$
Axis, longitud'l axis..	<i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{4}r^2$
Axis its centre.....	<i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{4}r^2$
" diam.....	.7071 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{2}r^2$
Axis its diam.....	.6325 <i>r</i>	$\frac{2}{5}r^2$
Serial radius <i>r</i> , re- volving.....	.6325 <i>r</i>	$\frac{2}{5}r^2$
Rad. of base, rev.5773 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{6}r^2$
Axis <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> ; revolv- ing.....	.4472 $\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}$	$\frac{b^2 + c^2}{5}$
Axis <i>R</i> , <i>r</i> , revolving6325 $\sqrt{\frac{R^2 - r^2}{R^2 + r^2}}$	$\frac{2}{5}R^2 - \frac{1}{5}r^2$ $\frac{2}{5}R^2 - \frac{1}{5}r^2$
Radius <i>r</i> ..	.8165 <i>r</i>	$\frac{2}{3}r^2$
Rad. of base, rev. on5477 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{3}r^2$

OF OSCILLATION AND OF PERCUSSION.

Oscillation.—If a body oscillate about a fixed horizontal axis through its centre of gravity, there is a point in the line of gravity perpendicular to the axis whose motion would be if the whole mass were collected at that point as a pendulum about the fixed axis. This point is the centre of oscillation.

Radius of Oscillation, or distance of the centre of oscillation from the axis of suspension = the square of the radius of gyration + distance of gravity from the point of suspension or axis. The radius of gyration and suspension are convertible.

For a uniform thin bar or cylinder, be suspended from an axis, the centre of oscillation is a

the rod from the axis. If the point of suspension is at $\frac{1}{2}l$ the length of the rod, the centre of oscillation is also at $\frac{1}{2}l$ the length from the end, it is at the other end. In both cases the oscillation will be performed in the same time. If the point of suspension is at the centre of gravity, the length of the equivalent simple pendulum is infinite, and therefore the period of vibration is infinite.

For a sphere suspended by a cord, r = radius, h = distance of motion from the centre of the sphere, h' = distance of centre of mass from centre of the sphere, l = radius of oscillation = $h + h' = h + r$.

If the sphere vibrates about an axis tangent to its surface, $h = r$ + $2/3r$. If $h = 10r$, $l = 10r + \frac{r}{25}$.

Lengths of the radius of oscillation of a few regular plane figures, suspended by the vertex or uppermost point.

1st. When the vibrations are flatwise, or perpendicular to the plane of the figure:

In an isosceles triangle the radius of oscillation is equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the height of the triangle.

In a circle, $\frac{3}{4}$ of the diameter.

In a parabola, $5/7$ of the height.

2d. When the vibrations are edgewise, or in the plane of the figure:

In a circle the radius of oscillation is $\frac{3}{4}$ of the diameter.

In a rectangle suspended by one angle, $\frac{3}{4}$ of the diagonal.

In a parabola, suspended by the vertex, $5/7$ of the height, plus $\frac{1}{25}$ of the parameter.

In a parabola, suspended by the middle of the base, $4/7$ of the height, plus $\frac{1}{25}$ of the parameter.

Centre of Percussion.—The centre of percussion of a body, when it vibrates about a fixed axis is the point at which, if a blow is struck by a hammer, the percussive action is the same as if the whole mass of the body were concentrated at the point. This point is identical with the centre of mass.

THE PENDULUM.

A body of any form suspended from a fixed axis about which it vibrates by the force of gravity is called a *compound pendulum*. The centre of mass concentrated at the centre of oscillation, suspended from the same axis by a string without weight, is called a *simple pendulum*. A compound simple pendulum has the same weight as the given body, the same moment of inertia, referred to an axis passing through the point of suspension, and it oscillates in the same time.

The ordinary pendulum of a given length vibrates in equal times, the angle of the vibrations does not exceed 4 or 5 degrees, that is 2° on each side of the vertical. This property of a pendulum is called *isochronism*.

The time of vibration of a pendulum varies directly as the square root of the length, and inversely as the square root of the acceleration due to gravity at the given latitude and elevation above the earth's surface.

If T = the time of vibration, l = length of the simple pendulum,

then $T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{l}{g}}$; since π is constant, $T \propto \sqrt{\frac{l}{g}}$. At a given place

where g is constant and $T \propto \sqrt{l}$. If l be constant, then for any two pendulums

$T \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}}$. If T be constant, $gT^2 = \pi^2 l$; $l \propto g$; $g = \frac{\pi^2 l}{T^2}$. From this it follows that

the force of gravity at any place may be determined if the length of a simple pendulum, vibrating seconds, at that place is known. At New York this length is 39.1017 inches = 3.2585 ft., whence $g = 32.16$ ft. At London the length is 39.1393 inches. At the equator 39.0152 or 39.0168 inches, according to different authorities.

Time of vibration of a pendulum of a given length at New York

$$= t = \sqrt{\frac{l}{39.1017}} = \frac{\sqrt{l}}{6.258}$$

where t is in seconds and l in inches. Length of a pendulum having a given time of vibration, $l = t^2 \times 39.1017$ inches,

vibration of a pendulum may be varied by the addition of a weight above the centre of suspension, which counteracts the weight, and lengthens the period of vibration. By varying the height of the weight the time is varied.

weight of the upper bob of a compound pendulum, vibrating under the weight of the lower bob, and the distances of the weights from the centre of suspension are given:

$$w = W \frac{(39.1 + D) - D^2}{(39.1 + d) + d^2}$$

D = height of the lower bob, w = the weight of the upper bob; D = distance of the lower bob from the centre of suspension, in inches.

Means of a second bob, short pendulums may be constructed to vibrate as long pendulums.

By varying w or d until the lower weight is entirely counterbalanced, the period of vibration may be made infinite.

Pendulum.—A weight suspended by a cord and revolving in a circle in the circumference of a circular horizontal plane. The distance of the plane below the point of suspension being in equilibrium by three forces—the tension in the cord, the centrifugal force, which tends to increase the radius r , and the force of gravity g . If v = the velocity in feet per second, the centre of gravity of the weight, as it describes the circumference, $g = 32.16$, and r = the radius in feet, the time in seconds of performing one revolution is

$$t = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{h}{g}}; \quad h = \frac{g r^2}{4\pi^2} = .8146 r^2$$

and, $h = .816$ foot = 9.775 inches.

Example of the conical pendulum is used in the ordinary fly-ball governor of steam-engines. (See Governors.)

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE.

A body moving in a curved path of radius = R in feet exerts a force, the centrifugal force, F , upon the arm or cord which restrains it from moving in a straight line, or "flying off at a tangent." If W = weight of the body in pounds, N = number of revolutions per minute, v = linear velocity in feet per second, $g = 32.16$,

$$F = \frac{Wv^2}{gR} = \frac{Wv^2}{32.16R} = \frac{W4\pi^2 RN^2}{3600g} = \frac{WRN^2}{2934} = .003410 WRN^2 \text{ lbs.}$$

For revolutions per second, $F = 1.2276 WRn^2$.

Centrifugal force in fly-wheels, see Fly-wheels.)

VELOCITY, ACCELERATION, FALLING BODIES.

s = the rate of motion, or the distance passed over by a body in

t seconds, and v = velocity in feet per second. If the velocity is uniform,

$$v = \frac{s}{t}; \quad s = vt; \quad t = \frac{s}{v}.$$

If the velocity varies uniformly, the mean velocity $v_m = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{2}$, in which v_1 is the velocity at the beginning and v_2 the velocity at the end of the time t ,

$$s = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{2} t. \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Acceleration is the change in velocity which takes place in a unit of time. If the acceleration = a = 1 foot per second in one second. For uniformly accelerated motion, the acceleration is a constant a .

$$\frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}; \quad v_2 = v_1 + at; \quad v_1 = v_2 - at; \quad t = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{a}$$

If the body start from rest, $v_1 = 0$; then

$$v_0 = \frac{v_1^2}{2a}; \quad v_2 = 2v_0; \quad a = \frac{v_1^2}{t^2}; \quad v_2 = at; \quad v_2 - at = 0. \quad \text{10. } \frac{v_2}{2}$$

Combining (1) and (2), we have

$$s = \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2a}; \quad s = v_1 t + \frac{at^2}{2}; \quad s = v_2 t - \frac{at^2}{2}.$$

If $v_1 = 0$, $s = \frac{v_2^2}{2a}$.

Retarded Motion.—If the body start with a velocity v_1 and come to rest, $v_2 = 0$; then $s = \frac{v_1^2}{2a}$.

In any case, if the change in velocity is v ,

$$s = \frac{v}{2a}t; \quad s = \frac{v^2}{2a}; \quad s = \frac{a}{2}t^2.$$

For a body starting from or ending at rest, we have the equations

$$v = at; \quad s = \frac{v}{2}t; \quad s = \frac{at^2}{2}; \quad v^2 = 2as.$$

Falling Bodies. In the case of falling bodies the acceleration due to gravity is 32.16 feet per second in one second, $= g$. Then $d = v$ feet acquired at the end of t seconds, or final velocity, and $h =$ height or distance in feet passed over in the same time,

$$v = gt = 32.16t = \sqrt{2gh} = 8.02 \sqrt{h} = \frac{2h}{t};$$

$$h = \frac{gt^2}{2} = 16.08t^2 = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{v^2}{64.32} = \frac{t^2}{2};$$

$$t = \frac{v}{g} = \frac{v}{32.16} = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{g}} = \frac{\sqrt{h}}{4.01} = \frac{2h}{v};$$

$$u = \text{space fallen through in the } T\text{th second} = gt - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

Value of g .—The value of g increases with the latitude, and with the elevation. At the latitude of Philadelphia, 40° , its value is 32.16 at the sea-level, Everett gives $g = 32.173 - .002 \cos 2 \text{ lat} = 0.005$ feet. At Paris, lat. $48^\circ 50' \text{ N.}$, $g = " 0.87 \text{ cm} = 32.181 \text{ ft.}$

Values of $\sqrt{2g}$, calculated by an equation given by C. S. Pierce are in a table in Smith's Hydraulics, from which we take the following:

Latitude	0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°
Value of $\sqrt{2g}$	8.0112	8.0118	8.0127	8.0135	8.0149	8.0155

The value of $\sqrt{2g}$ decreases about .0004 for every 1000 feet increase in elevation above the sea level.

For all ordinary calculations for the United States, g is generally taken as 32.16, and $\sqrt{2g}$ at 8.02. In England $g = 32.2$, $\sqrt{2g} = 8.025$. Practical values of g for the United States, according to Pierce, are:

Latitude 49° at sea-level	$g = 32.16$
" 25° 10,000 feet above the sea	$g = 31.00$

From the above formula for falling bodies we obtain the following:
During the first second the body starting from a state of rest (neglecting the air neglected) falls $g \div 2 = 16.08$ feet; the acquired velocity is 32.16 ft. per sec.; the distance fallen in two seconds is $h = \frac{gt^2}{2} = 16.08$

64.32 ft.; and the acquired velocity is $v = gt = 64.32$ ft. The acceleration or increase of velocity in each second, and is 32.16 ft. per sec. Using the equations for different times, we find for

Seconds, t	1	2	3	4
Acceleration, g	32.16	$\times 1$	1	1
Velocity acquired at end of time, v	32.16	$\times 1$	2	3
Height of fall in each second, u	$\frac{32.16}{2}$	$\times 1$	3	5
Total height of fall, h	$\frac{32.16}{2}$	$\times 1$	4	16

its graphically the velocity, space, etc., of a body falling for
 a vertical line at the left is
 ands, the horizontal lines
 off the acquired velocities
 each second. The area of
 gle at the top represents
 on through in the first
 16.08 feet, and each of the
 is an equal space. The
 gles between each pair of
 represents the height of
 and, and the number of
 in any horizontal line and
 total height fallen during
 figures under h , u , and v
 it are to be multiplied by
 the actual velocities and
 given times.

and Linear Velocity

body.—Let r = radius of a
 feet, n = number of revo-
 lutions, v = linear velocity of
 circumference in feet per second, and $60v$ = velocity in feet

$$v = \frac{2\pi rn}{60}, \quad 60v = 2\pi rn.$$

ity is a term used to denote the angle through which any
 body turns in a second, or the rate at which any point in it
 equal to unity is moving, expressed in feet per second. The
 velocity is the angle which at a distance = radius from the
 end by an arc equal to the radius. This unit angle = $\frac{180}{\pi}$

$2\pi \times 57.3^\circ = 360^\circ$, or the circumference. If A = angular

$$A = \frac{v}{r} = \frac{2\pi n}{60}.$$

corresponding to a Given Acquired Velocity.

Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.
feet p. sec.	feet	feet p. sec.	feet	feet p. sec.	feet	feet p. sec.	feet	feet p. sec.	feet
14	2.02	34	17.9	55	47.0	76	89.8	97	146
15	3.04	35	19.0	56	48.8	77	92.2	98	149
16	3.49	36	20.1	57	50.5	78	94.6	99	152
17	3.98	37	21.3	58	52.3	79	97.0	100	155
18	4.49	38	22.4	59	54.1	80	99.5	105	171
19	5.03	39	23.6	60	56.0	81	102.0	110	188
20	5.61	40	24.9	61	57.9	82	104.5	115	205
21	6.22	41	26.1	62	59.8	83	107.1	120	224
22	6.86	42	27.4	63	61.7	84	109.7	125	243
23	7.52	43	28.7	64	63.7	85	112.3	130	264
24	8.21	44	30.1	65	65.7	86	115.0	135	285
25	8.94	45	31.4	66	67.7	87	117.7	140	307
26	9.71	46	32.9	67	69.8	88	120.4	145	330
27	10.5	47	34.3	68	71.9	89	123.2	150	354
28	11.3	48	35.8	69	74.0	90	126.0	155	379
29	12.2	49	37.3	70	76.2	91	128.7	160	405
30	13.1	50	38.9	71	78.4	92	131.6	165	432
31	14.0	51	40.4	72	80.6	93	134.5	170	460
32	14.9	52	42.0	73	82.9	94	137.4	175	489
33	15.9	53	43.7	74	85.1	95	140.3	180	519
34	16.9	54	45.3	75	87.5	96	143.2	185	550

Falling Bodies: Velocity Acquired by a Body Fall Given Height.

Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.
feet.	feet p. sec.	feet.	feet p. sec.	feet.	feet p. sec.	feet.	feet p. sec.	feet.	feet p. sec.	feet.	feet p. sec.
.005	.37	.39	5.01	1.20	8.79	5.	17.9	23.	38.5	73	77.5
.010	.80	.40	5.07	1.22	8.87	.2	18.3	.5	38.9	38.9	
.015	.98	.41	5.14	1.24	8.94	.4	18.7	24.	39.3	74	77.5
.020	1.13	.42	5.20	1.26	9.01	.6	19.0	.5	39.7	75	77.5
.025	1.27	.43	5.26	1.28	9.08	.8	19.3	25.	40.1	76	77.5
.030	1.39	.44	5.32	1.30	9.15	6.	19.7	26	40.9	77	77.5
.035	1.50	.45	5.38	1.32	9.21	.2	20.0	27	41.7	78	77.5
.040	1.60	.46	5.44	1.34	9.29	.4	20.3	28	42.5	79	77.5
.045	1.70	.47	5.50	1.36	9.36	.6	20.6	29	43.2	80	77.5
.050	1.79	.48	5.56	1.38	9.43	.8	20.9	30	43.9	81	77.5
.055	1.88	.49	5.61	1.40	9.49	7.	21.2	31	44.7	82	77.5
.060	1.97	.50	5.67	1.42	9.57	.2	21.5	32	45.4	83	77.5
.065	2.04	.51	5.73	1.44	9.62	.4	21.8	33	46.1	84	77.5
.070	2.12	.52	5.78	1.46	9.70	.6	22.1	34	46.8	85	77.5
.075	2.20	.53	5.84	1.48	9.77	.8	22.4	35	47.4	86	77.5
.080	2.27	.54	5.90	1.50	9.82	8.	22.7	36	48.1	87	77.5
.085	2.34	.55	5.95	1.52	9.90	.2	23.0	37	48.8	88	77.5
.090	2.41	.56	6.00	1.54	9.96	.4	23.3	38	49.4	89	77.5
.095	2.47	.57	6.06	1.56	10.0	.6	23.5	39	50.1	90	77.5
.100	2.54	.58	6.11	1.58	10.1	.8	23.8	40	50.7	91	77.5
.105	2.60	.59	6.16	1.60	10.2	9.	24.1	41	51.4	92	77.5
.110	2.66	.60	6.21	1.62	10.3	.2	24.3	42	52.0	93	77.5
.115	2.72	.62	6.22	1.70	10.5	.4	24.6	43	52.6	94	77.5
.120	2.78	.64	6.42	1.75	10.6	.6	24.8	44	53.2	95	77.5
.125	2.84	.66	6.52	1.80	10.8	.8	25.1	45	53.8	96	77.5
.130	2.89	.68	6.67	1.90	11.1	10.	25.4	46	54.4	97	77.5
.14	3.00	.70	6.71	2.	11.4	.5	25.6	47	55.0	98	77.5
.15	3.11	.72	6.81	2.1	11.7	11.	26.6	48	55.6	99	77.5
.16	3.21	.74	6.90	2.2	11.9	.5	27.2	49	56.1	100	77.5
.17	3.31	.76	6.99	2.3	12.2	12.	27.8	50	56.7	101	77.5
.18	3.40	.78	7.09	2.4	12.4	.5	28.4	51	57.3	102	77.5
.19	3.50	.80	7.18	2.5	12.6	13.	28.9	52	57.8	103	77.5
.20	3.59	.82	7.26	2.6	12.9	.5	29.5	53	58.4	104	77.5
.21	3.68	.84	7.35	2.7	13.2	14.	30.0	54	59.0	105	77.5
.22	3.76	.86	7.44	2.8	13.4	.5	30.5	55	59.5	106	77.5
.23	3.85	.88	7.53	2.9	13.7	15.	31.1	56	60.0	107	77.5
.24	3.93	.90	7.61	3.	13.9	.5	31.6	57	60.6	108	77.5
.25	4.01	.92	7.69	3.1	14.1	16.	32.1	58	61.1	109	77.5
.26	4.09	.94	7.78	3.2	14.3	.5	32.6	59	61.6	110	77.5
.27	4.17	.96	7.86	3.3	14.5	17.	33.1	60	62.1	111	77.5
.28	4.25	.98	7.94	3.4	14.8	.5	33.6	61	62.7	112	77.5
.29	4.32	1.00	8.02	3.5	15.0	18.	34.0	62	63.2	113	77.5
.30	4.39	1.02	8.10	3.6	15.2	.5	34.5	63	63.7	114	77.5
.31	4.47	1.04	8.18	3.7	15.4	19.	35.0	64	64.2	115	77.5
.32	4.54	1.06	8.26	3.8	15.6	.5	35.4	65	64.7	116	77.5
.33	4.61	1.08	8.34	3.9	15.8	20.	35.9	66	65.2	117	77.5
.34	4.68	1.10	8.41	4.	16.0	.5	36.3	67	65.7	118	77.5
.35	4.74	1.12	8.49	4.1	16.4	21.	36.8	68	66.1	119	77.5
.36	4.81	1.14	8.57	4.2	16.8	.5	37.2	69	66.6	120	77.5
.37	4.88	1.16	8.64	4.3	17.2	22.	37.6	70	67.1	121	77.5
.38	4.94	1.18	8.72	4.4	17.6	.5	38.1	71	67.6	122	77.5

Parallelogram of Velocities.—The principle of the composition and resolution of forces may also be applied to velocities or to motion in given intervals of time. Referring to Fig. 88, page 400, let *O* has a force applied to it which acting alone would give it a velocity represented by *OQ* per second, and at the same time it is

Another force which acting alone would give it a velocity OP per second, the result of the two forces acting together for one second will carry it to R , OR being the diagonal of the parallelogram of OQ and OP , and the resultant velocity. If the two component velocities are uniform, the resultant will be uniform and the line OR will be a straight line; but if either velocity is a varying one, the line will be a curve. Fig. 96 shows the resultant velocities, also the path traversed by a shot acted on by two forces, one of which would carry it at a uniform velocity over the intervals 1, 2, 3, B , and the other of which would carry it by an accelerated motion over the intervals a , b , c , D in the same times. At the end of the respective intervals the body will be found at C_1 , C_2 , C_3 , C , and the mean velocity during each interval is represented by the distances between those points. Such a curved path is traversed by a shot, the impelling force from the gun giving it a uniform velocity in the direction the gun is aimed, and gravity giving it an accelerated velocity downward. The path of a projectile is a parabola. The distance it will travel is greatest when its initial direction is at an angle 45° above the horizontal.

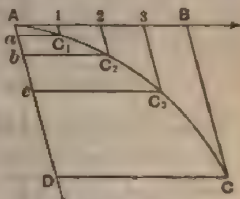


FIG. 96.

Mass Force of Acceleration.—The mass of a body, or the quantity of matter it contains, is a constant quantity, while the weight varies according to the variation in the force of gravity at different places. If g = the acceleration due to gravity, and w = weight, then the mass $m = \frac{w}{g}$, $w = mg$. Weight here means the resultant of the force of gravity on the particles of a body, such as may be measured by a spring balance, or by the extension or deflection of a rod of metal loaded with the given weight.

Force has been defined as that which causes, or tends to cause, or to destroy, motion. It may also be defined (Kennedy's *Mechanics of Machinery*) as the cause of acceleration; and the unit of force as the force required to produce unit acceleration in a unit of free mass.

Force equals the product of the mass by the acceleration, or $f = ma$. Also if v = the velocity acquired in the time t , $ft = mv$; $f = mv + t$; the acceleration being uniform.

The force required to produce an acceleration of g (that is, 32.16 ft. per sec.) in one second is $f = mg = \frac{w}{g}g = w$, or the weight of the body. Also,

$f = ma = m \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}$, in which v_2 is the velocity at the end, and v_1 the velocity at the beginning of the time t , and $f = mg = \frac{w}{g} \frac{(v_2 - v_1)}{t} = \frac{w}{g} a$;

$\frac{f}{g} = \frac{w}{g}$; or, the force required to give any acceleration to a body is to the weight of the body as that acceleration is to the acceleration produced by gravity. (The weight w is the weight where g is measured.)

EXAMPLES.—Tension in a cord lifting a weight. A weight of 100 lbs. is lifted vertically by a cord a distance of 80 feet in 4 seconds, the velocity uniformly increasing from 0 to the end of the time. What tension must be maintained in the cord? Mean velocity = $v_0 = 20$ ft. per sec.; final velocity

$v_1 = 40$; acceleration $a = \frac{v_1 - v_0}{t} = \frac{40 - 0}{4} = 10$. Force $f = ma = \frac{w}{g}a = \frac{100}{32.16} \times 10 = 31.1$ lbs.

This is the force required to produce the acceleration only; if a weight be added the force required to lift the weight without acceleration, or 70 lbs., making a total of 101.1 lbs.

The Resistance to Acceleration is the same as the force required to produce the acceleration = $\frac{w}{g} \frac{(v_2 - v_1)}{t}$.

Formulae for Accelerated Motion.—For cases of uniformly accelerated motion other than those of falling bodies, we have the formulae given, $f = \frac{w}{g} a$, $a = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}$. If the body starts from rest, $v_1 = 0$, v_2

$= v$, and $f = \frac{wv}{t}$, $fgt = wv$. We also have $s = \frac{vt}{2}$. Transposing and substituting for g its value 32.16, we obtain

$$f = \frac{wv^2}{64.32s} = \frac{wv}{32.16t} = \frac{ws}{16.08t^2}; \quad w = \frac{32.16ft}{v} = \frac{64.32fs}{v^2}.$$

$$s = \frac{wv^2}{64.32f} = \frac{16.08ft^2}{w} = \frac{vt}{2}; \quad v = 8.02 \sqrt{\frac{fs}{w}} = \frac{32.16ft}{w};$$

$$t = \frac{wv}{32.16f} = \frac{1}{4.01} \sqrt{\frac{ws}{f}}.$$

For any change in velocity $f = w \left(\frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{64.32s} \right)$.

(See also Work of Acceleration, under Work.)

Motion on Inclined Planes.—The velocity acquired by a body descending an inclined plane by the force of gravity (friction neglected) is equal to that acquired by a body falling freely from the height of the plane. The times of descent down different inclined planes of the same height vary as the length of the planes.

The rules for uniformly accelerated motion apply to inclined planes. α is the angle of the plane with the horizontal, $\sin \alpha$ = the ratio of the height to the length $= \frac{h}{l}$, and the constant accelerating force is $g \sin \alpha$. The velocity at the end of t seconds is $v = gt \sin \alpha$. The distance passed in t seconds is $l = \frac{1}{2} gt^2 \sin \alpha$. The time of descent is

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{2l}{g \sin \alpha}} = \frac{l}{4.01 \sqrt{h}}.$$

MOMENTUM, VIS-VIVA.

Momentum, or quantity of motion in a body, is the product of the body by the velocity at any instant $= mv = \frac{w}{g}v$.

Since the moving force = product of mass by acceleration, $f = ma$, the velocity acquired in t seconds $= v$, or $a = \frac{v}{t}$, $f = \frac{mv}{t}$; $ft = mv$, the product of a constant force into the time in which it acts equals the momentum.

Since $ft = mv$, if $t = 1$ second $mv = f$, whence momentum might be fixed as numerically equivalent to the number of pounds of force that stop a moving body in 1 second, or the number of pounds of force acting during 1 second will give it the given velocity.

Vis-viva, or living force, is a term used by early writers on mechanics to denote the energy stored in a moving body. Some defined it as the product of the mass into the square of the velocity, mv^2 , $= \frac{w}{g}v^2$ others as half of this quantity or $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$, or the same as what is now known as energy. The term is now practically obsolete, its place being taken by the energy.

WORK, ENERGY, POWER.

Work is the overcoming of resistance through a certain distance, measured by the product of the resistance into the space through which it is overcome. It is also measured by the product of the moving force into the distance through which the force acts in overcoming the resistance. Thus in lifting a body from the earth against the attraction of gravity, resistance is the weight of the body, and the product of this weight into the distance the body is lifted is the work done.

Unit of Work. in British measures, is the foot-pound, or the work done in overcoming a pressure or weight equal to 1 pound through 1 foot.

work performed by a piston in driving a fluid before it, or by a fluid against a piston before it, may be expressed in either of the following

Resistance \times distance traversed

= intensity of pressure \times area \times distance traversed ;

= intensity of pressure \times volume traversed.

work performed in lifting a body is the product of the weight of the body to the height through which its centre of gravity is lifted.

A machine lifts the centres of gravity of several bodies at once to heights the same or different, the whole quantity of work performed in so doing is the sum of the several products of the weights and heights ; but gravity can also be computed by multiplying the sum of all the heights into the height through which their common centre of gravity is lifted (Rankine.)

Power is the rate at which work is done, and is expressed by the quotient of the work divided by the time in which it is done, or by units of work done, per minute, etc., as foot-pounds per second. The most common power is the *horse-power*, established by James Watt as the power of a London draught-horse to do work during a short interval, and used to measure the power of his steam-engines. This unit is 33,000 foot-pounds per minute = 550 foot-pounds per second = 1,980,000 foot-pounds per

Expressions for Force, Work, Power, etc.

Fundamental conceptions in Dynamics are :

Time, Space, represented by the letters T, S .

Velocity = space divided by time, $V = \frac{S}{T}$, if V be uniform.

Work = product of force into space = $FS = W = FVT$. (V uniform.)

Power = rate of work = work divided by time = $\frac{FS}{T} = P$ = product of force into velocity = FV .

Work exerted for a certain time produces work ; $PT = FS = FVT = W$.

Motion is a name applied to a force which acts on a body in the direction of motion.

Resistance is that which is opposed to a moving force. It is equal and opposite to the force.

Power Hours, an expression for work measured as the product of a power into the time during which it acts = PT . Sometimes it signifies the summation of a variable power for a given time, or the average power multiplied by the time.

Energy, or stored work, is the capacity for performing work. It is measured by the same unit as work, that is, in foot-pounds. It may be *potential*, as in the case of a body of water stored in a reservoir, or of doing work by means of a water-wheel, or *actual*, sometimes *kinetic*, which is the energy of a moving body. Potential energy is measured by the product of the weight of the stored body into the distance to which it is capable of acting, or by the product of the pressure it is capable of acting through which that pressure is capable of acting. Actual energy may also exist as stored heat, or as stored chemical energy, as in gunpowder, etc., or as electrical energy, the measure of these being the amount of work that they are capable of performing. The energy of a moving body is the work which it is capable of performing against a retarding resistance before being brought to rest, and is equal to the work which must be done upon it to bring it from a state of rest to its actual velocity.

The measure of actual energy is the product of the weight of the body into the height from which it must fall to acquire its actual velocity. If v be the velocity in feet per second, according to the principle of falling bodies,

weight due to the velocity = $\frac{wv^2}{2g}$, and if w be the weight, the energy = $\frac{wv^2}{2g}$.

Mass. As the quantity $\frac{w}{g}$ is called the mass = m , energy is equal to half the mass into the square of the velocity = $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. Since energy is the capacity for performing work, the units of work and energy are equivalent, or $FS = \frac{wv^2}{2g} = wh$. Energy exerted = work done.

The actual energy of a rotating body whose angular velocity is ω and moment of inertia $\Sigma mr^2 = I$ is $\frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$, that is, the product of the moment of inertia into the height due to the velocity, A , of a point whose distance from the axis of rotation is unity; or it is equal to $\frac{mv^2}{2g}$, in which v is the velocity of the body and v is the velocity of the centre of gyration.

Work of Acceleration.—The work done in giving acceleration to a body is equal to the product of the force producing the acceleration, the resistance to acceleration, into the distance moved in a given time, as already stated equals the product of the mass into the acceleration or $f = ma = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}$. If the distance traversed in the time t

$$\text{work} = fs = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t} s.$$

EXAMPLE.—What work is required to move a body weighing 100 lbs. uniformly a distance of 80 ft. in 4 seconds, the velocity uniformly increasing from rest, friction neglected?

Mean velocity $v_0 = 20$ ft. per second; final velocity $= v_2 = 2v_0 = 40$ ft. per second; velocity $v_1 = 0$; acceleration, $a = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t} = \frac{40}{4} = 10$; force $= \frac{w}{g} a = \frac{100}{32.16} \times 10 = 31.1$ lbs.; distance 80 ft.; work $= fs = 31.1 \times 80 = 2488$ foot-pounds.

The energy stored in the body moving at the final velocity of 40 ft. per second is

$$\frac{1}{2} mv^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{w}{g} v^2 = \frac{100 \times 40^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 2488 \text{ foot-pounds,}$$

which equals the work of acceleration,

$$fs = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2}{t} s = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2}{t} \frac{v_2 t}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{w}{g} v_2^2.$$

If a body of the weight W falls from a height H , the work of acceleration is simply WH , or the same as the work required to raise the body to the same height.

Work of Accelerated Rotation.—Let A = angular velocity, r = radius of solid body rotating about an axis, that is, the velocity of a particle whose radius is unity. Then the velocity of a particle whose radius is r is $v = rA$. If the angular velocity is accelerated from A_1 to A_2 , the increase in velocity of the particle is $v_2 - v_1 = r(A_2 - A_1)$, and the work of acceleration is

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{w}{g} \times \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2} = \frac{w r^2}{g} \frac{A_2^2 - A_1^2}{2},$$

in which w is the weight of the particle.

The work of acceleration of the whole body is

$$\Sigma \left\{ \frac{w}{g} \times \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2} \right\} = \frac{A_2^2 - A_1^2}{2g} \times \Sigma wr^2.$$

The term Σwr^2 is the moment of inertia of the body.

"Force of the Blow" of a Steam Hammer or Other Falling Weight.—The question is often asked: "With what force does a falling hammer strike?" The question cannot be answered as it is based upon a misconception or ignorance of fundamental laws.

The energy, or capacity of doing work, of a body raised to a height and let fall cannot be expressed in pounds, simply, but in foot-pounds, which is the product of the weight into the height (three feet), or the product of its weight $\times 64.32$ into the square of the time in feet per second, which it acquires after falling through the given height. If F = weight of the body, M its mass, g the acceleration due to gravity, S the height of fall, and v the velocity at the end of the fall, then the energy of the body just before striking, is $FS = \frac{1}{2} Mv^2 = Wv^2 + 2gS = Wv^2$, which is the general equation of energy of a moving body. The energy of the body is the product of a force into a distance, so it does when it strikes, the manifestation of a force, which is the overcoming of a resistance, and the work done is the product of the force into the distance.

pressed simply, is the overcoming of a resistance, and the work done is the product of the force into the distance.

the distance through which it is exerted. If a hammer weighing 10 lb., its energy is 1000 foot-pounds. Before being brought to rest it does 1000 foot-pounds of work against one or more resistances, of various kinds, such as that due to motion imparted to the body, deformation against friction, or against resistance to shearing or compression, and crushing and heating of both the falling body and the anvil. The distance through which these resisting forces act is indeterminate, and therefore the average of the resisting forces, which themselves generally vary with the distance, is also indeterminate.

Impact of Bodies.—If two inelastic bodies collide, they will move on as one mass, with a common velocity. The momentum of the combined mass is equal to the sum of the momenta of the two bodies before impact, and m_1 and m_2 are the masses of the two bodies and v_1 and v_2 their velocities before impact, and v their common velocity after impact,

$$v = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2}.$$

If the bodies move in opposite directions $v = \frac{m_1 v_1 - m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2}$, or, the velocity of the combined mass after impact is equal to the algebraic sum of their momenta before impact, divided by the sum of their masses.

If elastic bodies of equal momenta impinge directly upon one another in opposite directions they will be brought to rest.

Impact of Inelastic Bodies Causes a Loss of Energy, and is equal to the sum of the energies due to the velocities lost and the bodies, respectively.

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 - \frac{1}{2} (m_1 + m_2) v^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 (v_1 - v)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 (v_2 - v)^2.$$

v is the velocity lost by m_1 and $v - v_2$ the velocity gained by m_2 .

—Let $m_1 = 10$, $m_2 = 8$, $v_1 = 12$, $v_2 = 15$.

If the bodies collide they will come to rest, for $v = \frac{10 \times 12 - 8 \times 15}{10 + 8} = 0$.

Energy loss is

$$\frac{1}{2} \times 10 \times 12^2 - \frac{1}{2} \times 18 \times 0 = \frac{1}{2} \times 10 (12 - 0)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \times 8 (15 - 0)^2 = 1620 \text{ ft. lbs.}$$

What comes of the energy lost? Ans. It is used doing internal work on the bodies themselves, changing their shape and heating them.

Perfectly Elastic Bodies. Let e be the elasticity, that is, the ratio of the force of restitution, or the internal force tending to restore the body after it has been compressed, bears to the force of compression. Let m_1 and m_2 be the masses, v_1 and v_2 their velocities before impact, v_1' and v_2' their velocities after impact; then

$$v_1' = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2} - \frac{m_2 e (v_1 - v_2)}{m_1 + m_2};$$

$$v_2' = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2} + \frac{m_1 e (v_1 - v_2)}{m_1 + m_2}.$$

If the bodies are perfectly elastic, their relative velocities before and after impact are the same. That is: $v_1' - v_2' = v_2 - v_1$.

Impact of Bodies. The sum of their momenta after impact is the same as the sum of their momenta before impact.

$$m_1 v_1' + m_2 v_2' = m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2.$$

Illustration of these and other laws of impact, see Smith's Mechanics, Weisbach's Mechanics.

Recoil of Guns.—(Eng'g. Jan. 25, 1884, p. 73.)

Let W be the weight of the gun and carriage;

V the maximum velocity of recoil;

w the weight of the projectile;

v the muzzle velocity of the projectile.

Let M be the momentum of the gun and carriage is equal to the momentum of the projectile, we have $WV = wv$, or $V = \frac{w}{W} v$.

Comment by Prof. W. D. Marks, in Nystrom's Mechanics, that this formula is in error is itself erroneous.

Taking the case of a 10-inch gun firing a 400-lb. projectile with a muzzle velocity of 1400 feet per second, the weight of the gun and carriage being 49,380 lbs., we find the velocity of recoil =

$$V = \frac{1400 \times 400}{49,380} = 11 \text{ feet per second.}$$

Now the energy of a body in motion is $WV^2 + 2g$.

$$\text{Therefore the energy of recoil} = \frac{49,380 \times 11^2}{2 \times 32.2} = 92,538 \text{ foot-pounds.}$$

$$\text{The energy of the projectile is} = \frac{400 \times 1400^2}{2 \times 32.2} = 12,173,918 \text{ foot-pounds.}$$

Conservation of Energy.—No form of energy can ever be produced except by the expenditure of some other form, nor annihilated except by being reproduced in another form. Consequently the sum of the energy in the universe, like the sum total of matter, must always remain the same. (S. Newcomb.) Energy can never be destroyed or lost, if it be transformed, can be transferred from one body to another, be matter what transformations are undergone, when the total effects of the exertion of a given amount of energy are summed up the result will be exactly equal to the amount originally expended from the source. This is called the Conservation of Energy. (Cotterill and Slade.)

A heavy body sustained at an elevated position has potential energy. When it falls, just before it reaches the earth's surface it has acquired kinetic energy, due to its velocity. When it strikes it may penetrate the earth a certain distance or may be crushed. In either case friction or other means by which the energy is converted into heat, which is gradually radiated into the earth or into the atmosphere, or both. Mechanical energy and heat are mutually convertible. Electric energy is also convertible into both mechanical energy, and either kind of energy may be converted into the other.

Sources of Energy.—The principal sources of energy on the earth's surface are the muscular energy of men and animals, the energy of wind, of flowing water, and of fuel. These sources derive their energy from the rays of the sun. Under the influence of the sun's rays vegetation grows and wood is formed. The wood may be used as fuel under a boiler, its carbon being burned to carbonic acid. Three tenths of its energy escapes in the chimney and by radiation, and seven tenths appears as potential energy in the steam. In the steam-engine, of this seven tenths six parts are dissipated in heating the condensing water and are wasted, the remaining one-tenth of the original heat energy of the wood is converted into mechanical work in the steam-engine, which may be used to drive machinery. This work is finally, by friction of various kinds, or possibly after transformation into electric currents, transformed into heat, which is radiated into the atmosphere, increasing its temperature. All the potential heat energy of the wood is, after various transformations, converted into heat, which, mingling with the store of heat in the atmosphere, apparently is lost. But the carbonic acid generated by the combustion of the wood is, again, under the influence of the sun's rays, absorbed by vegetation, and more wood may thus be formed having potential energy equal to the original.

Perpetual Motion.—The law of the conservation of energy, in which no law of mechanics is more firmly established, is an absolute bar to all schemes for obtaining by mechanical means what is called "perpetual motion," or a machine which will do an amount of work greater than is equivalent of the energy, whether of heat, of chemical combination, of electricity, or mechanical energy, that is put into it. Such a result would be the creation of an additional store of energy in the universe, which is impossible by any human agency.

The Efficiency of a Machine is a fraction expressing the ratio of the useful work to the whole work performed, which is equal to the energy expended. The limit to the efficiency of a machine is unity, denoting the efficiency of a perfect machine in which no work is lost. The difference between the energy expended and the useful work done, or the energy actually expended either in overcoming friction or in doing work on the surroundings, the machine from which no useful work is received. The ratio of the useful work to the whole part of the energy exerted in the operation is called the efficiency.

work of giving motion to the vessel, and the remainder is moving the friction of the machinery and in making currents in the surrounding water.

ANIMAL POWER.

A Man against Known Resistances. (Rankine.)

Exertion.	R, lbs.	V, ft. per sec.	$\frac{T''}{3600}$ (hours per day).	RV, ft.-lbs. per sec.	RVT, ft.-lbs. per day.
own weight up ladder	113	0.5	8	72.5	2,088,000
weights with rope, using the rope uti-					
.....	40	0.75	6	30	648,000
weights by hand	44	0.55	6	24.2	522,720
weights up stairs					
being unloaded	143	0.18	6	18.5	399,000
up earth to a					
3 ft. 3 in.	6	1.3	10	7.8	280,800
earth in barrow up					
1 in 12, $\frac{1}{2}$ horiz.					
ft. per sec. and re-					
loaded	132	0.075	10	9.9	356,400
pulling horizon-					
tally (man or oar)	25.5	2.0	8	53	1,596,400
	12.5	5.0	7	62.5	1,266,000
	18.0	2.5	8	45	1,266,000
rank or winch	20.0	14.4	2 min.	288	1,188,000
ump	18.2	2.5	10	33	480,000
g	15	?	8?	?	480,000

R, resistance; V, effective velocity = distance through overcome ÷ total time occupied, including the time of moving; T'', time of working, in seconds per day; $\frac{T''}{3600}$, same per day; RV, effective power, in foot-pounds per second; RVT, same per day.

Performance of a Man in Transporting Loads Horizontally. (Rankine.)

Exertion.	L, lbs.	V, ft.-sec.	$\frac{T}{3600}$ (hours per day).	LV, lbs. con- veyed 1 foot.	LVT, lbs. con- veyed 1 foot.
loaded transport-					
own weight	113	5	11	700	25,200,000
load L in 2-w. wheel					
return unloaded	224	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	373	13,438,000
in barrow, ditto	132	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	280	7,020,000
with burden	90	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	225	5,070,000
burden, returning					
.....	140	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	238	5,032,800
burden, for 30 sec.					
.....	252	0	0
.....	126	11 7	1474 2
.....	0	23.1	0

L, load; V, effective velocity, computed in seconds per day; $\frac{T}{3600}$, same per second, in lbs. conveyed one foot; LV,

In the first line only of each of the two tables above is the man taken into account in computing the work done.

Clark says that the average net daily work of an ordinary pump, a winch, or a crank taken at 3900 foot-pound or one-tenth of a horsepower a day; but for a horse from four to five times as exerted.

Mr. Glynn says that exert a force of 25 lbs. of a crane for short per for continuous work a is all that should be as through 220 feet per m

Man-wheel.—Fig. of a very efficient maning-machine which the Berne, Switzerland, in 1 of the wheel was wide three men to walk at nine men could work in



FIG. 27.

Work of a Horse against a Known Resistance

Kind of Exertion.	R.	V.	T. 3600	H.
1. Cantering and trotting, drawing a light railway carriage (thoroughbred)	{ min. 22½ mean 30½ max. 50 }	142½	4	44½
2. Horse drawing cart or boat, walking (draught-horse)	120	5.5	5	48½
3. Horse drawing a gin or mill, walking	100	3.0	8	300
4. Ditto, trotting	66	6.5	4½	42½

EXPLANATION.—*R*, resistance, in lbs.; *V*, velocity, in feet per second; *H*, hours work per day; *W*, work per second; $\frac{R \times V}{H}$, the average power of a draught-horse, as given in line 2 of the table, being 492 foot-pounds per second, is $492/550 = 0.785$ of the conventional unit of the horse, which is 550 foot-pounds per second assigned by Watt to the ordinary unit of the rate of work of a horse. It is the mean of several results of experiments, and may be taken as an average of ordinary performance under favorable circumstances.

Performance of a Horse in Transporting Horizontally. (Rankine.)

Kind of Exertion.	L.	P.	T.	LV.
5. Walking with cart, always loaded	1500	8.8	10	340
6. Trotting, ditto	750	7.2	4½	340
7. Walking with cart, going loaded, returning empty; \bar{V} , mean velocity	1000	9.0	10	300
8. Carrying burden, walking...	270	8.6	10	97
9. Ditto, trotting	100	7.2	7	12

EXPLANATION.—*L*, load in lbs.; *V*, velocity in feet per second; working hours per day; *LV*, transport per second; *LVT, traction per second. This table has reference to conveyance on common roads only. It is in bad order as respects the resistance to traction on a *glacis*.—In this machine a horse works less on a straight track. In order*

results may be realized with a horse-gin, the diameter of the circle in which the horse walks should not be less than about forty

4. Mules, Asses.—Authorities differ considerably as to the power of animals. The following may be taken as an approximative comparison between them and draught-horses (Rankine):

Load, the same as that of average draught-horse; best velocity and no thirds of horse.

Load, one half of that of average draught-horse; best velocity, with horse; work one half.

Load, one quarter that of average draught-horse; best velocity the work one quarter.

Relation of Draught of Horses by Increase of Grade

ada. (*Engineering Record*, Prize Essays on Roads, 1892).—Experiments on English roads by (Gayfler & Parnell):

Load that can be drawn on a level 100:

of 1 in 100. 1 in 50. 1 in 40. 1 in 30. 1 in 25. 1 in 20. 1 in 10.
can draw only 90. 81. 72. 61. 54. 40. 25.

Resistance of Carriages on Roads is (according to Gen. von approximately by the following empirical formula:

$$R = \frac{W}{r} [a + b(u - 3.23)].$$

formula R = total resistance; r = radius of wheel in inches; W = weight; u = velocity in feet per second; while a and b are constants, values are: For good broken-stone road, $a = .4$ to $.55$, $b = .024$ to $.036$; for roads, $a = .37$, $b = .0684$.

It states that on gravel the resistance is about double, and on times, the resistance on good broken-stone roads.

ELEMENTS OF MACHINES.

set of a machine is usually to transform the work or mechanical energy at the point where the machine receives its motion into the point where the final resistance is applied. The specific end may be to change the character or direction of motion, circular to rectilinear, or vice versa; to change the velocity, or to overcome resistance by the application of a force. In all cases the total energy equals the total work done, the latter the overcoming of all the frictional losses of the machine as well as the work performed. No increase of power is gained from any machine, since this is according to the law of conservation of energy. In a frictionless machine the force exerted at the driving-point, multiplied by the velocity of the driving-point, equals the product of the resistance multiplied by the distance through which the resistance is overcome in the same time.

Simple machines, or elementary machines, are reducible to three classes, viz., the Cord, and the Inclined Plane. The first class includes every machine consisting of a solid body capable of revolving on a fixed axis, as the Wheel and Axle.

The second class includes every machine in which motion is transmitted by means of flexible bodies, ropes, etc., as the Pulley.

The third class includes every machine in which motion is introduced, as the Wedge and the Screw. The screw is an inflexible rod capable of motion about a fixed point, or axis. The rod may be straight or bent at any angle, or may be regarded, at first, as without weight, but its weight

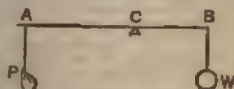


FIG. 98.

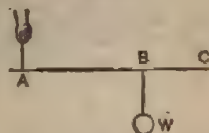


FIG. 99.

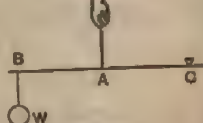


FIG. 100.

It is a case of two moving struts placed end to end, the moving tug applied at their point of junction, in a direction at right angles to the direction of the resistance, the other end of one of the struts resting on a fixed abutment, and that of the other against the body to be moved. If α = the angle each strut makes with the straight line joining the point about which their outer ends rotate, the ratio of the resistance to the applied force is $K : P :: \cos \alpha : 2 \sin \alpha$; $2R \sin \alpha = P \cos \alpha$. The

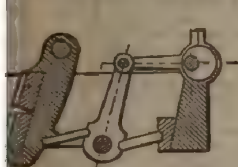


FIG. 102.

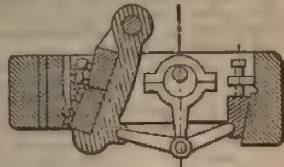


FIG. 103.

ratio varies when the angle varies, becoming infinite when the angle becomes zero.

A toggle-joint is used where great resistances are to be overcome by very small distances, as in stone-crushers (Fig. 103).

Inclined Plane, as a mechanical element, is supposed perfectly smooth, unless friction be considered. It assists in sustaining a body by its reaction. This reaction, however, being normal to the plane, cannot entirely counteract the weight of the body, which acts vertically downward. Some other force must therefore be applied to act upon the body, in order that it may be sustained.

If a sustaining force act parallel to the plane, the force is to the weight as the height of the plane is to its length, measured on the incline. If a force act parallel to the base of the plane, the force is to the weight as the height is to the

base. If a force act at any other angle, let i = the angle of the plane with the horizon, and e = the angle of the direction of the applied force with the plane. $P : W :: \sin i : \cos e$; $P \times \cos e = W \sin i$. The problems of the inclined plane may be solved by the parallelogram of forces:

Let the weight W be kept at rest on the incline by the force P , acting in a direction BP' , parallel to the plane. Draw the vertical line ba to represent the weight; also bb' perpendicular to the plane, and complete the parallelogram abc . Then the vertical weight ba is the resultant of bb' , the measure of the force given by the plane to the weight, and bc , the force of gravity tending to draw the weight down the plane. The force required to maintain the weight in equilibrium is represented by this force bc . Thus the force P is to the weight W as the ratio of bc to ba . Since the triangle of forces abc is similar to the triangle of the incline ABC , the latter may be substituted for the former in determining the relative magnitude of the forces, and

$$P : W :: bc : ab :: BC : AB.$$

Wedge is a pair of inclined planes united by their bases. In the action of pressure to the head or butt end of the wedge, to cause it to move a resisting body, the applied force is to the resistance as the height of the wedge is to its length. Let t be the thickness, l the length, the resistance, and P the applied force or pressure on the head of the wedge.

Then, friction neglected, $P : W :: t : l$; $P = \frac{Wt}{l}$; $W = \frac{Pl}{t}$.

Screw is an inclined plane wrapped around a cylinder in such a manner that the height of the plane is parallel to the axis of the cylinder. If a weight is formed upon the internal surface of a hollow cylinder, it is called a nut. When force is applied to raise a weight by means of a screw and nut, either the screw or

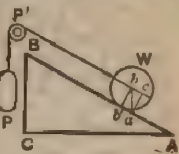


FIG. 104.

be fixed, the other being movable. The force is generally applied at the end of a wrench or lever-arm, or at the circumference of a wheel. If r = radius of the wheel or lever-arm, and p = pitch of the screw, or distance between threads, that is, the height of the inclined plane for one revolution of the screw, P = the applied force, and W = the resistance overcome, then, neglecting resistance due to friction, $2\pi r \times P = Wp$; $W = 6.28Pr/p$. The ratio of P to W is thus independent of the diameter of the screw. In actual screws, much of the power transmitted is lost through friction.

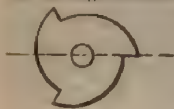


FIG. 105.

The Cam is a revolving inclined plane. It may be either an inclined plane wrapped around a cylinder in such a way that the height of the plane is radial to the cylinder, such as the ordinary lifting-cam, used in stamp-mills



FIG. 106.

(Fig. 105), or it may be an inclined plane curved edge-wise, and rotating plane parallel to its base (Fig. 106). The relation of the weight to the applied force is calculated in the same manner as in the case of the screw.

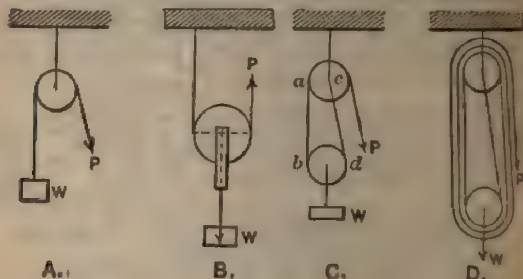


FIG. 107.

Pulleys or Blocks.— P = force applied, or pull; W = weight or resistance. In the simple pulley *A* (Fig. 107) the point P on the rope descends the same amount that the weight is lifted, therefore $W = P$. In *B* and *C* the point P moves twice as far as the weight is lifted, therefore $W = 2P$. In *B* and *C* there is one movable block, and two fixed blocks engage with it. In *B* there are three sheaves in the movable block, each with two plies engaged, or six in all. Six plies of the rope are shortened by the same amount that the weight is lifted, and P moves six times as far as the weight, consequently $W = 6P$. In *C* the ratio of W to P is equal to the number of plies that engage the shortened, and also is equal to the number of plies that engage the block. If the lower block has 2 sheaves and the upper 3, the end of *C* is fastened to a hook in the top of the lower block, and then the plies shortened instead of 6, and $W = 5P$. If V = velocity of W , and v = velocity of P , then in all cases $VW = vP$, whatever the number of plies or their arrangement. If the hauling rope, at the pulling end, passes around a sheave in the upper or stationary block, it makes no difference what direction the rope is led from this block to the point at which the force is applied; but if it first passes around the movable block, it is necessary that the pull be exerted in a direction parallel to the line of resistance, or a line joining the centres of the two blocks, in order to obtain the maximum effect. If the rope pulls on the lower block at an angle, the block will be pulled out of the line drawn between the centres of the upper block, and the effective pull will be less than the

in the ratio of the cosine of the angle the pulling rope makes vertical, or line of action of the resistance, to unity.

Fixed Pulley. (Fig. 108.)—Two pulleys, *B* and *C*, of different radii, are on one piece about a fixed axis, *A*. An end-rod, *BDECLKH*, passes over both pulleys. The pulleys are shaped so as to hold the chain and from slipping. One of the bights or loops in chain hangs, *DE*, passes under and supports the block *F*. The other loop or bight, *HKL*, hangs from the pulley *B*. It is evident that the velocity-ratio is equal to that of the pulley *B*.

that the velocity-ratio may be exactly uniform, of the sheave *F* should be an exact mean between radii of *B* and *C*.

that the point *H* of the cord *BD* moves through a length = *AB*, during the same time the cord *CE* will move downward a distance = length of the bight or loop *BDEC* will be $\pi(AB - AC)$, which will cause the pulley *F* to fall of this amount. If *P* = the pulling force on *K*, and *W* the weight lifted at *F*, then $P \times W(AB - AC)$.

the length of chain required for a differential pulley is the following sum: Half the circumference of pulley *B* + half the circumference of pulley *C* + the greatest distance of *F* from *A* + the length of loop *HKL*. The last quantity is fixed by convenience.



FIG. 108.

Differential Windlass (Fig. 109) is identical in principle with the differential pulley, the difference in construction being that in the differential windlass the running block hangs in the bight of a rope whose two parts are wound round, and have their ends respectively made fast to two barrels of different radii, which rotate as one piece about the axis *A*. The differential windlass is little used in practice, because of the great length of rope which it requires.

The Differential Screw (Fig. 110) is a compound screw of different pitches, in which the threads wind the same way. *N*₁ and *N*₂ are the two nuts; *S*₁*S*₁, the longer-pitched thread; *S*₂*S*₂, the shorter-pitched thread. In the figure both these threads are left-handed. At each turn of the screw the nut *N*₂ advances relatively to *N*₁ through a distance equal to the difference of the pitch. The use of the differential screw is to combine the slowness

due to a fine pitch with the strength of thread which can be obtained by means of a coarse pitch only.

Band and Axle, or Windlass, resembles two pulleys on one axis, but different diameters. If a weight be lifted by means of a rope wound on the wheel, the force being applied at the axle, the action is like that of a lever, the shorter arm is equal to the radius of the axle plus half the thickness of the rope, and the longer arm is the radius of the wheel. A wheel and axle is therefore sometimes classed as a lever.



FIG. 110.

If *P* = the applied force, *D* = diameter of the wheel, *d* = diameter of the axle + the diameter of the rope, and *W* = weight lifted, and *d* the diameter of the axle + the diameter of the rope, then $P \times W = Wd$.

Wheel Gearing is a combination of two or more wheels (Fig. 111). If a series of wheels and pinions gear into each other, and friction neglected, the weight lifted, or resistance overcome, is the force applied inversely as the distances through which the force is applied in a given time. If *R*, *R*₁, *R*₂ be the radii of the successive wheels, and *r*, *r*₁, *r*₂ the radii of the corresponding pinions, *P* the applied force, and *W* the weight lifted, $P \times W = Wd$.

$R \times R_1 \times R_2 = W \times r \times r_1 \times r_2$, or the applied force is to the weight as the product of the radii of the pinions is to the product of the radii of the wheels; or, as the product of the numbers expressing the teeth of each pinion is to the product of the numbers expressing the teeth of each wheel.

Endless Screw, or Worm-gear. (Fig. 112.)—This gear is mostly used to convert motion at high speed into motion at very



FIG. 111.



FIG. 112.

speed. When the handle P describes a complete circumference, the line of the cog-wheel moves through a distance equal to the pitch of the screw, and the weight W is lifted a distance equal to the pitch of the screw multiplied by the ratio of the diameter of the axle to the diameter of the pitch-circle of the wheel. The ratio of the applied force to the weight lifted is inversely as their velocities, friction not being considered; but friction in the worm-gear is usually very great, amounting sometimes three or four times the useful work done.

If s = the distance through which the force P acts in a given time, second, and V = distance the weight W is lifted in the same time, r = radius of the crank or wheel through which P acts, t = pitch of the screw, and also of the teeth on the cog-wheel, d = diameter of the cog-wheel, and D = diameter of the pitch-line of the cog-wheel, $v = \frac{6.28 r}{t}$, $\times V$; $V = v \times \frac{t}{d} + 6.283 r d$. $Pv = WV + \text{friction}$.

STRESSES IN FRAMED STRUCTURES.

Framed structures in general consist of one or more triangles, for the reason that the triangle is the one polygonal form whose shape can be changed without distorting one of its sides. Problems in stresses of framed structures may generally be solved either by the application of the triangle, parallelogram, or polygon of forces, by the principle of the lever, or by the method of moments. We shall give a few examples, referring the student to the works of Burr, Dubois, Johnson, and others for more elaborate treatment of the subject.

1. **A Simple Crane.** (Figs. 113 and 114.)— A is a fixed mast, B is a boom, T a tie, and P the load. Required the strains in B and T . The load P , considered as acting at the end of the boom, is held in equilibrium by three forces: first, gravity acting downwards; second, the tension in the tie; third, the thrust of B . Let the length of the line p represent the magnitude of the downward force exerted by the load, and draw a parallelogram of forces, with sides b and t parallel, respectively, to B and T , such that p is the diagonal of the parallelogram. Then b and t are the components drawn to the same scale as p , p being the resultant. Then if the length p represents the load, the tension in the tie, and b is the compression in the brace.

Or, more simply, T , B , and that portion of the mast included between A and T may represent a triangle of forces, and the forces are proportional to the length of the sides of the triangle; that is, if the height of the triangle = the load, then B = the compression in the brace, and T = the tension in the tie; or if P = the load in pounds, the tension in $T = P \times \frac{T}{P}$, and the

$B = P \times \frac{B}{A'}$. Also, if α = the angle the inclined member makes

with the horizontal, then the length of the inclined member = height of the triangle $\div \sin \alpha$, and the strain in the inclined member = $P \secant \alpha$. Also, the horizontal member = $P \tan \alpha$.

From the triangle or parallelogram of forces, and the equations $T = P \times T/A'$, and Compression in $B = P \times B/A'$, hold true even if the triangle is not right-angled, as in Fig. 113; but the trigonometrical rela-

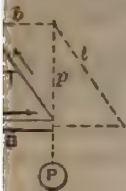


FIG. 113.

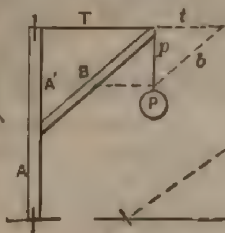


FIG. 114.

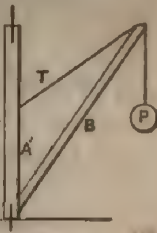


FIG. 115.

tion do not hold, except in the case of a right-angled triangle. But as A' decreases, the strain in both T and B increases, tending to infinity as A' approaches zero. If the tie T is not attached to the mast but is extended to the ground, as shown in the dotted line, the strain remains the same.

Winged Crane or Derrick. (Fig. 116).—The strain in B is, as before, $P \times B/A'$, A' being that portion of the vertical included between B and T may be attached to A . If, however, the tie T is attached to B at its extremity, there may be in addition a bending strain in B due to its weight about the point of attachment of T as a fulcrum.

The strain in T may be calculated by the principle of moments. The moment of P , that is, its weight \times its perpendicular distance from the line of action of B on the mast. The moment of the strain on T is the strain \times the perpendicular distance from the line of its

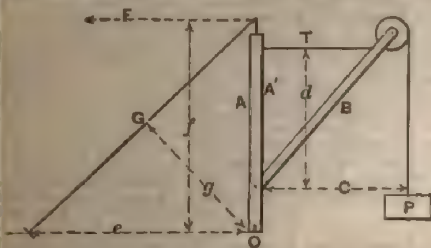


FIG. 116.

the same point of rotation of B , or Td . The strain in T therefore, as d decreases the strain on T increases, tending to infinity as d approaches zero.

The strain on the guy-rope is also calculated by the method of moments. The moment of the load about the bottom of the mast (O) is, as before, Pc . If the horizontal strain in it is F and its moment is Ff , and F is inclined, the moment is the strain $G \times$ the perpendicular distance of its direction from O , or Gg , and $Gf = Pc + g$. Having the least strain is the horizontal one F , and the strain

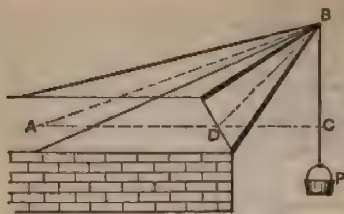


FIG. 117.

Two Diagonal Braces and a Tie-rod. (Fig. 117.)—If the mast is supported by two diagonal braces and a horizontal tie-rod, the compressive stress on each brace is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$; on $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AB}$. This is true only if CB and BD are of equal length, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is supported by each abutment C and D .

If the braces are unequal in length (Fig. 118), then, by the principle of the lever, find the reactions of the abutments R_1 and R_2 . If P is the load applied at the point B on the lever CD , the fulcrum being D , then $R_1 \times CD = P \times BD$ and $R_2 \times CD = P \times BC$; $R_1 = P \times BD \div CD$; $R_2 = P \times BC \div CD$.

The strain on $AC = R_1 \times AC \div AB$, and on $AD = R_2 \times AD \div AB$.

The strain on the tie = $R_1 \times CB \div AB$ = $R_2 \times BD \div AB$.

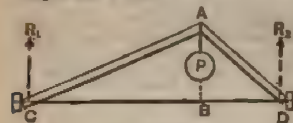


FIG. 118.

apex equals the tensile strain in the tie.

King-post Truss or Bridge. (Fig. 119.)—If the load is distributed over the whole length of the truss, the effect is the same as if half the load P = one half the load on the truss, then tension in the vertical tie $AB = P$. Compression in each of the inclined braces = $\frac{1}{2}P \times AD \div AB$. Tension in the tie $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times BD \div AB$. Horizontal thrust of inclined brace AD at D = the tension in the tie. If W = the total load on one truss uniformly distributed, l = its length and d = its depth, then the tension on the horizontal tie = $\frac{Wl}{4d}$.

Inverted King-post Truss. (Fig. 120.)—If P = a load at B , or one half of a uniformly distributed load, then compression on the floor-beam CD (not being allowed to have any resistance to a slight deflection) = P . Tension on AC or $AD = \frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$. Compression on $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AB}$.

Queen-post Truss. (Fig. 121.)—If the truss is uniformly loaded, and the queen-post divides the length into three equal parts, the load may be considered to be divided into three equal parts, two parts P_1 and P_2 are concentrated at the

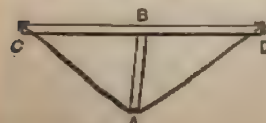


FIG. 121.

in G = the strain in F = the resultant of the angle between G . As G is made more vertical g decreases, the strain increases, becoming infinite when $g = 0$.

3. Shear-poles. (Fig. 117.)—If the mast is supported by two diagonal braces and a horizontal tie-rod, the compressive stress on each brace is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$; on $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AB}$. This is true only if CB and BD are of equal length, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is supported by each abutment C and D .

4. Guy-ropes. (Fig. 117.)—If the mast is supported by two diagonal braces and a horizontal tie-rod, the compressive stress on each brace is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$; on $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AB}$. This is true only if CB and BD are of equal length, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is supported by each abutment C and D .

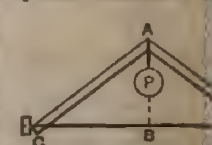


FIG. 119.

When $CB = BD$, $R_1 = R_2$. Then the strain on CB and BD is the same, the braces are of equal length, and is equal to $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$.

If the braces support a uniformly distributed load, the strain on each brace is equivalent to a point load at the center. The horizontal thrust of the braces against each other

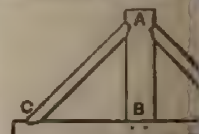


FIG. 120.

remainder is equally divided between the abutments and supported rectly. The two parts P_1 and P_2 only are considered to affect

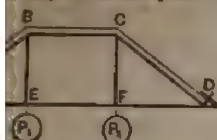


FIG. 122.

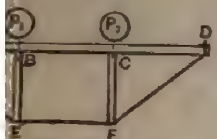


FIG. 123.

Truss of Five Panels. (Fig. 124.)—Four fifths of the load may be concentrated at the points E, K, L and F, the other fifth being

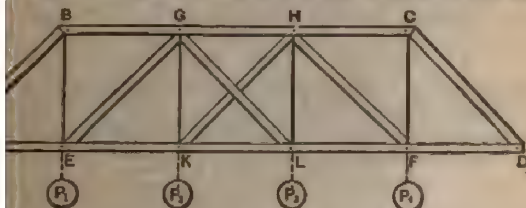


FIG. 124.

directly by the two abutments. For the strains in BA and CD may be considered as a queen-post truss, with the loads P_1 , P_2 at E and the loads P_3 , P_4 concentrated at F . Then, compression on $AB = (P_1 + P_2) \times AB + BE$. The strain on CD is the same if panel lengths are equal. The tensile strain on BE or $CF =$ that portion of the truss between E and F may be considered as queen-post truss, supporting the loads P_2 , P_3 at K and L . The BF or $HF = P_2 \times EG + GK$. The diagonals GL and KH receive no strain if the truss is unequally loaded. The verticals GK and HL each receive strain equal to P_2 or P_3 .

Strain in the horizontal members: BG and CH receive a thrust or horizontal component of the thrust in AB or CD , $= (P_1 + P_2) \times ABE$, or $(P_1 + P_2) \times AE + BE$. GH receives this thrust and addition, a thrust equal to the horizontal component of the thrust in BF or, in all, $(P_1 + P_2 + P_3) \times AE + BE$. Strain in AE or FD equals the thrust in BG or HC , and the tension in BF or CF equals the thrust in GH .

Whipple Truss. (Fig. 125.)—In this truss the diagonals are verticals are struts or columns.

Consider the truss having six bays or panels. $5/6$ of the load is transmitted to the abutment H , and $1/6$ to the abutment D , on the principle of the lever. Sixths must be transmitted through JA and AH , write on these figure 5. The one sixth is transmitted successively through DL , etc., passing alternately through a tie and a strut. Write up to the strut GO inclusive, the figure 1. Then consider at which $1/6$ goes to AH and $2/6$ to GO . Write on KB , BJ , JA , figure 4, and on AD , DL , LE , etc., the figure 2. The load P_2

the members of the truss. Strain in the vertical ties BE and CF each equals P_1 or P_2 . Strain on AB and CD each $= P_1 \times AE + BE$ or CF . Strain on the tie AE or EF or $ED = P_1 \times FD + CF$. Thrust on $BC =$ tension on EF .

For stability to resist heavy unequal loads the queen-post truss should have diagonal braces from B to F and from C to E .

Inverted Queen-post Truss. (Fig. 123.)—Compression on EB and FC each $= P_1$ or P_2 . Compression on AB or BC or $CD = P_1 \times AB + FB$. Tension on AE or $ED = P_1 \times AE + EF$. Tension on $EF =$ compression on BC . For stability to resist unequal loads, ties should be run from C to E and from B to F .



FIG. 117

Two Diagonal Bracing Members

bracing are used to support a horizontal load P .

$$P = \frac{AD}{AB} \text{ on } CA = \frac{AD'}{AB'}$$

length, in which case AD and AD' are the horizontal components of the force in the bracing.

Let the horizontal component of the force in the bracing be E_1 and the horizontal component of the force in the bracing be E_2 .

$$E_1 = P \times \frac{AD}{AB} \text{ and } E_2 = P \times \frac{AD'}{AB'}$$

The strain on the bracing on $AD = E_1 \times AD = P \times \frac{AD^2}{AB}$

The strain on the bracing on $AD' = E_2 \times AD' = P \times \frac{AD'^2}{AB'}$

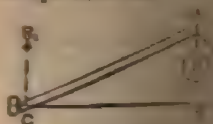


FIG. 118

King-post Truss

When a truss is supported by a king-post, the horizontal component of the force in the bracing is equal to the horizontal component of the force in the bracing.

$$P = \frac{AD}{AB} \text{ on } CA = \frac{AD'}{AB'}$$

transmit $8/6$ in each direction; write 8 on each of the members which this stress passes, and so on for all the loads, when the figure several members will appear as on the cut. Adding them up, we have the following totals:

Tension on diagonals $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} AJ \ 15 \\ BH \ 0 \\ BK \ 10 \\ CJ \ 1 \\ CL \ 6 \\ DK \ 3 \\ DM \ 3 \\ EL \ 6 \\ EN \ 1 \\ FM \ 10 \end{array} \right.$

Compression on verticals $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} AH \ 15 \\ BJ \ 10 \\ CK \ 7 \\ DL \ 6 \\ EM \ 7 \\ FN \ 10 \end{array} \right.$

Each of the figures in the first line is to be multiplied by $1/6P \times \tan \theta$, angle HAB , or $1/6P \times AJ + AH$, to obtain the tension, and each figure in the lower line is to be multiplied by $1/6P$ to obtain the compression. The verticals HB and FO receive no strain.

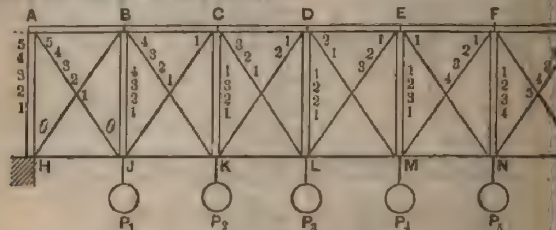


FIG. 125.

It is common to build this truss with a diagonal strut at HB instead of HJ , and the diagonal AJ ; in which case $5/6$ of the load P is transmitted through JB and the strut BH , which latter then receives a strain = secant of HJB .

The strains in the upper and lower horizontal members or chords from the ends to the centre, as shown in the case of the Burr truss, receives a thrust equal to the horizontal component of the tension in $15.6P \times \tan \theta$ in AJB . BC receives the same thrust + the horizontal component of the tension in BK , and so on. The tension in the lower chord of each panel is the same as the thrust in the upper chord of the same panel. (Calculation of the chord strains by the method of moments, see below.)

The maximum thrust or tension is at the centre of the chords and is $\frac{WL}{8D}$, in which W is the total load supported by the truss, L is the length, and D the depth. This is the formula for maximum stress in the chord of a truss of any form whatever.

The above calculation is based on the assumption that all the loads, etc., are equal. If they are unequal the value of each has to be taken into account in distributing the strains. Thus the tension in AJ , with loads, instead of being $15 \times 1/6 P$ secant θ would be sec $\theta \times (5.6P_1 + 3.6P_2 + 2.6P_3 + 1.6P_4)$. Each panel load, P_1 , etc., includes its share of the weight of the truss.

General Formula for Strains in Diagonals and Verticals.—Let n = total number of panels, x = number of any vertical load from the nearest end, counting the end as 1, r = rolling load for each panel, P = total load for each panel,

$$\text{Strain on verticals} = \frac{[(n-x) + (n-x)^2 - (x-1) + (x-1)^2]P}{2n} + \frac{(x-1)r}{2}$$

For a uniformly distributed load, leave out the last term,

$$[r(x-1) + (x-1)^2] + 2n.$$

Strain on principal diagonals = strain on verticals \times secant of angle the diagonal makes with the vertical.

Strain on the counterbraces: The strain on the counterbraces in panel is 0, if the load is uniform. On the 2d, 3d, 4th, etc., it is

$$\times \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1+2}{n}, \frac{1+2+3}{n}, \text{ etc., } P \text{ being the total load in one panel.}$$

Strain in the Chords. Method of Moments.—Let the truss be evenly loaded, the total load acting on it = W . Weight supported at each end, or reaction of the abutment = $W/2$. Length of the truss = L . Weight on a unit of length = W/L . Horizontal distance from the nearest abutment to the point M in Fig. 135 in the chord where the strain is to be determined = x . Horizontal strain at that point (tension on the lower chord, compression in the upper) = H . Depth of the truss = D . By the method of moments we take the difference of the moments, about the point of the reaction of the abutment and of the load between and the abutments, and equate that difference with the moment of the resistance, or of strain in the horizontal chord, considered with reference to a point in opposite chord, about which the truss would turn if the first chord were fixed at M .

The moment of the reaction of the abutment is $Wx/2$. The moment of load from the abutment to M is $W/L \times x$ the distance of its centre of gravity from M , which is $x/2$, or moment = $Wx^2/2 + xL$. Moment of the stress in the chord = $HD = \frac{Wx}{2} - \frac{Wx^2}{2L}$, whence $H = \frac{W}{2D} \left(x - \frac{x^2}{L} \right)$. If $x = 0$ or L ,

0. If $x = L/2$, $H = \frac{WL}{8D}$, which is the horizontal strain at the middle of the chords, as before given.

The Howe Truss. (Fig. 126.)—In the Howe truss the diagonals are struts, and the verticals are ties. The calculation of strains may be made

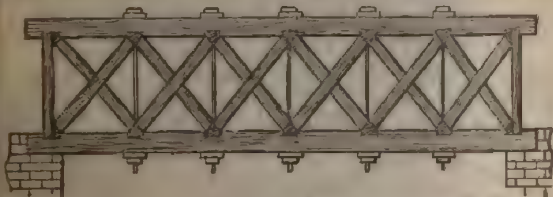


FIG. 126.

the same method as described above for the Pratt truss.

The Warren Girder. (Fig. 127.)—In the Warren girder, or triangular truss, there are no vertical struts, and the diagonals may transmit either

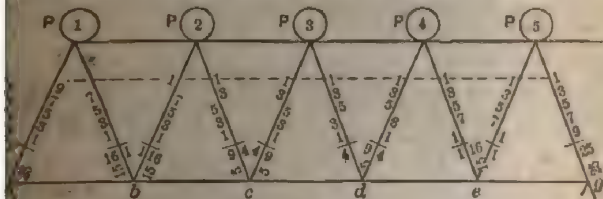


FIG. 127.

tension or compression. The strains in the diagonals may be calculated by the method of distribution of strains as in the case of the rectangular truss. On the principle of the lever, the load P_1 , being $1/10$ of the length of the truss from the line of the nearest support a , transmits $9/10$ of its weight to a and $1/10$ to g . Write 9 on the right hand of $1b$, $2c$, $3d$, etc., to represent the compression, and 1 on the right hand of $1b$, $2c$, $3d$, etc., to represent tension, and on the left hand of $2c$, $3d$, etc., to represent tension. The load P_2 transmits $7/10$ of its weight to a and $3/10$ to g . Write 7 on each member from a to g and 3 on each member from g to a , placing the figures representing tension on the right hand of the member, and those representing compression on the left. Proceed in the same manner with all the loads, then

sum up the figures on each side of each diagonal, and write the difference of each sum beneath, and on the side of the greater sum, to show whether the difference represents tension or compression. The results are as follows: Compression, 1a, 25; 2b, 15; 3c, 5; 3d, 5; 4e, 15; 5g, 35. Tension, 1b, 15; 4d, 5; 5e, 15. Each of these figures is to be multiplied by 1/10 of one of the loads as P_1 , and by the secant of the angle the diagonals make with a vertical line.

The strains in the horizontal chords may be determined by the method of moments as in the case of rectangular trusses.

Roof-truss.—*Solution by Method of Moments.*—The calculation of strains in structures by the method of statical moments consists in taking a cross-section of the structure at a point where there are not more than three members (struts, braces, or chords).

To find the strain in either one of these members take the moment of the intersection of the other two as an axis of rotation. The sum of the moments of these members must be 0 if the structure is in equilibrium. But the moments of the two members that pass through the point of section or axis are both 0, hence one equation containing one unknown quantity can be found for each cross-section.

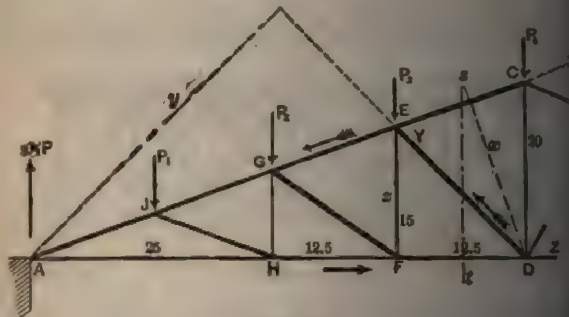


FIG. 128.

In the truss shown in Fig. 128 take a cross-section at ts , and determine the strain in the three members cut by it, viz., CE , ED , and DE . Let X = force exerted in direction CE , Y = force exerted in direction DE , Z = force exerted in direction FD .

For X take its moment about the intersection of Y and Z at $D = Xx$. For Y take its moment about the intersection of X and Z at $A = Yy$. For Z take its moment about the intersection of X and Y at $E = Zz$. Let $x = 37.5$, $y = 18.6$, $z = 38.4$, $AD = 50$, $CD = 30$ ft. Let P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 be equal loads shown, and $3\frac{1}{2}P$ the reaction of the abutment A .

The sum of all the moments taken about D or A or E will be 0 when the structure is at rest. Then $-Xx + 3.5P \times 50 - P_2 \times 12.5 - P_3 \times 12.5 - 37.5 = 0$.

The $+$ signs are for moments in the direction of the hands of a watch "clockwise" and $-$ signs for the reverse direction or anti-clockwise. $P = P_1 = P_2 = P_3 = P_4 = 18.6X + 175P - 75P = 0$; $-18.6X = -109.5P$.

$100P + 18.6 = 5.376P$.
 $-Yy + P_2 \times 37.5 + P_3 \times 25 + P_4 \times 12.5 = 0$; $38.4Y = 75P$; $Y = 1.953P$.

$-Zz + 3.5P \times 37.5 - P_1 \times 25 - P_2 \times 12.5 - P_3 \times 0 = 0$; $15Z = 6.25P$.

In the same manner the forces exerted in the other members found as follows: $EG = 6.73P$; $GJ = 8.07P$; $JA = 9.42P$; $JH = 1.59P$; $AH = 8.75P$; $HF = 7.50P$.

The Fink Roof-truss. (Fig. 129).—An analysis by Prof. C. E. Rink (Jan. N. Mag., Aug. 1880) gives the following results:

STANDARD
RIVET HOLE
DISTANCES
U.S.A.



$$PL/D - 3 PD/L;$$

$$S + L;$$

$$PS + L;$$

$$PS + D;$$

$$S + D;$$

$$2 PS + D.$$

16 ft., with four
tons each at the
summit no strain
= 32 ft., $D = 16$

472, $S + D = 2,$
are as follows:

$$= 25.94 \text{ tons.}$$

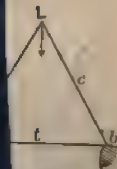
$$= 3.53 \text{ "}$$

$$= 7.16 \text{ "}$$

$$= 4 \text{ "}$$

$$= 8 \text{ "}$$

$$= 16 \text{ "}$$



129a.

T (soft steel).

sum up the figures on each side of each diagonal, and of each sum beneath, and on the side of the greater the difference represents tension or compression. Tension, 1a, 2b, 15; 3c, 5; 4d, 5; 4e, 15; 5g, 5; 4d, 5; 5e, 15. Each of these figures is to be multiplied by the loads as P_1 , and by the secant of the angle the vertical line.

The strains in the horizontal chords may be determined moments as in the case of rectangular trusses.

Roof-truss.—*Solution by Method of Moments.*—Strains in structures by the method of statical moments, cross-section of the structure at a point where three members (struts, bracers, or chords).

To find the strain in either one of these members the intersection of the other two as an axis of moments of these members must be 0. If the strain in the two members that pass through the axis are both 0, hence one equation containing the strain can be found for each cross-section.

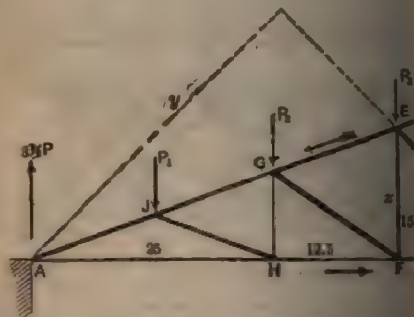


FIG. 198.

In the truss shown in Fig. 198 take a cross-section strain in the three members cut by it, viz., CE , ED , exerted in direction CE , Y = force exerted in direction ED .

For X take its moment about the intersection of X and Y take its moment about the intersection of X and Y at 18.6, $y = 38.4$, $AD = 50$, $CD = 20$ ft. Let P_1 , P_2 , P_3 be shown, and $3\frac{1}{2}P$ the reaction of the abutment A .

The sum of all the moments taken about D or A structure is at rest. Then $-Xx + 3.5P \times 50 - P_1 \times 37.5 = 0$.

The + signs are for moments in the direction of "clockwise" and - signs for the reverse direction:
 $P = P_1 = P_2 = P_3$, $-18.6X + 175P - 75P = 0$; $-100P + 18.6 = 5.376P$.
 $-Yy + P_2 \times 37.5 + P_3 \times 25 + P_1 \times 12.5 = 0$; $38.4Y = 1.953P$.
 $-Zz + 3.5P \times 37.5 - P_1 \times 25 - P_2 \times 12.5 - P_3 \times 0 = 0$; $6.25P$.

In the same manner the forces exerted in the other members are found as follows: $EG = 6.78P$; $GJ = 8.07P$; $JL = 9.41P$; $AD = 8.75P$; $HF = 7.50P$.

The Wink Roof-truss. (Fig. 199.)—An analysis of this truss, *Y. Eng. Aug. 1880*, gives the following results:

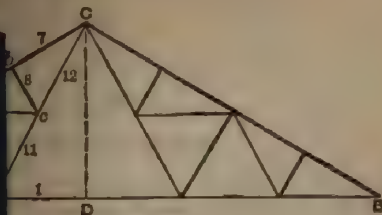


FIG. 129.

load on roof;
panels on both rafters;
load at each joint b, d, f , etc.;
load at $A = \frac{1}{2}W = \frac{1}{2}NP = 4P$;
 $CD = L$; $CD = D$;
load on De, eg, gA , respectively;
compression on Cb, bd, df , and fA .

7, or $bC = c_1 = 7/2 PL/D - 3 PD/L$;
8, " bc or $fg = PS + L$;
9, " $de = 2PS + L$;
10, " cd or $dg = \frac{1}{2}PS + D$;
11, " $ec = PS + D$;
12, " $cC = 3/2 PS + D$.

roof-truss of span 64 ft., depth 16 ft., with four
panels cut; total load 32 tons, or 4 tons each at the
joints each at A and B , which transmit no strain
to $W = 32$ tons, $P = 4$ tons, $S = 32$ ft., $D = 16$
ft. $D, L + D = 2.236, D + L = .4472, S + D = 2$,
on the numbered members then are as follows:

tons;	7,	31.3 - 12 × .447 = 25.94 tons.
"	8,	4 × .8944 = 3.58 "
"	9,	8 × .8944 = 7.16 "
"	10,	2 × 2 = 4 "
"	11,	4 × 2 = 8 "
"	12,	6 × 2 = 12 "

angle. — A structure of tri
supported at a and b . It
panels ac being in compres
sion the angle θ so that
ure shall be a minimum.
Jan. 17, 1895, gives a solu

result $\tan \theta = \sqrt{\frac{C + T}{T}}$.

the crushing and the ten
the material employed.
erial. For $C = T$, $\tan \theta =$
panel), $\tan \theta = 45^\circ$. For $C = 0.8T$ (soft steel).
st iron), $\tan \theta = 69.4^\circ$.

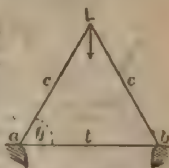


FIG. 129a.

For $C = 0.8T$ (soft steel).

HEAT.

THERMOMETERS.

The Fahrenheit thermometer is generally used in English-speaking countries, and the Centigrade, or French thermometer, in countries that use the metric system. In many scientific treatises in English, however, the Centigrade temperatures are also used, either with or without their Fahrenheit equivalents. The Réaumur thermometer is used in Russia, Sweden, Turkey, and Egypt. (Clark.)

In the Fahrenheit thermometer the freezing-point of water is taken as 32° and the boiling point of water at mean atmospheric pressure at the same level, 14.7 lbs. per sq. in., is taken at 212°, the distance between these points being divided into 180°. In the Centigrade and Réaumur thermometers the freezing-point is taken at 0°. The boiling-point is 100° in the Centigrade, and 80° in the Réaumur.

1 Fahrenheit degree	= 5/9 deg. Centigrade	= 4/9 deg. Réaumur
1 Centigrade degree	= 9/5 deg. Fahrenheit	= 4/5 deg. Réaumur
1 Réaumur degree	= 9/4 deg. Fahrenheit	= 5/4 deg. Centigrade
Temperature Fahrenheit	= 9/5 × temp. C. + 32°	= 9/4 R. + 32°
Temperature Centigrade	= 5/9 (temp. F. - 32°)	= 5/4 R.
Temperature Réaumur	= 4/5 temp. C.	= 4/9 (F. - 32°)

Mercurial Thermometer. (Rankine, S. E., p. 234).—The expansion of mercury with rise of temperature increases as the temperature becomes higher; from which it follows, that if a thermometer showing dilatation of mercury simply were made to agree with an air thermometer at 32° and 212°, the mercurial thermometer would show lower temperatures than the air thermometer between those standard points, and higher temperatures beyond them.

For example, according to Regnault, when the air thermometer marks 350° C. (= 662° F.), the mercurial thermometer would mark 302.16° C. (= 575.89° F.), the error of the latter being in excess 12.16° C. (= 21.89° F.).

Actual mercurial thermometers indicate intervals of temperature proportional to the difference between the expansion of mercury and that of air.

The inequalities in the rate of expansion of the glass (which are different for different kinds of glass) correct, to a greater or less extent, errors arising from the inequalities in the rate of expansion of the mercury.

For practical purposes connected with heat engines, the mercurial thermometer made of common glass may be considered as sensibly correct with the air-thermometer at all temperatures not exceeding 200° F.

PYROMETRY.

Principles Used in Various Pyrometers.—Contraction of solids by heat, as in the Wedgwood pyrometer used by potters. Not accurate, the contraction varies with the quality of the clay.

Expansion of air, as in the air-thermometers, Wübbö's pyrometer, and Steinbart's pyrometer, etc.

Specific heat of solids, as in the copper-ball, platinum-ball, and iron-ball pyrometers.

Relative expansion of two metals or other substances, as copper and iron, as in Brown's and Baily's pyrometers, etc.

Melting points of metals, or other substances, as in approximate determinations of temperature by melting pieces of zinc, lead, etc.

Measurement of strength of a thermoelectric current produced by the junction of two metals, as in Le Chatelier's pyrometer.

Changes in electric resistance of platinum, as in the Siemens pyrometer.

Force required to heat a weighed quantity of water enclosed in a vessel, as in the water pyrometer.

Thermometer for Temperatures up to 800° F.—Made of glass, with a bulb of glass, and a tube above the mercury. Made by Quin.

TEMPERATURES. CENTIGRADE AND FAHRENHEIT.

149

F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.
40.	26	78.8	92	107.0	156	316.4	224	435.2	200	554	960.1742				
41.	27	80.0	93	109.4	159	318.2	225	437.	201	562	969.1760				
42.	28	82.4	94	111.2	160	320.	226	438.8	202	570	978.1778				
43.	29	84.2	95	113.0	161	321.8	227	440.6	203	578	987.1796				
44.	30	86.	96	114.8	162	324.6	228	442.4	204	586	996.1814				
45.	31	87.8	97	116.6	163	325.4	229	444.2	205	594	1005.1832				
46.	32	89.6	98	118.4	164	327.2	230	446.	206	602	1014.1850				
47.	33	91.4	99	120.2	165	329.	231	447.8	207	610	1023.1868				
48.	34	93.2	100	122.	166	330.8	232	449.6	208	618	1032.1886				
49.	35	95.	101	123.8	167	332.0	233	451.4	209	626	1041.1904				
50.	36	96.8	102	125.6	168	334.4	234	453.2	210	634	1050.1922				
51.	37	98.6	103	127.4	169	336.2	235	455.	211	642	1059.1940				
52.	38	100.4	104	129.2	170	338.	236	456.8	212	650	1068.1958				
53.	39	102.2	105	131.	171	339.8	237	458.6	213	658	1077.1976				
54.	40	104.	106	132.8	172	341.0	238	460.4	214	666	1086.1994				
55.	41	105.8	107	134.6	173	343.4	239	462.2	215	674	1095.2012				
56.	42	107.6	108	136.4	174	345.2	240	464.	216	682	1104.2030				
57.	43	109.4	109	138.2	175	347.	241	465.8	217	690	1113.2048				
58.	44	111.2	110	140.	176	348.8	242	467.6	218	698	1122.2066				
59.	45	113.	111	141.8	177	350.0	243	469.4	219	706	1131.2084				
60.	46	114.8	112	143.6	178	352.4	244	471.2	220	714	1140.2102				
61.	47	116.6	113	145.4	179	354.2	245	473.	221	722	1149.2120				
62.	48	118.4	114	147.2	180	356.	246	474.8	222	730	1158.2138				
63.	49	120.2	115	149.	181	357.8	247	476.6	223	738	1167.2156				
64.	50	122.	116	150.8	182	359.0	248	478.4	224	746	1176.2174				
65.	51	123.8	117	152.6	183	361.4	249	480.2	225	754	1185.2192				
66.	52	125.6	118	154.4	184	363.2	250	482.	226	762	1194.2210				
67.	53	127.4	119	156.2	185	365.	251	483.8	227	770	1203.2228				
68.	54	129.2	120	158.	186	366.8	252	485.6	228	778	1212.2246				
69.	55	131.	121	160.8	187	368.0	253	487.4	229	786	1221.2264				
70.	56	132.8	122	162.6	188	370.4	254	489.2	230	794	1230.2282				
71.	57	134.6	123	164.4	189	372.2	255	491.	231	802	1239.2300				
72.	58	136.4	124	166.2	190	374.	256	492.8	232	810	1248.2318				
73.	59	138.2	125	168.	191	375.8	257	494.6	233	818	1257.2336				
74.	60	140.	126	170.8	192	377.0	258	496.4	234	826	1266.2354				
75.	61	141.8	127	172.6	193	379.4	259	498.2	235	834	1275.2372				
76.	62	143.6	128	174.4	194	381.2	260	500.	236	842	1284.2390				
77.	63	145.4	129	176.2	195	383.	261	501.8	237	850	1293.2408				
78.	64	147.2	130	178.	196	384.8	262	503.6	238	858	1302.2426				
79.	65	149.	131	180.8	197	386.0	263	505.4	239	866	1311.2444				
80.	66	150.8	132	182.6	198	388.4	264	507.2	240	874	1320.2462				
81.	67	152.6	133	184.4	199	390.2	265	509.	241	882	1329.2480				
82.	68	154.4	134	186.2	200	392.	266	510.8	242	890	1338.2498				
83.	69	156.2	135	188.	201	393.8	267	512.6	243	898	1347.2516				
84.	70	158.	136	190.8	202	395.0	268	514.4	244	906	1356.2534				
85.	71	159.8	137	192.6	203	397.4	269	516.2	245	914	1365.2552				
86.	72	161.6	138	194.4	204	399.2	270	518.	246	922	1374.2570				
87.	73	163.4	139	196.2	205	401.	271	519.8	247	930	1383.2588				
88.	74	165.2	140	198.	206	402.8	272	521.6	248	938	1392.2606				
89.	75	167.	141	200.8	207	404.6	273	523.4	249	946	1401.2624				
90.	76	168.8	142	202.6	208	406.4	274	525.2	250	954	1410.2642				
91.	77	170.6	143	204.4	209	408.2	275	527.	251	962	1419.2660				
92.	78	172.4	144	206.2	210	410.	276	528.8	252	970	1428.2678				
93.	79	174.2	145	208.	211	411.8	277	530.6	253	978	1437.2696				
94.	80	176.	146	210.8	212	413.0	278	532.4	254	986	1446.2714				
95.	81	177.8	147	212.6	213	415.4	279	534.2	255	994	1455.2732				
96.	82	179.6	148	214.4	214	417.2	280	536.	256	1002	1464.2750				
97.	83	181.4	149	216.2	215	419.	281	537.8	257	1010	1473.2768				
98.	84	183.2	150	218.	216	420.8	282	539.6	258	1018	1482.2786				
99.	85	185.	151	220.8	217	422.6	283	541.4	259	1026	1491.2804				
100.	86	186.8	152	222.6	218	424.4	284	543.2	260	1034	1500.2822				
101.	87	188.6	153	224.4	219	426.2	285	545.	261	1042	1509.2840				
102.	88	190.4	154	226.2	220	428.	286	546.8	262	1050	1518.2858				
103.	89	192.2	155	228.	221	429.8	287	548.6	263	1058	1527.2876				
104.	90	194.	156	230.8	222	431.0	288	550.4	264	1066	1536.2894				
105.	91	195.8	157	232.6	223	433.4	289	552.2	265	1074	1545.2912				
106.	92	197.6	158	234.4	224	435.2	290	554.	266	1082	1554.2930				
107.	93	199.4	159	236.2	225	437.	291	555.8	267	1090	1563.2948				
108.	94	201.2	160	238.	226	439.8	292	557.6	268	1098	1572.2966				
109.	95	203.	161	240.8	227	441.0	293	559.4	269	1106	1581.2984				
110.	96	204.8	162	242.6	228	443.4	294	561.2	270	1114	1590.2999				
111.	97	206.6	163	244.4	229	445.2	295	563.	271	1122	1599.3017				
112.	98	208.4	164	246.2	230	447.	296	564.8	272	1130	1608.3035				
113.	99	210.2	165	248.	231	449.8	297	566.6	273	1138	1617.3053				
114.	100	212.	166	250.8	232	451.0	298	568.4	274	1146	1626.3071				
115.	101	213.8	167	252.6	233	453.4	299	570.2	275	1154	1635.3089				
116.	102	215.6	168	254.4	234	455.2	300	572.	276	1162	1644.3107				
117.	103	217.4	169	256.2	235	457.	301	573.8	277	1170	1653.3125				
118.	104	219.2	170	258.	236	459.8	302	575.6	278	1178	1662.3143				
119.	105	221.	171	260.8	237	461.0	303	577.4	279	1186	1671.3161				
120.	106	222.8	172	262.6	238	463.4	304	579.2	280	1194	1680.3179				
121.	107	224.6	173	264.4	239	465.2	305	581.	281	1202	1689.3197				
122.	108	226.4	174	266.2	240	467.	306	582.8	282	1210	1698.3215				
123.	109	228.2	175	268.	241	469.8	307	584.6	283	1218	1707.3233				
124.	110	230.	176	270.8	242	471.0	308	586.4	284	1226	1716.3251				
125.	111	231.8	177	272.6	243	473.4	309	588.2	285	1234	1725.3269				
126.	112	233.6	178	274.4	244	475.2	310	590.	286	1242	1734.3287				
127.	113	235.4	179	276.2	245	477.	311	591.8	287	1250	1743.3305				
128.	114	237.2	180	278.	246	479.8	312	593.6	288	1258	1752.3323				
129.	115	239.	181	280.8	247	481.0	313	595.4	289	1266	1761.3341				
130.	116	240.8	182	282.6	248	483.4	314	597.2	290	1274	1770.3359				
131.	117	242.6	183	284.4	249	485.2	315	599.	291	1282	1779.3377				
132.	118	244.4	184	286.2	250	487.	316	600.8	292	1290	1788.3395				
133.	119	246.2	185	288.	251	489.8	317	602.6	293	1298	1797.3413				
134.	120	248.	186	290.8	252	491.0	318	604.4	294	1306	1806.3431				

F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.
-40	-40.	95	-3.3	92	33.3	155	70.	224	106.7	250	142.8
-39	-39.4	97	-2.8	93	33.9	159	70.0	225	107.2	251	143.0
-38	-38.0	98	-2.2	94	34.4	160	71.1	226	107.8	252	143.4
-37	-37.3	99	-1.7	95	35.0	161	71.7	227	108.3	253	143.8
-36	-37.8	99	-1.1	96	35.6	162	72.2	228	108.9	254	144.2
-35	-37.2	91	-0.6	97	36.1	163	72.8	229	109.4	255	144.6
-34	-36.7	92	0.	98	36.7	164	73.3	230	110.0	256	145.0
-33	-36.1	93	+ 0.6	99	37.2	165	73.9	231	110.6	257	145.4
-32	-35.6	94	1.1	100	37.8	166	74.4	232	111.1	258	145.8
-31	-35.	95	1.7	101	38.3	167	75.	233	111.7	259	146.3
-30	-34.4	96	2.2	102	38.9	168	75.6	234	112.2	260	146.8
-29	-33.9	97	2.8	103	39.4	169	76.1	235	112.8	261	147.3
-28	-33.3	98	3.3	104	40.	170	76.7	236	113.3	262	147.8
-27	-32.8	99	3.9	105	40.6	171	77.2	237	113.9	263	148.3
-26	-32.2	99	4.4	106	41.1	172	77.8	238	114.4	264	148.8
-25	-31.7	91	5.	107	41.7	173	78.3	239	115.	265	149.3
-24	-31.1	92	5.6	108	42.2	174	78.9	240	115.6	266	149.8
-23	-30.6	93	6.1	109	42.8	175	79.4	241	116.1	267	150.3
-22	-30.	94	6.7	110	43.3	176	80.	242	116.7	268	150.8
-21	-29.4	95	7.2	111	43.9	177	80.6	243	117.2	269	151.3
-20	-28.9	96	7.8	112	44.4	178	81.1	244	117.8	270	151.8
-19	-28.3	97	8.3	113	45.	179	81.7	245	118.3	271	152.3
-18	-27.8	98	8.9	114	45.6	180	82.2	246	118.9	272	152.8
-17	-27.2	99	9.4	115	46.1	181	82.8	247	119.4	273	153.3
-16	-26.7	99	10.	116	46.7	182	83.3	248	120.	274	153.8
-15	-26.1	91	10.6	117	47.2	183	83.9	249	120.6	275	154.3
-14	-25.6	92	11.1	118	47.8	184	84.4	250	121.1	276	154.8
-13	-25.	93	11.7	119	48.3	185	85.	251	121.7	277	155.3
-12	-24.4	94	12.2	120	48.9	186	85.6	252	122.2	278	155.8
-11	-23.9	95	12.8	121	49.4	187	86.1	253	122.8	279	156.3
-10	-23.3	96	13.3	122	50.	188	86.7	254	123.3	280	156.8
-9	-22.8	97	13.9	123	50.6	189	87.2	255	123.9	281	157.3
-8	-22.2	98	14.4	124	51.1	190	87.8	256	124.4	282	157.8
-7	-21.7	99	15.	125	51.7	191	88.3	257	125.	283	158.3
-6	-21.1	99	15.6	126	52.2	192	88.9	258	125.6	284	158.8
-5	-20.6	91	16.1	127	52.8	193	89.4	259	126.1	285	159.3
-4	-20.	92	16.7	128	53.3	194	90.	260	126.7	286	159.8
-3	-19.4	93	17.2	129	53.9	195	90.6	261	127.2	287	160.3
-2	-18.9	94	17.8	130	54.4	196	91.1	262	127.8	288	160.8
-1	-18.3	95	18.3	131	55.	197	91.7	263	128.3	289	161.3
0	-17.8	96	18.9	132	55.6	198	92.2	264	128.9	290	161.8
+ 1	-17.2	97	19.4	133	56.1	199	92.8	265	129.4	291	162.3
2	-16.7	98	19.	134	56.7	200	93.3	266	130.	292	162.8
3	-16.1	99	20.6	135	57.2	201	93.9	267	130.6	293	163.3
4	-15.6	70	21.1	136	57.8	202	94.4	268	131.1	294	163.8
5	-15.	71	21.7	137	58.3	203	95.	269	131.7	295	164.3
6	-14.4	72	22.2	138	58.9	204	95.6	270	132.2	296	164.8
7	-13.9	73	22.8	139	59.4	205	96.1	271	132.8	297	165.3
8	-13.3	74	23.3	140	60.	206	96.7	272	133.3	298	165.8
9	-12.8	75	23.9	141	60.6	207	97.2	273	133.9	299	166.3
10	-12.2	76	24.4	142	61.1	208	97.8	274	134.4	300	166.8
11	-11.7	77	25.	143	61.7	209	98.3	275	135.	301	167.3
12	-11.1	78	25.6	144	62.2	210	98.9	276	135.6	302	167.8
13	-10.6	79	26.1	145	62.8	211	99.4	277	136.1	303	168.3
14	-10.	80	26.7	146	63.3	212	100.	278	136.7	304	168.8
15	-9.4	81	27.2	147	63.9	213	100.6	279	137.2	305	169.3
16	-8.9	82	27.8	148	64.4	214	101.1	280	137.8	306	169.8
17	-8.3	83	28.3	149	65.	215	101.7	281	138.3	307	170.3
18	-7.8	84	28.9	150	65.6	216	102.2	282	138.9	308	170.8
19	-7.2	85	29.4	151	66.1	217	102.8	283	139.4	309	171.3
20	-6.7	86	29.	152	66.7	218	103.3	284	140.	310	171.8
			30.6	153	67.2	219	103.9	285	140.6	311	172.3
			31.1	154	67.8	220	104.4	286	141.1	312	172.8
			31.7	155	68.3	221	105.	287	141.7	313	173.3
			32.2	156	68.9	222	105.6	288	142.2	314	173.8
			32.8	157	69.4	223	106.1	289	142.8	315	174.3

Iron or Copper Ball Pyrometer.—A weighed piece of iron, copper, or iron is allowed to remain in the furnace or heated until it has attained the temperature of its surroundings. It is then quickly taken out and dropped into a vessel containing water of a known temperature. The water is stirred rapidly and its maximum temperature taken. Let W = weight of the water, w the weight of the ball, w_0 the original and T the final heat of the water, and S the specific heat of water; then the temperature of fire may be found from the formula

$$x = \frac{W(T - t)}{wS} + T.$$

The mean specific heat of platinum between 32° and 440° F. is .03333 or that of water, and it increases with the temperature about .000305 for 10° F. For a fuller description, by J. C. Hoadley, see *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, 1890.

Compare also Henry M. Howe, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xviii, 738.

Accuracy corrections are required for variations in the specific heat of the metal and of the metal at different temperatures, for loss of heat by radiation from the metal during the transfer from the furnace to the water, for the apparatus during the heating of the water; also for the heating capacity of the vessel containing the water.

Clay or fire brick may be used instead of the metal ball.

Chatelier's Thermo-electric Pyrometer.—For a very full description see paper by Joseph Struthers, *School of Mines Quarterly*, vol. 1, also, paper read by Prof. Roberts-Austen before the Iron and Steel Institute, May 7, 1891.

The principle upon which this pyrometer is constructed is the measurement of a current of electricity produced by heating a couple composed of these, one platinum and the other platinum with 10% rhodium—the current being measured by a galvanometer.

The composition of the gas which surrounds the couple has no influence on the indications.

For temperatures above 2500° F. are to be studied, the wires must have a strong support and must be of good length, so that all parts of a furnace may be reached.

The Siemens furnace, about 11½ feet is the general length. The wires are supported in an iron tube, ½ inch interior diameter and held in place by a layer of refractory clay having two holes bored through, in which the wires are placed. The shortness of time (five seconds) allows the temperature to be taken without deteriorating the tube.

Experiments made by this pyrometer in measuring furnace temperatures under a variety of conditions show that the readings of the scale uncorrected are within 45° F. of the correct temperature, and in the majority of cases measurements this is sufficiently accurate. Le Chatelier's pyrometer is sold by Queen & Co., of Philadelphia.

Division of Le Chatelier's Pyrometer.—W. C. Roberts-Austen, *his Researches on the Properties of Alloys*, Proc. Inst. M. E. 1892.

The electromotive force produced by heating the thermo-junction is measured by the movement of the spot of light on a scale graduated in millimetres. A formula for converting the divisions of the scale into thermometric degrees is given by M. Le Chatelier; but in order to calibrate the scale by heating the thermo-junction to temperatures which have been very carefully determined by the aid of the air-thermometer, and then to plot the curve from the data so obtained. Many boiling-points have been established by concurrent evidence of different kinds, and are now very generally accepted. The following table is a summary of these:

Deg. C.		Deg. F.	Deg. C.	
100	Water boils.	1733	945	Silver melts.
327	Lead melts.	1850	1015	Potassium sulphate melts.
356	Mercury boils.	1913	1045	Gold melts.
415	Zinc melts.	1929	1054	Copper melts.
448	Sulphur boils.	2731	2770	Palladium melts.
625	Aluminium melts.	3227	1775	Platinum melts.
665	Selenium boils.			

Temperatures Developed in Industrial Furnaces.—Professor Roberts-Austen states that by means of his pyrometer he has discovered that temperatures which occur in melting steel and in other industrial processes have been hitherto overestimated.

M. Le Chatelier finds the melting heat of white cast iron 1185° F. and that of gray cast iron 1220° (2238° F.). Mild steel melts at 1412° F., semi-mild at 1455° (2651° F.), and hard steel at 1410° (2570° F.) furnace for hard porcelain at the end of the baking has a heat (2468° F.). The heat of a normal incandescent lamp is 1800° (3272° F.) it may be pushed to beyond 2100° (3812° F.).

Prof. Roberts-Austen (Recent Advances in Pyrometry, Trans. A. Chicago Meeting, 1893) gives an excellent description of modern pyrometers. The following are some of his temperature determinations.

GOLD-MELTING, ROYAL MINT.

	Degrees. Centigrade.
Temperature of standard alloy, pouring into moulds. . .	1180
Temperature of standard alloy, pouring into moulds (on a previous occasion, by thermo-couple).	1147
Annealing blanks for coinage, temperature of chamber..	890

SILVER-MELTING, ROYAL MINT.

Temperature of standard alloy, pouring into mould.	980
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TEN-TON OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE, WOOLWICH ARSENAL.

Temperature of steel, 0.3% carbon, pouring into ladle. . . .	1645
Temperature of steel, 0.3% carbon, pouring into large mould.	1590
Reheating furnace, Woolwich Arsenal, temperature of interior	990
Cupola furnace, temperature of No. 2, cast-iron pouring into ladle.	1600

The following determinations have been effected by M. Le Chatelier.

BESSEMER PROCESS.

Six-ton Converter.

	Degrees. Centigrade.
A. Bath of slag.	1580
B. Metal in ladle	1640
C. Metal in ingot mould.	1580
D. Ingot in reheating furnace.	1200
E. Ingot under the hammer	1050

OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE (Siemens).

Semi-Mild Steel.

A. Fuel gas near gas generator.	720
B. Fuel gas entering into bottom of regenerator chamber	400
C. Fuel gas issuing from regenerator chamber.	1200
Air issuing from regenerator chamber.	1000

CHIMNEY GASES.

Furnace in perfect condition.	300
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OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE.

End of the melting of pig charge.	1430
Completion of conversion.	1500

MOLTEN STEEL.

In the ladle—Commencement of casting.	1580
End of casting.	1490
In the moulds.	1520

For very mild (soft) steel the temperatures are higher by 50° C.

SIEMENS CRUCIBLE OR POT FURNACE.

1600° C., 2912° F.

ROTARY PUDDLING FURNACE.

	Degrees. Centigrade.
Furnace	1240
Puddled ball—End of operation.	

air-volume V' to the air-volume V , can be measured by a manometer. This pressure is of course a function of the temperature T . In the production of V' , we have the two separate air-volumes, V at temperature T and V' at the temperature t , both under the atmospheric pressure. After the forcing in of V' into the globe, we have, on the other hand, the volume V of the temperature T , but under the pressure

Air-pyrometer is adapted for use at blast-furnaces, smelting-furnaces, and tempering furnaces, etc., where determinations of temperature from 0° to 2400° F. are required.

Fire-clay Pyrometer. (H. M. Howe, *Eng. and Mining J.*, 1890.)—Professor Seger uses a series of slender triangular pyramids, about 3 inches high and $\frac{5}{8}$ inch wide at the base, and as fusible as the next: these he calls "normal pyramids" (pat.). When the series is placed in a furnace whose temperature is gradually raised, one after another will bend over as its range of resistance is reached: and the temperature at which it has bent, or "wept," at which its apex touches the hearth of the furnace or other level surface standing, is selected as a point on Seger's scale. These points are carefully determined by some absolute method, or they may be used to give comparative results. Unfortunately, these pyramids are of no use when the temperature is stationary or falling.

And Nouet's Pyrometric Telescope. (*Ibid.*)—Mauré's pyrometric telescope gives us an immediate determination of the temperature of incandescent bodies, and is therefore much better adapted where a great number of observations are to be made, and rapid, than Seger's. Such cases arise in the careful heating of the telescope, carried in the pocket or hung from the neck, can remain open or heater at any moment.

It is the fact that a plate of quartz, cut at right angles to the plane of polarization of polarized light to a degree nearly proportional to the square of the length of the waves; and, as a fact that while a body at dull redness merely emits red light, as temperature rises, the orange, yellow, green, and blue waves appear.

If a plate of quartz is placed between two Nicol prisms at such an angle that a ray of monochromatic light which passes the first, or

of iron, slowly heated in contact with air, assumes the following annexed temperatures (Clausen):

Cent.	Fahr.		Cent.	Fahr.
225	437	Indigo at.....	288	550
243	473	Blue at.....	293	559
265	509	Green at.....	322	630
377	731	"Oxide-gray".....	400	752

BOILING POINTS AT ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE.

14.7 lbs. per square inch.

Airic.....	100° F.	Average sea-water.....	212.2° F.
Ammonia.....	118	Saturated brine.....	235
.....	140	Nitric acid.....	248
.....	145	Oil of turpentine.....	315
.....	150	Phosphorus.....	554
.....	173	Sulphur.....	570
.....	176	Sulphuric acid.....	590
.....	212	Linseed oil.....	597
.....		Mercury.....	676

The boiling points of liquids increase as the pressure increases. The boiling-water at any given pressure is the same as the temperature of steam at the same pressure. (See Steam.)

MELTING-POINTS OF VARIOUS SUBSTANCES.

The following figures are given by Clark (on the authority of Pouillet, Wilson), except those marked *, which are given by Prof. Robinson in his description of the Le Chatelier pyrometer. These latter are the most reliable figures.

Alloy.....	- 148° F.	Alloy, 1 tin, 1 lead..	370 to 466° F.
Al.....	- 108	Tin.....	442 to 446
.....	- 39	Cadmium.....	442
.....	+ 9.5	Bismuth.....	504 to 507
.....	14	Lead.....	604 to 618*
Al.....	16	Zinc.....	680 to 779*
.....	32	Antimony.....	810 to 1160
Al.....	45	Aluminium.....	1157*
.....	92	Magnesium.....	1200
.....	112	Calcium.....	Full red heat.
.....	118	Bronze.....	1602
.....	100 to 120	Silver.....	1733° to 1873
.....	120	Potassium sulphate.....	1859*
.....	131 to 140	Gold.....	1913° to 2042
.....	136 to 144	Copper.....	1929° to 1996
.....	142 to 154	Cast iron, white.....	1922 to 2075*
.....	158	" gray 2012 to 2786	2248*
.....	194 to 208	Steel.....	2372 to 2542
Al tin, 5 bismuth	199	" hard.....	2570°; mild, 2084*
.....	225	Wrought iron.....	2732 to 2914
.....	239	Palladium.....	2732*
Al lead.....	324	Platinum.....	3227*

The melting-point of fusible alloys, see Alloys.

Iron, nickel, and manganese, fusible in highest heat of a forge. Tungsten, not fusible in forge, but softens and agglomerates. Platinum, fusible only before the oxyhydrogen blowpipe.

QUANTITATIVE MEASUREMENT OF HEAT.

Heat.—The British unit of heat, or British thermal unit, is that quantity of heat which is required to raise the temperature of one pound of water 1° Fahr., at or near 39°. 1 F., the temperature of maximum density of water.

The *thermal unit*, or *calorie*, is that quantity of heat which is required to raise the temperature of 1 kilogramme of pure water 1° Cent., at or near 39°. 1 C., the temperature of maximum density of water.

1 *calorie* = 3.668 British thermal units; 1 B. T. U. = .252 *calorie*. The *calorie* is sometimes used by English writers; it is the quan-

ity of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 lb. of water 1° C. calorific = $9/5$ B.T.U. = 0.4590 calorific. The heat of combustion of carbon, CO_2 , is said to be 8080 calories. This figure is used either for French calories for pound calories, as it is the number of pounds of water that can be raised 1° C. by the complete combustion of 1 lb. of carbon, or the number of kilogrammes of water that can be raised 1° C. by the combustion of 1 lb. of carbon; assuming in each case that all the heat generated is transmitted to the water.

The Mechanical Equivalent of Heat is the number of pounds of mechanical energy equivalent to one British thermal unit, and mechanical energy being mutually convertible, Joule's experiments 1843-50, gave the figure 778, which is known as Joule's equivalent. Recent experiments by Prof. Rowland F. *Proc. Am. Acad. Arts and Sci.* 1880; see also *Wood's Thermodynamics* give higher figures, and the probable average is now considered to be 778.

1 heat-unit is equivalent to 778 ft.-lbs. of energy. 1 ft. lb. = $1/778$ heat-units. 1 horse power = 33,000 ft.-lbs. per minute = 3545 heat-units per hour = $42,416 \div$ per minute = 70694 per second. 1 lb. carbon burned = 14,545 heat-units. 1 lb. C. per H.P. per hour = $2545 \div 70694 = 17.46$ (174866).

Heat of Combustion of Various Substances in Oxygen

	Heat-units.		Authority
	Cent.	Fahr.	
Hydrogen to liquid water at 0° C.	{ 34,462 33,808 34,812	{ 62,032 60,854 61,816	{ Favre and Silbermann Andrews Thomson.
" to steam at 100° C.	28,732	51,717	Favre and Silbermann
Carbon (wood charcoal) to carbonic acid, CO_2 ; ordinary temperatures.	{ 8,080 7,900	{ 14,544 14,220	{ Andrews.
Carbon, diamond to CO_2	8,137	14,637	Berthelot.
" black diamond to CO_2	7,859	14,146	"
" graphite to CO_2	7,861	14,150	"
Carbon to carbonic oxide, CO ,	7,901	14,222	"
Carbon to carbonic oxide, CO ,	{ 2,473 2,403	{ 4,451 4,335	{ Favre and Silbermann "
Carbonic oxide to CO_2 , per unit of CO ..	{ 2,431 2,385	{ 4,376 4,292	{ Andrews. Thomson.
CO to CO_2 per unit of $\text{C} = 2\frac{1}{2} \times 2403$..	5,607	10,093	Favre and Silbermann
Marsh-gas, Methane, CH_4 to water and CO_2 ..	{ 13,120 13,108	{ 23,616 23,594	{ Thomson. Andrews.
"	13,063	23,513	Favre and Silbermann
Olefiant gas, Ethylene, C_2H_4 to water and CO_2 ..	{ 11,855 11,942	{ 21,341 21,496	{ Andrews.
"	11,957	21,522	Thomson.
Benzole gas, C_6H_6 to water and CO_2 ..	{ 10,102 9,915	{ 18,184 17,861	{ Favre and Silbermann

In burning 1 pound of hydrogen with 8 pounds of oxygen to form 9 pounds of water, the units of heat evolved are 62,032 (Favre and S., but the resulting product is not cooled to the initial temperature of the part of the heat is rendered latent in the steam. The total heat of steam at 212° F. is 1146.1 heat-units above that of water at 32° F. $9 \times 1146.1 = 10,315$ heat-units, which deducted from 62,032 gives 51,717 heat evolved by the combustion of 1 lb. of hydrogen and 8 lbs. of oxygen to form steam at 212° F.

By the decomposition of a chemical compound as much heat is also rendered latent as was evolved when the compound was formed. If of carbon is burned to CO_2 , generating 14,544 B.T.U., and the CO_2 then reduced to CO in the presence of glowing carbon, $\text{CO}_2 + \text{C} = 2\text{CO}$, the result is the same as if the 2 lbs. of carbon had been burned to CO , generating $2 \times 7274 = 14,548$ heat-units, and the 14,544 heat-units have disappeared or become latent.

burning" of CO_2 to CO is thus a cooling operation. (For heats of combustion of various fuels, see Fuel.)

SPECIFIC HEAT.

Thermal Capacity.—The thermal capacity of a body is the quantity of heat required to raise its temperature one degree. The ratio of the heat required to raise the temperature of a given substance one degree to that required to raise the temperature of water one degree from the temperature of maximum density 39.1° is commonly called the *specific heat* of the substance. Some writers object to the term as being an inaccurate use of the words "specific" and "heat." A more correct name would be "coefficient thermal capacity."

Determination of Specific Heat.—*Method by Mixture.* The substance whose specific heat is to be determined is raised to a known temperature and is then immersed in a mass of liquid of which the weight, specific heat and temperature are known. When both the body and the liquid attained the same temperature, this is carefully ascertained. The quantity of heat lost by the body is the same as the quantity of heat absorbed by the liquid.

Let s , w , and t be the specific heat, weight, and temperature of the hot body, and s' , w' , and t' of the liquid. Let T be the temperature the mixture assumes.

Then, by the definition of specific heat, $c \times w \times (t - T)$ = heat units lost by the hot body, and $c' \times w' \times (T - t')$ = heat-units gained by the cold body. If there is no heat lost by radiation or conduction, these must be equal, and

$$cw(t - T) = c'w'(T - t') \quad \text{or} \quad c = \frac{c'w'(T - t')}{w(t - T)}.$$

Specific Heats of Various Substances.

The specific heats of substances, as given by different authorities, show a considerable lack of agreement, especially in the case of gases.

The following tables give the mean specific heats of the substances named, according to Regnault. (From Kottgen's Thermodynamics, p. 131.) These are average values, taken at temperatures which usually come into observation in technical application. The actual specific heats of all substances in the solid or liquid state, increase slowly as the body expands and the temperature rises. It is probable that the specific heat of a body in a liquid is greater than when solid. For many bodies this has been found by experiment.

SOLIDS.

Aluminum.....	0.0023	Steel (soft).....	0.1165
Copper.....	0.0951	Steel (hard).....	0.1175
Cast iron.....	0.0324	Zinc.....	0.0856
Light iron.....	0.1138	Brass.....	0.0832
Lead.....	0.0337	Ice.....	0.5040
Iron.....	0.1238	Sulphur.....	0.2026
.....	0.0314	Charcoal.....	0.2410
.....	0.0324	Alumina.....	0.1970
.....	0.0570	Phosphorus.....	0.1887
.....	0.0502		

LIQUIDS.

.....	1.0000	Mercury.....	0.0333
Melted.....	0.0002	Alcohol (absolute).....	0.7000
.....	0.2310	Fusel oil.....	0.5610
.....	0.0308	Benzine.....	0.4500
.....	0.0027	Ether.....	0.5084
.....	0.8350		

GASES.

	Constant Pressure	Constant Volume
Air.....	0.23751	0.16847
Oxygen.....	0.21751	0.15847
Hydrogen.....	3.40900	2.41996
Nitrogen.....	0.24390	0.17473
Superheated steam.....	0.4806	0.346
Carbonic acid.....	0.217	0.1545
Olefiant Gas (CH_4).....	0.404	0.278
Carbonic oxide.....	0.2479	0.1759
Ammonia.....	0.508	0.359
Ether.....	0.4797	0.3411
Alcohol.....	0.4534	0.3300
Acetic acid.....	0.4125
Chloroform.....	0.1567

In addition to the above, the following are given by other authorities (Selected from various sources.)

METALS.

Platinum, 32° to 440° F.	0.333	Wrought iron (Petit & Dulong)
(increased .000305 for each 100° F.)		" 32° to 212°
Cadmium.....	.0567	" 32° to 192°
Brass.....	.0539	" 32° to 572°
Copper, 32° to 212° F.094	" 32° to 762°
" 32° to 572° F.1013	Wrought iron (J. C. Hoadley,
Zinc 32° to 212° F.0927	A. S. M. E., vi, 718),
" 32° to 572° F.1015	Wrought iron, 32° to 200°
Nickel.....	.1086	" 32° to 440°
Aluminium, 0° F. to melting-		" 32° to 2000°
point (A. E. Hunt).....	0.2185	

OTHER SOLIDS.

Brickwork and masonry, about.....	.30	Coal.....
Marble.....	.210	Coke.....
Chalk.....	.215	Graphite.....
Quicklime.....	.217	Sulphate of lime.....
Magnesian limestone.....	.217	Magnesia.....
Silica.....	.191	Soda.....
Corundum.....	.198	Quartz.....
Stones generally.....	.2 to .22	River sand.....

WOODS.

Pine (turpentine).....	.467	Oak.....
Fir.....	.650	Pear.....

LIQUIDS.

Alcohol, density .793.....	.622	Oil of olive.....
Sulphuric acid, density 1.87.....	.835	Benzine.....
" " " 1.30.....	.661	Turpentine, density .872.....
Hydrochloric acid.....	.600	Bromine.....

GASES.

	At Constant Pressure.	At Constant Volume.
Sulphurous acid.....	1.553	1.501
Light carburetted hydrogen, marsh gas (CH_4).....	59.29	48.00
Blast-furnace gases.....	.2577

Specific Heat of Salt Solution. (Schuller.)

Per cent salt in solution.....	5	10	15	20
Specific heat.....	.9806	.8900	.8406	.8400

Specific Heat of Air.—Regnault gives for the mean value

Between -30° C. and $+10^\circ$ C.	0.2579
" 0° C. " 100° C.	0.2578
" 0° C. " 300° C.	0.2577

Regnault gives 0.1686 for the specific heat of air at constant volume. This constant has never been found to any degree of accuracy. Prof. Wood gives $0.2575 + 1.405 \times 10^{-6}$. The

heat of a fixed gas at constant pressure to the sp. ht. at constant volume is given as follows by different writers (*Eng'g*, July 12, 1889): 1.3953; Moll and Beck, 1.4085; Szathmari, 1.4057; J. Macfarlane. The first three are obtained from the velocity of sound in air. The third derived from theory. Prof. Wood says: The value of the ratio for air in the days of La Place, was 1.41, and we have $0.2377 \div 1.41$ the value used by Clausius, Hansen, and many others. But this is definitely known. Rankine in his later writings used 1.408, and recent work gives 1.404, while some experiments gives less than 1.408 more than 1.41. Prof. Wood uses 1.406.

Heat of Gases.—Experiments by Mallard and Le Chatelier show a continuous increase in the specific heat at constant volume of gases, and even of the perfect gases, with rise of temperature. The specific heat is inappreciable at 100° C., but increases rapidly at the high temperature of the gas-engine cylinder. (Robinson's Gas and Petroleum

Heat and Latent Heat of Fusion of Iron and Steel. (H. H. Campbell, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xix. 181.)

	Åkerman.	Troilius.
Heat pig iron, 0 to 1200° C.....	0.16
" " 1200 to 1800° C.....	0.21
" " 0 to 1500° C.....		0.18
" " 1500 to 1800° C.....		0.20

by both sets of data we have:

	Åkerman.	Troilius.
Heat pig iron from 0 to 1800° C.....	318	330 calories per kilo.
probable value is about.....		325 calories per kilo.
Heat steel (probably high carbon).....		(Troilius)..... 1175
" " soft iron.....		"..... 1081
probable value solid rail steel.....		"..... 1125
" " melted rail steel.....		"..... 1275

	Åkerman.	Troilius.
Heat of fusion, pig iron, calories per kilo..	46	..
" " gray pig		33
" " white pig		23

we may assume that the truth is about: Steel, 20; pig iron, 30.

EXPANSION BY HEAT.

On the Fahrenheit scale the coefficient of expansion of air per degree is 1/273; that is, the pressure being constant, the volume of a perfect gas is 1.273 of its volume at 0° C. for every increase in temperature. Fahrenheit units it increases 1/491.2 = .002036 of its volume at every increase of 1° F.

Heat of Gases by Heat from 32° to 212° F. (Regnault.)

	Increase in Volume, Pressure Constant. Volume at 32° Fahr. = 1.0, for		Increase in Pressure, Volume Constant. Pressure at 32° Fahr. = 1.0, for	
	100° C.	1° F.	100° C.	1° F.
air.....	0.3661	0.002034	0.3667	0.002037
"	0.3670	0.002039	0.3665	0.002036
"	0.3670	0.002039	0.3668	0.002039
hydrogen.....	0.3669	0.002038	0.3667	0.002037
oxygen.....	0.3710	0.002061	0.3688	0.002050
acid.....	0.3803	0.002103	0.3845	0.002150

When the volume is kept constant, the pressure varies directly as the

Linear Expansion of Solids at Ordinary Temperatures.

(British Board of Trade; from CHARR.)

	For 1° Fahr.	For 1° Cent.	Coef- ficient of Expan- sion from 32° to 212° F.	Accord- ing to other Author- ities
Length=1	Length=1			
Aluminum (cast).....	.00001234	.00002221	.002221
Antimony (cryst.)00000627	.00001129	.001129	.00103
Brass, cast.....	.00000957	.00001722	.001722	.00168
" plate.....	.00001052	.00001894	.001894
Brick.....	.0000306	.00005550	.005550
Bronze (Copper, 17; Tin, 2½; Zinc 1).....	.00000986	.00001774	.001774
Bismuth.....	.00006275	.00001755	.001755	.00182
Cement, Portland (mixed), pure.....	.00000504	.00001070	.001070
Concrete; cement, mortar, and pebbles.....	.00000795	.00001430	.001430
Copper; cement, mortar, and pebbles.....	.00000887	.00001596	.001596	.00178
Ebanite.....	.00004258	.00007700	.007700
Glass, English flint.....	.00000451	.00000812	.000812
" thermometer.....	.00000199	.00000397	.000397
" hard.....	.00000397	.00000714	.000714
Granite, gray, dry.....	.00000493	.00000789	.000789
" red, dry.....	.00000193	.00000397	.000397
Gold, pure.....	.00000286	.00001415	.001415
Iridium, pure.....	.00000950	.00000641	.000641
Iron, wrought.....	.00000643	.00001166	.001166	.00123
" cast.....	.00000550	.00001001	.001001	.00110
Lead.....	.00001371	.00002828	.002828
Magnesium.....	.00000308	.00000654	.000654	.00264
Marbles, various } from.....	.00000736	.00001415	.001415
" to.....	.00000256	.00000480	.000480
Masonry, brick } from.....	.00000194	.00000320	.000320
" to.....	.00000684	.00001271	.001271	.00105
Mercury (cubic expansion).....	.00000595	.00001251	.001251	.00129
Nickel.....	.00001129	.00002033	.002033
Pewter.....	.0000022	.00001680	.001680
Plaster, white.....	.00000479	.00000803	.000803
Platinum.....	.00000453	.00000815	.000815	.00084
Iridium, 15 " " }.....	.00000300	.00000560	.000560
Porcelain.....	.00000300	.00000560	.000560
Quartz, parallel to major axis, t 0° to 40° C.....	.00000434	.00000781	.000781
Quartz, perpendicular to major axis, t 0° to 40° C.....	.00000785	.00001419	.001419
Silver, pure.....	.00001079	.00001943	.001943	.00189
Steel.....	.00000577	.00001034	.001034
" cast.....	.00000636	.00001144	.001144	.00107
" tempered.....	.00000289	.00001240	.001240
Stone (sandstone), dry.....	.00000552	.00001174	.001174
" " Rauville.....	.00000417	.00000750	.000750
Tin.....	.00001163	.00002134	.002134	.00208
Wedgwood ware.....	.00000188	.00000381	.000381
Wood, pine.....	.00000276	.00001186	.001186
Zinc.....	.00001407	.00002532	.002532	.00250
Zinc, 8 }	.00001406	.00002532	.002532
Tin, 1 }				

Cubical expansion, or expansion of volume = linear expansion \times l.

Temperature—Absolute Zero.—The absolute zero of a scale is the consequence of the law of expansion by heat, assuming a gas to continue the cooling of a perfect gas until its volume is nothing.

One of a perfect gas increases 1/273 of its volume at 0° C. for each degree of temperature of 1° C., and decreases 1/273 of its volume for each degree of temperature of 1° C., then at - 273° C. the volume of the gas would be reduced to nothing. This point - 273° C., or 491.2° F., is called the absolute zero of temperature. This point - 273° C., or 491.2° F., is the melting-point of ice on the air thermometer, or 492.00° F. on the perfect gas thermometer = - 459.3° F. (or = - 460.00°), is called the zero of the air thermometer. Absolute temperatures are temperatures measured, on the Fahrenheit or centigrade scale, from this zero. The freezing point of water corresponds to 491.2° F. absolute. If p_0 be the pressure and v_0 the volume of a gas at the temperature of 32° F. = 491.2° on the absolute scale, and p the pressure, and v the volume of the same quantity of gas at a temperature T , then

$$\frac{pv}{p_0v_0} = \frac{T}{T_0} = \frac{T + 459.2}{491.2}; \quad \frac{pv}{p_0v_0} = \frac{T}{T_0}.$$

If $p_0v_0 + T_0$ for air is 53.37, and $pv = 53.37T$, calculated as follows:

One pound of dry air at 32° F. at the sea-level weighs 0.060728 lb. The volume of one pound is $v_0 = \frac{1}{0.060728} = 12.387$ cubic feet. The pressure per pound is 2116.2 lbs.

$$\frac{p_0v_0}{T_0} = \frac{2116.2 \times 12.387}{491.13} = \frac{26214}{491.13} = 53.37.$$

491.13 is the number of degrees that the absolute zero is below the point of ice, by the air thermometer. On the absolute scale, the zero would be indicated by a perfect gas thermometer, the only one approximately is 492.00, which would make $pv = 53.21T$. Prof. Clausius states that - 273.15° C. = - 459.4° F. is the most probable value of the absolute zero. See *Heat* in *Encyc. Brit.*

Latent Heats of Liquids from 32° to 212° F.—Apparent expansibilities (Clark). Volume at 212°, volume at 32° being 1:

..... 1.0466	Nitric acid..... 1.11
..... 1.05	Olive and linseed oils..... 1.08
..... 1.0182	Turpentine and ether..... 1.07
..... 1.11	Hydrochloric and sulphuric acids 1.06

at various temperatures, see Water.

at various temperatures, see Air.

HEATS OF FUSION AND EVAPORATION.

Heat means a quantity of heat which has disappeared, having been used to produce some change other than elevation of temperature, or reversing that change, the quantity of heat which has disappeared is reproduced. Maxwell defines it as the quantity of heat which is communicated to a body in a given state in order to convert it into another state without changing its temperature.

Heat of Fusion.—When a body passes from the solid to the liquid state, its temperature remains stationary, or nearly stationary, at a certain point during the whole operation of melting; and in order that the operation go on, a quantity of heat must be transferred to the body, being a certain amount for each unit of weight of the body. This quantity is called the latent heat of fusion.

When a body passes from the liquid to the solid state, its temperature remains stationary or nearly stationary during the whole operation of freezing; and a quantity of heat equal to the latent heat of fusion is produced in the body, being communicated into the atmosphere or other surrounding bodies.

The following are examples in British thermal units per pound, as given

Substances.	Melting Points.	Latent Heat of Fusion.
according to Person.....	32	142.65
alcohol.....	56	148
wax.....	140	175
phosphorus.....	177	9.06
mercury.....	406	16.36
water.....	492	500

corresponding to the pressure of the vapor, a quantity of latent heat of evaporation at that temperature is produced in order that the operation of condensation may go on, the heat being transferred from the body condensed to some other body.

The following are examples of the latent heat of evaporation in British thermal units, of one pound of certain substances, when the vapor is one atmosphere of 14.7 lbs. on the square inch:

Substance.	Boiling-point under one atm. Fahr.
Water	212.0
Alcohol	172.2
Ether	95.0
Bisulphide of carbon	114.8

The latent heat of evaporation of water at a series of temperatures extending from a few degrees below its freezing-point up to 212° Fahrenheit has been determined experimentally by M. Regnault. Results of those experiments are represented approximately in British thermal units per pound,

$$l \text{ nearly} = 1091.7 - 0.7(t - 32^\circ) = 965.7 - 0.7(t - 212^\circ)$$

The Total Heat of Evaporation is the sum of the sensible heat (or heat required to raise the substance to the temperature for latent heat of evaporation) and of the latent heat of evaporation, from some fixed temperature, before evaporation. The latter part of the total is called the latent heat.

In the case of water, the experiments of M. Regnault show that the heat of steam from the temperature of melting ice increases with the rate as the temperature of evaporation rises. The following is the total heat in British thermal units per pound:

$$h = 1091.7 + 0.305(t - 32^\circ).$$

For the total heat, latent heat, etc., of steam at different temperatures, see table of the Properties of Saturated Steam. For tables of the latent heat, and other properties of steams of ether, alcohol, acetic acid, chloride of carbon, and bisulphide of carbon, see Röntgen's tables (Dubeis's translation.) For ammonia and sulphur dioxide, see Thermodynamics; also, tables under Refrigerating Machines.

EVAPORATION AND DRYING.

Evaporation of Water in Reservoirs.—Experiments at the Reservoir, Rochester, N. Y., in 1891, gave the following results:

	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
Amount of air in shade.....	70.5	70.3	68.7	59.3
" " water in reservoir.....	68.2	70.2	66.1	54.4
Humidity of air, per cent.....	67.0	74.6	75.2	74.7
Evaporation in inches during month.....	5.59	4.93	4.05	3.23
" " in inches during month.....	3.44	2.95	1.44	2.16

Evaporation of Water from Open Channels. (Flynn's *Evaporation and Flow of Water*).—Experiments from 1881 to 1885 in California, showed an evaporation from a pan in the river average depth of one eighth of an inch per day throughout the

season. When the water was in the air the average evaporation was less than 3/16 of an inch per day. The average for the month of August was 1/8 inch per day. In March and April 1/12 of an inch per day. Experiments in California show that evaporation ranges from .088 to .16 of an inch per day during the season.

In Italy the evaporation was from 1/12 to 1/10 inch per day, while under the influence of hot winds, it was from 1/6 to 1/5 inch

per day. In season in Northern India, with a decidedly hot wind blowing, the evaporation was 1/5 inch per day. The evaporation increases with the temperature of the water.

Evaporation by the Multiple System.—A multiple effect is a system of separating vessels each having a steam chamber, so connected that the steam or vapor produced in the first vessel heats the liquid in the second, and so on. The vapor produced in the second heats the third, and so on. The vapor from the last vessel is condensed in a condenser. Three vessels usually used, in which case the apparatus is called a *Triple Effect*. The temperature and pressure of saturation of the vapor in each vessel is graduated so that the liquid in each is at a constant and low temperature.

Evaporation to Boiling.—**Brine.** (Rankine).—The presence in a liquid of a substance dissolved in it as salt in water, raises the boiling-point, and the temperature at which the liquid boils, under a given pressure; but the dissolved substance enters into the composition of the vapor, the vapor being saturated with the substance. The temperature and pressure of saturation of the vapor in each vessel is graduated so that the liquid in each is at a constant and low temperature. A resistance to ebullition is also offered by a vessel of glass attracts the liquid (as when water boils in a glass vessel), and takes place by starts. To avoid the errors which causes of error in the measurement of boiling-points, it is advisable to use a thermometer, not in the liquid, but in the vapor, which shows the true boiling-point, freed from the disturbing effect of the attractive nature of the liquid.

The boiling-point of saturated brine under one atmosphere is 212° Fahr., and that of weaker brine is higher than the boiling-point of pure water. For each 1/32 of salt that the water contains, the boiling-point is raised 1/32° Fahr.; and the brine in marine boilers is not sufficiently pure to be more than from 2 3/32 to 3 3/32° Fahr.

Evaporation Employed in the Manufacture of Salt.—1. *Direct solar evaporation.* 2. *Direct fire, applied to the heat the vessels containing brine—kettle and pan methods.* 3. *The vacuum system—steam-pans, steam-kettles, etc.* 4. *Use of steam and vacuum.* The atmospheric pressure over the boiling brine—vacuum

pan. The brine solution boils. It is immaterial whether it is done under atmospheric pressure at 212° F., or under four atmospheres of pressure at 330° F., or in a vacuum under 1/10 atmosphere, the result will be a fine-grained salt.

The consumption is stated to be as follows: By the kettle method, 40 lbs. of water evaporated per ton of fuel, anthracite dust burned on per pound of coal. By the vacuum method, 75 lbs. of water evaporated per ton of fuel. By vacuum pans, single effect, 85 lbs. of water evaporated per ton of fuel. By vacuum pans, double effect, nearly 100 lbs. of water evaporated per ton of fuel. With a double effect nearly 100 lbs. of water can be produced.

Solubility of Common Salt in Pure Water. (A.)

Temp. of brine, F.....	32	50	86	104	170
100 parts water dissolve parts.....	35.63	35.69	36.03	36.32	37.4
100 parts brine contain salt.....	26.27	26.30	26.49	26.64	27.0

According to Poggial, 100 parts of water dissolve at 239.06° F. 38.4 parts of salt, or in per cent of brine, 28.749. Gay Lussac found that at 100 parts of pure water would dissolve 40.38 parts of salt, in per cent of brine, 28.764 parts.

The solubility of salt at 239° F. is only 2.5% greater than at 32°. It cannot, as in the case of alum, separate the salt from the water by a saturated solution at the boiling point to cool to a lower temperature.

Solubility of Sulphate of Lime in Pure Water. (B.)

Temperature F. degrees.	32	64.5	89.5	100.4	105.8	137.4
Parts water to dissolve 1 part gypsum	415	386	371	368	370	375
Parts water to dissolve 1 part anhydrous CaSO_4	525	488	470	466	468	474

In salt brine sulphate of lime is much more soluble than in pure water. In the evaporation of salt brine the accumulation of sulphate of lime stops the operation, and it must be removed from the pans to save fuel.

The average strength of brine in the New York salt districts is 69.38 degrees of the salinometer.

Strength of Salt Brines.—The following table is condensed one given in U. S. Mineral Resources for 1888, on the authority of Englehardt.

Relations between Salinometer Strength, Specific Gravity, etc., of Brines of Different Strata.

Salinometer, degrees.	Baumé, degrees.	Specific gravity.	Per cent of salt.	Weight of a gallon of this brine in pounds.	Pounds of salt in a gallon of brine of 391 cubic inches.	Gallons of brine required for a bushel of salt.	Pounds of water to be evaporated to produce a bushel of salt.	Lbs. of coal required to produce a bushel of salt.
1.....	.26	1.002	.265	8.347	.022	2.531	21.076	3.513
2.....	.52	1.003	.520	8.350	.044	1.264	10.510	1.756
4.....	1.04	1.007	1.060	8.380	.088	.630.7	5.257	.871
6.....	1.56	1.010	1.590	8.414	.133	.418.6	3.466	.577
8.....	2.08	1.014	2.120	8.447	.179	.312.7	2.585	.430
10.....	2.60	1.017	2.650	8.479	.224	.249.4	2.067	.340
12.....	3.12	1.021	3.180	8.506	.270	.207.0	1.705	.284
14.....	3.64	1.025	3.710	8.539	.316	.176.8	1.453	.240
16.....	4.16	1.028	4.240	8.564	.364	.154.9	1.265	.210
18.....	4.68	1.032	4.770	8.597	.410	.136.5	1.118	.180
20.....	5.20	1.035	5.300	8.622	.457	.122.5	1.000	.170
22.....	5.72	1.039	5.810	8.648	.503	.111.8	.904	.161
24.....	6.24	1.043	6.320	8.671	.549	.103.1	.824	.153
26.....	6.76	1.047	6.830	8.693	.595	.95.7	.754	.145
28.....	7.28	1.051	7.340	8.715	.641	.89.1	.694	.137
30.....	7.80	1.055	7.850	8.737	.687	.83.4	.644	.129
32.....	8.32	1.059	8.360	8.759	.733	.78.7	.604	.121
34.....	8.84	1.063	8.870	8.781	.779	.74.9	.574	.113
36.....	9.36	1.067	9.380	8.803	.825	.71.1	.544	.105
38.....	9.88	1.071	9.890	8.825	.871	.67.4	.514	.097
40.....	10.40	1.075	10.400	8.847	.917	.63.6	.484	.089
42.....	10.92	1.079	10.910	8.869	.963	.60.0	.454	.081
44.....	11.44	1.083	11.420	8.891	1.009	.56.3	.424	.073
46.....	11.96	1.087	11.930	8.913	1.055	.52.7	.394	.065
48.....	12.48	1.091	12.440	8.935	1.101	.49.1	.364	.057
50.....	13.00	1.095	12.950	8.957	1.147	.45.5	.334	.049
52.....	13.52	1.099	13.460	8.979	1.193	.41.9	.304	.041
54.....	14.04	1.103	13.970	8.999	1.239	.38.3	.274	.033
56.....	14.56	1.107	14.480	9.021	1.285	.34.7	.244	.025
58.....	15.08	1.111	14.990	9.043	1.331	.31.1	.214	.017
60.....	15.60	1.115	15.500	9.065	1.377	.27.5	.184	.009
62.....	16.12	1.119	16.010	9.087	1.423	.23.9	.154	.001
64.....	16.64	1.123	16.520	9.109	1.469	.20.3	.124	.003
66.....	17.16	1.127	17.030	9.131	1.515	.16.7	.094	.005
68.....	17.68	1.131	17.540	9.153	1.561	.13.1	.064	.007
70.....	18.20	1.135	18.050	9.175	1.607	.09.5	.034	.009
72.....	18.72	1.139	18.560	9.197	1.653	.05.9	.004	.011
74.....	19.24	1.143	19.070	9.219	1.699	.02.3	.006	.013
76.....	19.76	1.147	19.580	9.241	1.745	.01.7	.008	.015
78.....	20.28	1.151	20.090	9.263	1.791	.01.1	.010	.017
80.....	20.80	1.155	20.600	9.285	1.837	.00.5	.012	.019
82.....	21.32	1.159	21.110	9.307	1.883	.00.0	.014	.021
84.....	21.84	1.163	21.620	9.329	1.929	.00.0	.016	.023
86.....	22.36	1.167	22.130	9.351	1.975	.00.0	.018	.025
88.....	22.88	1.171	22.640	9.373	2.021	.00.0	.020	.027
90.....	23.40	1.175	23.150	9.395	2.067	.00.0	.022	.029
92.....	23.92	1.179	23.660	9.417	2.113	.00.0	.024	.031
94.....	24.44	1.183	24.170	9.439	2.159	.00.0	.026	.033
96.....	24.96	1.187	24.680	9.461	2.205	.00.0	.028	.035
98.....	25.48	1.191	25.190	9.483	2.251	.00.0	.030	.037
100.....	26.00	1.195	25.700	9.505	2.297	.00.0	.032	.039

Use of Sugar Solutions.* (From "Heating and Cooling by Steam," by John G. Hudson; *The Engineer*, June 13, 1898.) In the process, when the liquor is of low density, the pans will be high, say two to three (British) gallons per square foot with 10 lbs. steam pressure, but will gradually fall to the amount as the final stage is approached. As a general finding, Mr. Hudson takes an evaporation of one gallon per square foot of gross heating surface, with steam of the pressure

the evaporative duty of a vacuum pan when performing the duty of concentration, during which all the heating surface is given the following:

Ans.— $4\frac{3}{4}$ in. copper coils, 528 square feet of surface; pressure, temperature in pan, 141° to 148° ; density of feed, 25° Beaumé; concentrated to 81° Beaumé.

Evaporation at the rate of 3000 gallons per hour = 2.8 gallons transmission, 370 units per degree of difference of temperature.

Evaporation at the rate of 1500 gallons per hour = 2.8 gal. transmission, 265 units per degree.

Final time needed to work up a charge of massecuite from its density, the following figures, obtained by plotting the number of pans, form a guide to practical working. The figures of the coil type, some with and some without jackets, are surface probably averaging, and not greatly differing in capacity, and the steam pressure 10 lbs. per square inch in a plantation and refining pans are included, making sugar:

	Density of Feed (degs. Beaumé).				
	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°
Evaporation per gallon massecuite	6.123	3.6	2.26	1.5	.97
Hours required per gallon	12.	9.	$6\frac{1}{4}$	5.	4.
Evaporation per hour of gross surface, as per gallon capacity	2.04	1.6	1.39	1.2	.97
Hours required per gallon	8.5	5.5	3.6	2.75	2.0
Evaporation per foot	2.88	2.6	2.38	2.18	1.9

heating steam needed is practically the same in vacuum. The advantages proper to the vacuum system are primary temperature of boiling, and incidentally the possibility of low pressure.

Sugar in water, each pound of sugar adds to the volume to the extent of .001 gallon at a low density to .0038 gallon at

Evaporating by Exhaust Steam is described in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. viii. A pan $15' 6'' \times 11' \times 1' 6''$, with condensing pipes of about 250 sq. ft. of surface, evaporates one hour from clear water, condensing only about one half of the steam by a plain slide valve engine of $14'' \times 32''$ cylinder, 10 min., cutting off about two thirds stroke, with steam at 100 lbs. pressure.

Keeping the pan-room warm and letting only sufficient vapor up out of a ventilator adds to its efficiency, as the temperature of the water in the pan was only about 165° F. The pans are made with coils of pipe in a small pan, first with no coils, then one having straight blades, and lastly with troughed blades, the results being about the proportions of one, two, and three.

Liquors whose boiling point is 220° F., or much above that which that exhaust steam can do but little more than bring to a boil, but on weak liquors, syrups, glues, etc., it is of great value.

For sugar data see Bagasse as Fuel, under Fuels.

Drying in Vacuum.—An apparatus for drying grain and other substances in vacuum is described by Mr. Emil Passburg in *Proc. Engng.*, 1889. The three essential requirements for a successful economical process of drying are: 1. Cheap evaporation of the water; 2. Quick drying at a low temperature; 3. Large capacity of the apparatus employed.

The removal of the moisture can be effected in either of two ways: by slow evaporation, or by quick evaporation—that is, by boiling.

Slow Evaporation.—The principal idea carried into practice by slow evaporation is to bring the wet substance into direct contact with the inner surfaces of the apparatus, which are heated by steam, while at the same time a current of hot air is also passed over the substances for carrying off the moisture. This method is used, because the hot-air current has to move at a considerable distance in order to shorten the drying process as much as possible; a great quantity of heated air passes through and escapes unused; and it is in fact considered a satisfactory result when a proportion of moisture hot air cannot in practice be charged beyond saturation; and it is in fact considered a satisfactory result when a proportion of moisture hot air cannot in practice be charged beyond saturation; and it is in fact considered a satisfactory result when a proportion of moisture hot air cannot in practice be charged beyond saturation.

Quick Evaporation by Boiling.—This does not take place until the substance is brought up to the boiling point and kept there, namely, at atmospheric pressure. The vapor generated then escapes freely and the substances are easily evaporated. In this way, because by their motion in the liquid, the heat is continuously conveyed from the heating surface to the liquid, but it is different with solid substances, and many of them have to be overcome, because convection of the heat ceases. The substance remains motionless, and consequently a greater quantity of heat is required than with liquids for the same results.

Evaporation in Vacuum.—All the foregoing disadvantages of the boiling-point of water is lowered, that is, if the evaporation is carried out under vacuum.

This plan has been successfully applied in Mr. Passburg's vacuum apparatus, which is designed to evaporate large quantities of water contained in solid substances.

The drying apparatus consists of a top horizontal cylinder, by a charging vessel at one end, and a bottom horizontal cylinder discharging vessel beneath it at the same end. Both cylinders are in steam jackets heated by exhaust steam. In the top cylinder is a revolving cast-iron screw with hollow blades, which is also heated by steam. The bottom cylinder contains a revolving drum of tin-plate of one large central tube surrounded by 24 smaller ones, all of which are heated by steam. This drum is heated by live steam direct from the boiler. The substance to be dried is fed into the charging vessel through a hopper, and is carried along the top cylinder by the screw conveyor, where it drops through a valve into the bottom cylinder, is lifted by blades attached to the drum and travels forward in the same direction; from the front end of the bottom cylinder it falls into a discharging vessel through another valve, having by this time become dry. Vapor arising during the process is carried off by an air-pump, and a throttle valve on the top of the upper cylinder, and a throttle valve on the top of the lower cylinder; both of which are supplied with strainers.

As soon as the discharging vessel is filled with dried material, the connecting it with the bottom cylinder is shut, and the dried material is removed without impairing the vacuum in the apparatus. When the discharging vessel requires replenishing, the intermediate valve between the discharging vessel and the bottom cylinder is shut, and the charging vessel filled with a fresh supply of material; the vacuum still remains unimpaired in the bottom cylinder, and is restored only in the top cylinder after the charging vessel is closed again.

In this vacuum the boiling point of the water contained in the substance is brought down as low as 110° F. The difference between the boiling point of the water and that of the heating surfaces is amply sufficient for the evaporation of the water, and the employment of exhaust steam for heating all the tubes, except the revolving drum of tubes. The water contained in the substance is evaporated as soon as the latter is heated to the boiling point.

there is any moisture to be removed the solid substance is at this temperature.

In a brewery or distillery, containing from 75% to 78% of its drying process been converted in some localities from substance into a valuable food-stuff. The water is removed only, no previous mechanical pressing being resorted to.

In Messrs's brewery in Dublin two of these machines are employed; of these the top cylinder is 20' 4" long and 2' 8" diam., and it inside it makes 7 revs. per min.; the bottom cylinder is 2' 4" diam., and the drum of the tubes inside it makes 5 revs. The drying surfaces of the two cylinders amount together to a little over 1000 sq. ft., of which about 40% is heated by exhaust steam from the boiler.

There is only one air-pump, which is made large for these machines: it is horizontal, and has only one air cylinder, working, 17 $\frac{3}{4}$ in. diam. and 17 $\frac{3}{4}$ in. stroke; and it is driven at 100 revs. per min. As the result of about eight months' experience, the machines have been drying the wet grains from about 500 cwt. of malt per day.

Using 3 cwt. of malt gave 4 cwt. of wet grains, and the latter dried grain; 500 cwt. of malt will therefore yield about 670 cwt. of 33% cwt. per machine. The quantity of water to be removed from the wet grains is from 75% to 78% of their total weight, or 350 cwt. altogether, being 350 cwt. per machine.

RADIATION OF HEAT.

Heat takes place between bodies at all distances apart, and the intensity of the radiation of light.

The rays proceed in straight lines, and the intensity of the rays at any one place varies inversely as the square of their distance from the source.

It has been erroneously interpreted by some writers, who have said that a boiler placed two feet above a fire would receive only one-fourth as much heat as if it were only one foot above the fire, because the side walls reflect those rays that are reflected from the fire—following the law of optics, that the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection,—with the result that the intensity of the heat above the fire is practically the same as at one foot above, and one-fourth as much.

A hotter body radiates heat, and a colder body absorbs heat. The rate of radiation and of absorption are increased by the roughness of the surfaces of the bodies, and diminished by the smoothness and of a light color; uncovered pipes and steam-pipes should be polished.

The power of heat radiated by a body is also a measure of its heat-absorbing power under the same circumstances. When a polished body is exposed to heat, it absorbs part of the heat and reflects the rest. The power of a body is therefore the complement of its absorbing power is the same as its radiating power.

The reflecting and reflecting power of different bodies has been determined by experiment, as shown in the table below, but as far as quantities are concerned, says Prof. Trowbridge (Johnson's Cyclopaedia), it is doubtful whether anything further than the said relative values, in the present state of our knowledge, be depended on for absolute quantities for different temperatures being still the same. The authorities do not even agree on the relative radiating power of the same bodies; Leslie gives for tin plate, gold, silver, and copper the figure 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 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992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

Relative Radiating and Reflecting Power of Different Substances.

	Radiating or Absorbing Power.	Reflecting Power.		Radiating or Absorbing Power.
Lampblack	100	0	Zinc, polished.	19
Water	100	0	Steel, polished	17
Carbonate of lead...	100	0	Platinum, polished..	24
Writing-paper.....	98	2	" in sheet	17
Ivory, jet, marble...	93 to 98	7 to 2	Tin	15
Ordinary glass.....	90	10	Brass, cast, dead	
Ice	85	18	" polished	11
Gum lac	72	25	Brass, bright pol- ished	7
Silver-leaf on glass..	27	78	Copper, varnished ..	14
Cast iron, bright pol- ished	25	75	" hammered	7
Mercury, about.....	23	77	Gold, plated.....	5
Wrought iron, pol- ished	23	77	" on polished steel.....	3
			Silver, polished bright	3

Experiments of Dr. A. M. Mayer give the following: The relative quantities from a cube of cast iron, having faces rough, as from the foundry planed, "drawfiled," and polished, and from the same surfaces oiled, as below (Prof. Thurston, in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xvi.):

Surface.	Oiled.	Dry.
Rough	100	100
Planed	60	23
Drawfiled.....	49	20
Polished.....	45	18

It here appears that the oiling of smoothly polished castings, as of the cylinder heads of steam-engines, more than doubles the loss of heat by radiation while it does not seriously affect rough castings.

CONDUCTION AND CONVECTION OF HEAT.

Conduction is the transfer of heat between two bodies or parts of a body which touch each other. Internal conduction takes place between parts of one continuous body, and external conduction through the medium of contact of a pair of distinct bodies.

The rate at which conduction, whether internal or external, goes on being proportional to the area of the section or surface through which it takes place, may be expressed in thermal units per square foot of area per hour.

Internal Conduction varies with the *heat conductivity*, which depends upon the nature of the substance, and is directly proportional to the difference between the temperatures of the two faces of a layer, and inversely as its thickness. The reciprocal of the conductivity is called *internal thermal resistance* of the substance. If r represents this resistance, x the thickness of the layer in inches, T and T' the temperatures on the faces, and q the quantity in thermal units transmitted per hour per

foot of area, $q = \frac{T' - T}{rx}$. (Rankine.)

Péclet gives the following values of r :

Gold, platinum, silver	0.0016	Lead	
Copper	0.0018	Marble	
Iron	0.0013	Brick	
Zinc	0.0015		

Relative Heat-conducting Power of Metals.

(* Calvert & Johnson; † Weidemann & Franz)

Silver = 1000.

	°C. & J.	†W. & F.	Metals.	°C. & J.	†W. & F.
.....	1000	1000	Cadmium	577
.....	281	532	Wrought iron	436	119
.....	Tin	422	145
.....	845	736	Steel	397	116
.....	811	Platinum	880	84
.....	677	Sodium	565
.....	Cast iron	350
.....	412	Lead	287	85
.....	665	Antimony :
.....	641	cast horizontally..	215
.....	cast vertically.	192
.....	629	Bismuth	61	18
.....	608			

Relative Conducting Power of a Non-metallic Substance in Combination on the Conducting Power of a Metal.

Carbon on iron :		Influence of arsenic on copper :	
.....	436	Cast copper	811
.....	397	Copper with 1% of arsenic	570
.....	359	" with .5% of arsenic	669
		" with .25% of arsenic	771

Steam-pipe Coverings.

(by Prof. Ordway, Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 73; also Circular No. 27 of Boston Mfrs. Mutual Fire Ins. Co., 1880.)

observed that several of the incombustible materials are nearly wool, cotton, and feathers, with which they may be compared in the following table. The materials which may be considered wholly safe from danger of being carbonized or ignited by slow contact with steam are printed in Roman type. Those which are more or less carbonized are printed in italics.

TABLE I.

inch thick.	Heat applied, 310° F.	Pounds of Water heated 10° F. per hour, through 1 square foot.	Solid Matter in 1 square foot 1 inch thick, parts in 1000.	Air included, parts in 1000.
.....		8.1	56	944
<i>feathers</i>		9.6	50	950
<i>Wool</i>		10.4	20	980
.....		10.8	185	615
<i>pitch</i>		9.8	56	944
<i>lampblack</i>		10.6	244	756
<i>coal</i>		11.9	53	947
<i>charcoal</i>		13.9	119	881
<i>coal powder</i>		35.7	506	394
<i>finest magnesia</i>		12.4	23	977
<i>calcined magnesia</i>		42.6	285	715
<i>oxide of magnesia</i>		13.7	69	940
<i>carbonate of magnesia</i>		15.4	150	850
<i>silica</i>		14.5	69	940
<i>cast-iron</i>		15.7	112	888
<i>plaster of Paris (white)</i>		20.6	253
<i>plaster of Paris</i>		30.9	368
.....		49.0
.....		48.0
.....		62.1

TABLE II.

Covering.	Pounds of heated water per hour 1 square
21. Best slag-wool.....	18
22. Paper.....	14
23. Blotting-paper wound tight.....	21
24. Asbestos paper wound tight.....	21
25. Cork strips bound on.....	24
26. Straw rope wound spirally.....	26
27. Loose rice chaff.....	28
28. Paste of fossil-meal with hair.....	32
29. Paste of fossil-meal with asbestos.....	32
30. Loose bituminous coal ashes.....	32
31. Loose anthracite-coal ashes.....	32
32. Paste of clay and vegetable fibre.....	32

Professor Ordway's report says: Careful experiments have been made with various non-conductors, each used in a mass one inch thick, placed on a flat surface of iron kept heated by steam to 310° Fahr. Table I gives the amount of heat transmitted per hour through each kind of non-conductor one inch thick, reckoned in pounds of water heated 10° Fahr., the unit being one square foot of covering.

The substances given in Table II were actually tried as coverings for a two-inch steam-pipe, but for convenience of comparison the results have been reduced by calculation to the same terms as in Table I.

Later experiments have given results for still air which differ little from those of Nos. 3, 4, and 6. In fact the bulk of matter in the best non-conductors is relatively too small to have any specific effect, except to keep the air and keep it stagnant. These substances keep the air still by the roughness of their fibres or particles. The asbestos, No. 18, had the finest fibres, which could not prevent the air from moving about.

Later trials with an asbestos of exceedingly fine fibre have made no better showing, but asbestos is really one of the poorest non-conductors. By reason of its fibrous character it may be used advantageously to hold together other incombustible substances, but the less the better. We have made trials of two samples of a "magnesia covering," one of carbonate of magnesia with a small percentage of good asbestos. One transmitted heat which, reduced to the terms of Table I, would be equal to 15 lbs.; the denser one gave 20 lbs. The former contained 10% of solid matter; the latter 30%. 1000.

Any suitable substance which is used to prevent the escape of heat should not be less than one inch thick.

Any covering should be kept perfectly dry, for not only is water a poor carrier of heat, but it has been found that still water conducts heat eight times as rapidly as still air.

Heat-conducting Power of Covering Materials

(J. J. Coleman, *Eng'g*, Sept. 5, 1884, p. 237.)

Experiments were made by filling a 10-in. cube with ice, surrounded with the different materials to be tested, and noting the quantity melted per hour with each insulator.

The relative results were as follows:

Silicate cotton (mineral wool)...	100	Charcoal.....	
Hair felt.....	117	Sawdust.....	
Cotton wool.....	122	Gas-works breeze.....	
Sheep's wool.....	136	Wood and air-space.....	
Infusorial earth.....	136		

The Rate of External Conduction through the boundary face between a solid body and a fluid is approximately proportional to the difference of temperature, when that is small; but when that difference is considerable the rate of conduction increases faster than the simple difference. (Rankine.)

If r , as before, is the coefficient of internal thermal resistance, e and e' the coefficient of external resistance of the two surfaces, x the thickness of the plate, and T' and T the temperatures of the two fluids in contact with the two surfaces, the total thermal resistance is $q = \frac{T' - T}{e + e' + rx}$. According to

Péclet, $e + e' = \frac{1}{A(1 + B(T' - T))}$, in which the constants A and B have the following values:

B for polished metallic surfaces	0028
B for rough metallic surfaces and for non-metallic surfaces. .	0037
A for polished metals, about	90
A for glassy and varnished surfaces	1.34
A for dull metallic surfaces	1.58
A for lamp-black	1.78

When a metal plate has a liquid at each side of it, it appears from experiments by Péclet that $B = .058$, $A = 8.8$.

The results of experiments on the evaporative power of boilers agree very well with the following approximate formula for the thermal resistance of boiler plates and tubes:

$$e + e' = \frac{a}{(T' - T)},$$

which gives for the rate of conduction, per square foot of surface per hour,

$$q = \frac{(T' - T)^2}{a}.$$

This formula is proposed by Rankine as a rough approximation, near enough to the truth for its purpose. The value of a lies between 160 and 200.

Convection, or carrying of heat, means the transfer and diffusion of the heat in a fluid mass by means of the motion of the particles of that mass.

The conduction, properly so called, of heat through a stagnant mass of fluid is very slow in liquids, and almost, if not wholly, inappreciable in gases. It is only by the continual circulation and mixture of the particles of the fluid that uniformity of temperature can be maintained in the fluid mass, or heat transferred between the fluid mass and a solid body.

The free circulation of each of the fluids which touch the side of a solid plate is a necessary condition of the correctness of Rankine's formulae for the conduction of heat through that plate; and in these formulae it is implied that the circulation of each of the fluids by currents and eddies is such as to prevent any considerable difference of temperature between the fluid particles in contact with one side of the solid plate and those at considerable distances from it.

When heat is to be transferred by convection from one fluid to another, through an intervening layer of metal, the motions of the two fluid masses should, if possible, be in opposite directions, in order that the hottest particles of each fluid may be in communication with the hottest particles of the other, and that the minimum difference of temperature between the adjacent particles of the two fluids may be the greatest possible.

Thus, in the surface condensation of steam, by passing it through metal tubes immersed in a current of cold water or air, the cooling fluid should be made to move in the opposite direction to the condensing steam.

Transmission of Heat, through Solid Plates, from

Water to Water. (Clark, S.E.).—M. Péclet found, from experiments made with plates of wrought iron, cast iron, copper, lead, zinc, and tin, that when the fluid in contact with the surface of the plate was not circulated by artificial means, the rate of conduction was the same for different metals and for plates of the same metal of different thicknesses. But when the water was thoroughly circulated over the surfaces, and when these were perfectly clean, the quantity of transmitted heat was inversely proportional to the thickness, and directly as the difference in temperature of the two faces of the plate. When the metal surface became dull, the rate of transmission of heat through all the metals was very nearly the same.

It follows, says Clark, that the absorption of heat through metal plates is more active whilst evaporation is in progress—when the circulation of the water is more active—than while the water is being heated up to the boiling

Again, in accepting the mean temperature as that of the condensing medium, the assumption is made that the rate of condensation is in direct proportion to the temperature of the condensing water.

In order to correct and avoid any error arising from these assumptions and approximations, experiments were undertaken, in which all the conditions were constant during each test.

The pressure was maintained uniform throughout the coil, and provision was made for the free outflow of the condensed steam, in order to obtain at all times the full efficiency of the condensing surface. The condensing water was continually stirred to secure uniformity of temperature, which was regulated by means of a steam-pipe and a cold-water pipe entering the tank in which the coil was placed.

The following is a condensed statement of the results

HEAT TRANSMITTED PER SQUARE FOOT OF COOLING SURFACE, PER DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE OF TEMPERATURE. (British Thermal Units.)

Temperature of Condensing Water.	1-in. Iron Pipe: Steam inside, 60 lbs. Gauge Pressure.	1½ in. Pipe: Steam inside, 10 lbs. Pressure.	1½ in. Pipe: Steam inside, 10 lbs. Pressure.	1½ in. Pipe: Steam inside, 60 lbs. Pressure.
80	265	128	200	...
100	269	130	230	280
120	272	137	260	247
140	277	145	267	276
160	281	158	271	306
180	299	174	270	349
200	313	419

The results indicate that the heat transmitted per degree of difference of temperature in general increases as the temperature of the condensing water is increased.

The amount transmitted is much larger with the steam on the outside of the coil than with the steam inside the coil. This may be explained in part by the fact that the condensing water when inside the coil flows over the surface of conduction very rapidly, and is more efficient for cooling than when contained in a tank outside of the coil.

This result is in accordance with that found by Mr. Thomas Craddock, which indicated that the rate of cooling by transmission of heat through metallic surfaces was almost wholly dependent on the rate of circulation of the cooling medium over the surface to be cooled.

Transmission of Heat in Condenser Tubes. (*Eng'g*, Dec. 10, 1875, p. 419.)—In 1871 B. C. Nichol made experiments for determining the rate at which heat was transmitted through a condenser tube. The results went to show that the amount of heat transmitted through the walls of the tube per estimated degree of mean difference of temperature increased considerably with this difference. For example:

Estimated mean difference of temperature between inside and outside of tube, degrees Fahr. .	Vertical Tube.			Horizontal Tube		
Heat-units transmitted per hour per square foot of surface per degree of mean diff. of temp. . .	428	531	561	610	737	829

These results seem to throw doubt upon Mr. Isherwood's statement that the rate of evaporation per degree of difference of temperature is the same for all temperatures.

Mr. Thomas Craddock found that water was enormously more efficient than air for the abstraction of heat through metallic surfaces in the process of cooling. He proved that the rate of cooling by transmission of heat through metallic surfaces depends upon the rate of circulation of the cooling medium over the surface to be cooled. A tube filled with hot water, moved by rapid rotation at the rate of 50 ft. per second, through air, lost as much heat in one minute as it did in still air in 12 minutes. In water, at a velocity of 3 ft. per second, as much heat was abstracted in half a minute as was abstracted in one minute when it was at rest in the water. Mr. Craddock concluded, further, that the circulation of the cooling fluid became

greater importance as the difference of temperature on the two plates became less. (Clark, R. T. D., p. 40.)

Heat Transmission through Cast-iron Plates Filled with Nitric Acid. Experiments by R. C. Carpenter (Trans. A. S. M. E. 170) show a marked change in the conducting power of the plate (as steam to water), due to prolonged treatment with dilute nitric acid.

The action of the nitric acid, by dissolving the free iron and not the carbon, forms a protecting surface to the iron, which is composed of carbon. The following is a summary of results:

Character of Plates, each plate 8.4 in. by 5.4 in., exposed surface 27 sq. ft.	Increase in Temperature of 3.125 lbs. of Water each Minute.	Proportionate Thermal Units Transmitted for each Degree of Difference of Temperature per Square Foot per Hour.
Cast iron—untreated skin on, but clean, free from rust.	13.50	113.2
Cast iron—nitric acid, 12 sol., 9 days.	11.5	97.7
" " " 12 sol., 18 days.	9.7	80.08
" " " 12 sol., 40 days.	9.6	77.8
" " " 52 sol., 9 days.	9.93	87.0
" " " 52 sol., 40 days.	10.6	77.4
Plate of pine wood, same dimensions as the plate of cast iron.	6.33	1.9

The effect of covering cast-iron surfaces with varnish has been investigated by P. M. Chamberlain. He subjected the plate to the action of acid for a few hours, and then applied a non conducting varnish. The face only was treated. Some of his results are as follows:

Heat units per sq. ft. per hour, for each degree, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\frac{1}{2}$ in.	170.	As finished—greasy.	{	After exposure to sulphuric acid 1, water 2, then oiled, varnished, and allowed to dry for 24	
	152.	" " washed with benzine and dried.			
	169.	Oiled with lubricating oil.			
	162.	After exposure to nitric acid sixteen hours, then seed oil.)			
	106.	After exposure to hydrochloric acid twelve hours, (linseed oil.)			
	113.	After exposure to sulphuric acid 1, water 2, then oiled, varnished, and allowed to dry for 24			
117.					

Transmission of Heat through Solid Plates to or other Dry Gases to Water.

(From Clark on the Steam Engine.)—The law of the transmission of heat from hot air or other gas through metallic plates, has not been exactly determined by experiment. The general results of experiments on the evaporative action of portions of the heating surface of a steam-boiler point to the fact that the quantity of heat transmitted per degree difference of temperature is practically uniform for various differences of temperature.

The communication of heat from the gas to the plate surface is accelerated by mechanical impingement of the gaseous products on the surface.

Clark says that when the surfaces are perfectly clean, the transmission of heat through plates of metal from air or gas to water is for copper, next for brass, and next for wrought iron. But when the surfaces are dimmed or coated, the rate is the same for the different metals.

With respect to the influence of the conductivity of metals on the thickness of the plate on the transmission of heat from steam to water, Mr. Napier made experiments with small boilers of iron placed over a gas-lamp. The vessels were 5 inches in diameter and 6 inches deep. From three vessels, one of iron, one of copper, and one of brass and copper bottom, each of them 1/30 inch in thickness, the time required to evaporate to dryness, in the times as follows:

Iron Vessel.	Copper Vessel.	Iron and Copper Vessel.
19 minutes	18.5 minutes
33 "	30.75 "
50 "	44 "
35.7 "	35.83 minutes.

Boilers of iron sides 1/30 inch thick, one having a 1/4-inch copper or other a 1/2-inch lead bottom, were tested against the iron vessel, 1/30 inch thick. Equal quantities of water were evaporated in 33 1/2 minutes respectively. Taken generally, the results of experiments show that there are practically but slight differences between copper, and lead in evaporative activity, and that the activity is governed by the thickness of the bottom.

Rankine formed a like conclusion from the results of his observations on boilers of 100 horse-power each, made exactly alike, except that iron fine-tubes and the other copper fine-tubes. No difference was detected between the performances of these boilers.

The differences between the results of different experimenters are attributed to the difference of conditions under which the heat was transmitted, between water or steam and water, and between gaseous water. On one point the divergence is extreme: the rate of heat per degree of difference of temperature. Whilst from 1000 ft of heat are transmitted from water to water through iron plates of difference per square foot per hour, the quantity of heat transmitted between water and air, or other dry gas, is only about 1/10, according as the surrounding air is at rest or in movement. In a boiler, where radiant heat was brought into play, 17 units of heat are transmitted through the plates of the fire-box per degree of difference of temperature per square foot per hour.

Transfer of Heat through Plates and Tubes from Water to Air.—The transfer of heat from steam or from a plate or tube into the surrounding air is a complex operation, depending on the internal and external conductivity of the metal, the radiation from the surface, and the convection of heat in the surrounding air. Since the quantity of heat radiated from a surface is determined by the condition of the surface and with the surroundings, according to the law of Stefan, and since the heat carried away by convection is determined by the rate of the flow of the air over the surface, it is evident that it can be laid down for the total quantity of heat emitted.

It is condensed from an article on Loss of Heat from Steam-boilers, *Locomotive*, Sept. and Oct., 1892.

A steam-pipe is radiating heat constantly off into space, but at the same time is cooling also by convection. Experimental data on which to base calculations of the heat radiated and otherwise lost by steam-pipes are at present not satisfactory.

In the *Treatise on Heat* a number of results are given for the heat radiated by different substances when the temperature of the air is lower than the temperature of the radiating body. A table is given below. It is said to be based on Péclet's ex-

RADIATED PER HOUR, PER SQUARE FOOT OF SURFACE, FOR 1° FAHRENHEIT EXCESS IN TEMPERATURE.

Sheet-iron, ordinary	5662
Glass	5948
Cast iron, new	6480
Common steam-pipe, inferred	6400
Cast and sheet iron, rusted	5868
Wood, building stone, and brick	7358

periments. The temperature of the air is about 50° or 60° Fahr., and the radiating surface is more than about 30° hotter than the air, we may calculate the amount of heat given off by a given surface by assuming the amount of heat given off to be proportional to the difference in temperature between the radiating body and the air. This is "Newton's law of cooling." The difference in temperature is great, Newton's law does not hold, and the radiation is no longer proportional to the difference in temperature. It is calculated by a complex formula established experimentally, and Péclet's *Box* has computed a table from this formula, and which is given below.

FACTORS FOR REDUCTION TO DULONG'S LAW OF RADIATION

Differences in Temperature between Radiating Body and the Air.

Temperature of the Air on the Fahrenheit

Deg. Fahr.

32°	50°	59°	68°	80°	104°	122°	140°	158°	176°
1.00	1.07	1.12	1.16	1.25	1.36	1.47	1.58	1.70	1.81
1.03	1.08	1.10	1.21	1.30	1.40	1.52	1.68	1.76	1.83
1.07	1.16	1.20	1.25	1.35	1.45	1.58	1.70	1.83	1.91
1.12	1.20	1.25	1.30	1.40	1.52	1.64	1.76	1.90	2.00
1.16	1.25	1.31	1.36	1.48	1.58	1.71	1.84	1.98	2.10
1.21	1.31	1.36	1.42	1.52	1.65	1.78	1.92	2.07	2.20
1.25	1.36	1.42	1.48	1.60	1.72	1.86	2.00	2.16	2.30
1.32	1.42	1.48	1.54	1.65	1.79	1.94	2.09	2.24	2.40
1.37	1.48	1.54	1.60	1.73	1.86	2.02	2.17	2.34	2.50
1.44	1.55	1.61	1.68	1.81	1.96	2.11	2.27	2.46	2.60
1.50	1.62	1.69	1.76	1.89	2.04	2.21	2.38	2.56	2.70
1.58	1.69	1.76	1.83	1.97	2.13	2.32	2.48	2.68	2.80
1.64	1.77	1.84	1.90	2.06	2.28	2.43	2.52	2.80	2.90
1.71	1.85	1.92	2.00	2.15	2.38	2.52	2.71	2.92	3.00
1.79	1.93	2.01	2.09	2.22	2.44	2.64	2.84	3.06	3.20
1.89	2.03	2.12	2.20	2.37	2.56	2.78	2.99	3.22	3.40
1.98	2.13	2.22	2.31	2.49	2.69	2.90	3.12	3.33	3.50
2.07	2.23	2.33	2.42	2.63	2.81	3.01	3.28	3.53	3.70
2.17	2.34	2.44	2.54	2.73	2.95	3.19	3.44	3.70	3.90
2.27	2.45	2.56	2.66	2.86	3.09	3.35	3.60	3.88	4.10
2.39	2.57	2.68	2.79	3.00	3.24	3.51	3.78	4.06	4.30
2.50	2.70	2.81	2.93	3.15	3.40	3.68	3.97	4.26	4.50
2.63	2.84	2.95	3.07	3.31	3.51	3.87	4.12	4.48	4.70
2.76	2.98	3.10	3.23	3.47	3.76	4.10	4.32	4.61	4.90

The loss of heat by convection appears to be independent of the surface, that is, it is the same for iron, stone, wood, and other. It is different for bodies of different shape, however, and it varies with the position of the body. Thus a vertical steam-pipe will not lose so much by convection as a horizontal one will; for the air heated at the bottom of the vertical pipe will rise along the surface of the pipe, producing some extent from the chilling action of the surrounding cooler air. For similar reason the shape of a body has an important influence on the loss of heat; those bodies losing most heat whose forms are such as to allow of the free access to every part of their surface. The following table gives the number of heat units that horizontal cylinders or pipes lose by convection per square foot of surface per hour, for one degree of difference in temperature between the pipe and the air.

HEAT UNITS LOST BY CONVECTION FROM HORIZONTAL PIPES, PER SQUARE FOOT OF SURFACE PER HOUR, FOR A TEMPERATURE DIFFERENCE OF 1° FAHR.

External Diameter of Pipe in inches.	Heat Units Lost.	External Diameter of Pipe in inches.	Heat Units Lost.	External Diameter of Pipe in inches.
2	0.728	7	0.569	18
3	0.626	8	0.544	24
4	0.574	9	0.539	36
5	0.544	10	0.482	48
6	0.503	12	0.472	

Convection is nearly proportional to the surface of the hot body and the air; but the surface of the hot body is not

and Péciot show that this is not exactly true, and we may here also have a table of factors for correcting the results obtained by simple rule.

FACTORS FOR REDUCTION TO DULONG'S LAW OF CONVECTION.

Temp. of Hot Body	Factor.	Difference in Temp. between Hot Body and Air.	Factor.	Difference in Temp. between Hot Body and Air.	Factor.
212° F.	0.94	180° F.	1.62	342° F.	1.87
214°	1.11	198°	1.65	360°	1.90
216°	1.29	216°	1.68	378°	1.93
218°	1.30	234°	1.72	396°	1.94
220°	1.37	252°	1.74	414°	1.96
222°	1.43	270°	1.77	432°	1.98
224°	1.49	288°	1.80	450°	2.00
226°	1.53	306°	1.83	468°	2.03
228°	1.58	324°	1.85

IN THE USE OF THE TABLES.—Required the total loss of heat by radiation and convection, per foot of length of a steam-pipe 2 11/32 in. diameter, steam pressure 60 lbs., temperature of the air in the room 68° Fahr.

Temperature corresponding to 60 lbs. equals 307°; temperature difference = 239°.

Linear loss per foot length of steam-pipe = $2 \frac{11}{32} \times 3.1416 \div 12 = 0.614$ sq.

radiated per hour per square foot per degree of difference, from table = 1.93.

Linear loss per hour by Newton's law = $239^\circ \times .614 \text{ ft.} \times .64 = 93.9$

Same reduced to conform with Dulong's law of radiation: factor is for temperature difference of 239° and temperature of air 68° = $1.93 \times 1.93 = 181.2$ heat units, total loss by radiation.

Linear loss per square foot per hour from a 2 11/32-inch pipe: by linear loss from table, $3'' = .724$, $3'' = .626$, $2 \frac{11}{32}'' = .693$.

$.614 \times .693 \times 239^\circ = 101.7$ heat units. Same reduced to conform with law of convection: 101.7×1.73 (from table) = 175.9 heat units per linear foot per hour. Total loss by radiation and convection = $181.2 + 175.9 = 357.1$ heat units per hour. Loss per degree of difference of temperature per linear foot per hour = $357.1 \div 239 = 1.494$ heat units = 2.433 per sq. ft.

As claimed, says *The Locomotive*, that the results obtained by this calculation are strictly accurate. The experimental data are not sufficient to allow us to compute the heat-loss from steam-pipes with any great refinement; yet it is believed that the results obtained as above will be sufficiently near the truth for most purposes. As put by Prof. Ordway, in a pipe 2 11/32 in. diam. under the above conditions (Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 73), showed a condensation of steam of 181 lb. per hour, which is equivalent to a loss of heat of 359.7 heat units, or within half of one per cent of that given by the above calculation.

According to different authorities, the quantity of heat given off by steam radiators in ordinary practice of heating of buildings by radiation varies from 1.8 to about 3 heat units per hour per square foot per degree of difference of temperature.

The first figure is calculated from the following statement by Robinson in his paper on "American Practice in Warming Buildings" (Proc. Inst. C. E., 1882, vol. lxxv): "Each 100 sq. ft. of radiator will give off 3 Fahr. heat units per minute for each degree F. of temperature between the radiating surface and the air in which it is used."

Where 2 1/2 heat units is given by the Nason Manufacturing Catalogue, and 2 to 2 1/4 are given by many recent authorities. For ordinary temperature difference in low pressure heating, $100^\circ = 140^\circ \text{ F.}$, 1 lb. steam condensed from 214°

same temperature gives up 965.7 heat units. A loss of 2 heat units per ft. per hour per degree of difference, under these conditions, is equal to $2 \times 142 + 965 = 0.3$ lbs. of steam condensed per hour per sq. ft. of surface. (See also Heating and Ventilation.)

Transmission of Heat through Walls, etc., of Buildings. (Nason Manufacturing Co.) (See also Heating and Ventilation.)—Air has the remarkable property of passing through moderate thicknesses and gases without appreciable loss, so that air is not warmed by heat, but by contact with surfaces that have absorbed the radiation.

POWERS OF DIFFERENT SUBSTANCES FOR TRANSMITTING HEAT.

Window-glass	1000	Bricks, rough.....	200
Oak or walnut.....	66	Bricks, whitewashed....	200
White pine	80	Granite or slate.....	1000
Pitch-pine.....	100	Sheet iron.....	1000
Lath or plaster	75 to 100		

A square foot of glass will cool 1.279 cubic feet of air from the temperature inside to that outside per minute, and outside wall surface is generally estimated at one fifth of the rate of glass in cooling effect.

Box, in his "Practical Treatise on Heat," gives a table of the conducting powers of materials prepared from the experiments of Péclet. It gives quantity of heat in units transmitted per square foot per hour in a plate one inch in thickness, the two surfaces differing in temperature 1 degree.

Fine-grained gray marble.....	28.00
Coarse-grained white marble.....	22.4
Stone, calcareous, fine.....	16.2
Stone, calcareous, ordinary.....	13.6
Baked clay, brickwork.....	4.80
Brick-dust, sifted.....	1.33

Hood, in his "Warming and Ventilating of Buildings," p. 940, gives results of M. Depretz, which, placing the conducting power of marble at 28, give .488 as the value for firebrick.

THERMODYNAMICS.

Thermodynamics, the science of heat considered as a form of energy, is useful in advanced studies of the theory of steam, gas, and engine, refrigerating machines, compressed air, etc. The method of treatment adopted by the standard writers is severely mathematical and constant application of the calculus. The student will find the subject thoroughly treated in the recent works by Rontgen (Dulais's translation), Wood, and Penbody.

First Law of Thermodynamics.—Heat and mechanical energy are mutually convertible in the ratio of about 778 foot-pounds for the thermal unit. (Wood.) Heat is the living force or *vis viva* due to the molecular motions of the molecules of bodies, and this living force is stated or measured in units of heat or in foot-pounds, a unit of British measures being equivalent to 772 [778] foot-pounds. (Trowbridge, Trans. A. S. M. E., VII. 737.)

Second Law of Thermodynamics.—The second law has been stated by different writers in a variety of ways, and apparently not so diverse as not to cover a common principle. (Wood, Therm. p. 23.)

It is impossible for a self-acting machine, unaided by any external source, to convert heat from one body to another at a higher temperature. (Clausius.)

If all the heat absorbed be at one temperature, and that rejected be at one lower temperature, then will the heat which is transmitted into the sink to the entire heat absorbed in the same ratio as the difference between the absolute temperature of the source and refrigerator is to the absolute temperature of the source. In other words, the second law is an expression of the efficiency of the perfect elementary engine. (Wood.)

The living force, or *vis viva*, of a body called heat, is always proper to the absolute temperature of the body. (Trowbridge.)

The expression $\frac{Q_1 - Q_2}{T_1}$ may be called the symbol of the algebraic expression of the second law,—the law which limits the quantity of heat which does not depend on the nature of the substance. (Trowbridge.) Q_1 and T_1 = quantity and

of the heat received, Q_1 and T_1 = quantity and absolute temperature of the heat rejected.

tion $\frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1}$ represents the efficiency of a perfect heat engine which takes all its heat at the absolute temperature T_1 , and rejects heat at temperature T_2 , converting into work the difference between the heat received and rejected.

What is the efficiency of a perfect heat engine which receives heat at 358° F. (the temperature of steam of 300 lbs. gauge pressure) and rejects heat at 100° F. (temperature of a condenser, pressure 1 lb. above

$$\frac{358 + 459.2 - (100 + 459.2)}{358 + 459.2} = 34\%, \text{ nearly.}$$

A perfect heat engine this efficiency can never be attained, for the difference between the quantity of heat received into the cylinder and that rejected into the condenser is not all converted into work, much of it being lost by leakage, etc. In the steam engine the phenomenon of cylinder condensation also tends to reduce the efficiency.

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF GASES.

For all matter on this subject will be found under Heat, Air, Gas, and

A mass of gas is enclosed in a vessel it exerts a pressure against the walls. This pressure is uniform on every square inch of the surface of the vessel, at any point in the fluid mass the pressure is the same in every

vessels containing gases the increase of pressure due to weight is neglected, since all gases are very light; but where liquids are concerned the increase in pressure due to their weight must always be taken into account.

tion of Gases, Mariotte's Law. — The volume of a gas varies in the same ratio as the pressure upon it is increased. This law is by experiment found to be very nearly true for all gases, and is known as Boyle's or Mariotte's law.

pressure at a volume v , and p_1 = pressure at a volume v_1 , $p_1 v_1 = p v$; $p v$ = a constant.

constant, C , varies with the temperature, everything else remaining

expressed by a pressure of seventy-five atmospheres has a volume less than that computed from Boyle's law, but this is the greatest deviation that is found below 100 atmospheres pressure.

Charles. — The volume of a perfect gas at a constant pressure varies directly with its absolute temperature. If v_0 be the volume of a gas at 32° F. and v_1 the volume at any other temperature, t_1 , then

$$v_1 = v_0 \left(\frac{t_1 + 459.2}{491.2} \right); \quad v_1 = \left(1 + \frac{t_1 - 32}{491.2} \right) v_0,$$

or $v_1 = [1 + 0.002036(t_1 - 32)] v_0.$

pressure also change from p_0 to p_1 ,

$$v_1 = v_0 \frac{p_0}{p_1} \left(\frac{t_1 + 459.2}{491.2} \right).$$

Properties of Gases and Vapors are simply proportional to the weights.

Avogadro's Law. — Equal volumes of all gases, under the same conditions of temperature and pressure, contain the same number of molecules.

The weight of a gas in pounds per cubic foot at 32° F., multiply the molecular weight of the gas by .00559. Thus 1 cu. ft. marsh-gas, CH_4 ,

$$= \frac{16 + 4}{2} \times .00559 = .0447 \text{ lb.}$$

When a certain volume of hydrogen combines with one half its volume of oxygen, there is produced an amount of water vapor which will occupy the same volume as that which was occupied by the hydrogen gas when at the same temperature and pressure.

Saturation-point of Vapors.—A vapor that is not near its saturation-point behaves like a gas under changes of temperature and pressure, but if it is sufficiently compressed or cooled, it reaches a point where it begins to condense; it then no longer obeys the same laws as a gas. The pressure cannot be increased by diminishing the size of the vessel which contains it, but remains constant, except when the temperature is changed. Only gas that can prevent a liquid evaporating seems to be its own vapor.

Dalton's Law of Gaseous Pressures.—Every portion of gas enclosed in a vessel contributes to the pressure against the walls of the vessel the same amount that it would have exerted by itself if no other gas were present.

Mixtures of Vapors and Gases.—The pressure exerted by the interior of a vessel by a given quantity of a perfect gas enclosed is the sum of the pressures which any number of parts into which the gas might be divided would exert separately, if each were enclosed in a vessel of the same bulk alone, at the same temperature. Although this is not exactly true for any actual gas, it is very nearly true for most gases. For example, if 0.080728 lb. of air at 32° F., being enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot of capacity, exerts a pressure of one atmosphere or 14.7 pounds, on each square inch of the interior of the vessel, then will each additional 0.080728 lb. of air, which is enclosed, at 32°, in the same vessel, produce very nearly an additional atmosphere of pressure. The same law is applicable to mixtures of gases of different kinds. For example, 0.13344 lb. of carbonic acid at 32°, being enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot in capacity, exerts a pressure of one atmosphere; consequently, if 0.080728 lb. of air and 0.13344 lb. of carbonic acid, mixed, be enclosed at the temperature of 32°, in a vessel of one cubic foot of capacity, the mixture will exert a pressure of two atmospheres. As a second example: Let 0.080728 lb. of air, at 212°, be enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot; it will exert a pressure of

$$\frac{212 + 459.2}{32 + 459.2} = 1.366 \text{ atmospheres.}$$

Let 0.03797 lb. of steam, at 212°, be enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot; it will exert a pressure of one atmosphere. Consequently, if 0.080728 lb. of air and 0.03797 lb. of steam be mixed and enclosed together, at 212°, in a vessel of one cubic foot, the mixture will exert a pressure of 2.366 atmospheres. This is a common but erroneous practice in elementary books on physics to describe this law as constituting a difference between mixed and homogeneous gases; whereas it is obvious that for mixed and homogeneous gases the pressure is exactly the same, viz., that the pressure of the whole gaseous mass is the sum of the pressures of all its parts. This is the law of mixtures of gases and vapors.

A second law is that the presence of a foreign gaseous substance in contact with the surface of a solid or liquid does not affect the density of the vapor of that solid or liquid unless there is a tendency to chemically combine between the two substances, in which case the density of the vapor is slightly increased. (Rankine, S. E., p. 339.)

Flow of Gases.—By the principle of the conservation of energy, it can be shown that the velocity with which a gas under pressure will escape from a vacuum is inversely proportional to the square root of its density. Thus, oxygen, which is sixteen times as heavy as hydrogen, would, under the same circumstances, escape through an opening only one fourth as fast as the latter gas.

Absorption of Gases by Liquids.—Many gases are readily absorbed by water. Other liquids also possess this power in a greater or less degree. Water will for example, absorb its own volume of carbonic gas, 430 times its volume of ammonia, 2½ times its volume of chlorine, and only about 1/20 of its volume of oxygen.

The weight of gas that is absorbed by a given volume of liquid is proportional to the pressure. But as the volume of a mass of gas is less when the pressure is greater, the volume which a given amount of liquid can absorb at a given temperature will be constant, whatever the pressure. Thus, water can absorb its own volume of carbonic acid gas at 1 atmosphere; it will also dissolve its own volume if the pressure is 2 atmospheres; and if in that case the gas will be twice as dense, and consequently only half as much of gas is dissolved.

AIR.

of Air.—Air is a mechanical mixture of the gases oxygen 27 parts O and 72.3 parts N by volume, 23 parts O and 77 parts

pure air at 32° F. and a barometric pressure of 29.92 inches 14.6963 lbs. per sq. in., or 2116.3 lbs. per sq. ft., is .080724 lb. per

cubic foot of 1 lb. = 12.387 cu. ft. At any other temperature and

pressure its weight in lbs. per cubic foot is $W = \frac{1.3253 \times P}{459.2 + T}$

where P = height of the barometer, T = temperature Fahr., and 1.3253 =

weight of 1 cu. ft. of air at 0° F. and one inch barometric pressure.

It is 2 of its volume at 32° F. for every increase of 1° F., and

is inversely as the pressure.

Density, and Pressure of Air at Various Temperatures. (D. K. Clark.)

Air at Atmos. Pressure.		Density, lbs. per Cubic Foot at Atmos. Pressure.	Pressure at Constant Volume.	
Feet lb.	Comparative Vol.		Lbs. per Sq. In.	Comparative Press.
30	.881	.086331	12.06	.881
35	.943	.080728	13.86	.943
40	.958	.079439	14.08	.958
45	.977	.077884	14.36	.977
50	1.000	.076097	14.70	1.000
55	1.015	.074950	14.92	1.015
60	1.034	.073565	15.21	1.034
65	1.051	.072240	15.43	1.051
70	1.073	.070942	15.77	1.073
75	1.092	.069721	16.05	1.092
80	1.111	.068500	16.33	1.111
85	1.130	.067381	16.61	1.130
90	1.149	.066221	16.89	1.149
95	1.168	.065155	17.19	1.168
100	1.187	.064089	17.50	1.187
105	1.206	.063089	17.76	1.206
110	1.226	.062060	18.02	1.226
115	1.244	.061021	18.24	1.244
120	1.263	.059913	18.46	1.263
125	1.287	.059135	18.92	1.287

Barometer consists of a long vertical glass tube, closed at open at the lower end, containing air, provided with a scale, along with a thermometer, in a transparent liquid, such as water, in a strong cylinder of glass, which communicates with the atmosphere in which the pressure is to be ascertained. The scale shows the height of the air in the tube.

Barometer volume, at the temperature of 32° Fahrenheit, and mean atmospheric pressure, p_0 ; let v_1 be the volume of the air at the temperature t , and the absolute pressure to be measured p_1 ; then

$$p_1 = \frac{(t + 459.2) p_0 v_0}{491.2 v_1}$$

Pressure of the Atmosphere at Different Altitudes.

At sea-level the pressure of the air is 14.7 pounds per sq. in. Above the sea-level it is 14.02 pounds; at 1 mile, 12.02; at $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile, 11.42; at $1\frac{3}{4}$ mile, 10.82.

miles, 9.80 pounds per square inch. For a rough approximation assume that the pressure decreases $\frac{1}{2}$ pound per square inch for every foot of ascent.

It is calculated that at a height of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles above the sea-level weight of a cubic foot of air is only one half what it is at the surface of the earth, at seven miles only one fourth, at fourteen miles only one eighth, at twenty-one miles only one sixteenth, and at a height of one hundred and five miles it becomes so attenuated as to have no appreciable weight.

The pressure of the atmosphere increases with the depth of shaft, to about one inch rise in the barometer for each 900 feet increase in depth; this may be taken as a rough-and-ready rule for ascertaining the depth of shafts.

Pressure of the Atmosphere per Square Inch and Square Foot at Various Readings of the Barometer.

RULE.—Barometer in inches $\times .4908$ = pressure per square inch;
barometer in inches $\times 144$ = pressure per square foot.

Barometer.	Pressure per Sq. In.	Pressure per Sq. Ft.	Barometer.	Pressure per Sq. In.	Pressure per Sq. Ft.
in.	lbs.	lbs.*	in.	lbs.	lbs.*
28.00	13.74	1978	29.75	14.60	2102
28.25	13.80	1985	30.00	14.72	2121
28.50	13.98	2013	30.25	14.84	2140
28.75	14.11	2031	30.50	14.96	2159
29.00	14.28	2049	30.75	15.09	2178
29.25	14.35	2066	31.00	15.21	2197
29.50	14.47	2083			

* Decimals omitted.

For lower pressures see table of the Properties of Steam.

Barometric Readings corresponding with Different Altitudes, in French and English Measures.

Altitude.	Reading of Barometer.	Altitude.	Reading of Barometer.	Altitude.	Reading of Barometer.	Altitude.
meters.	mm.	feet.	inches.	meters.	mm.	feet.
0	762	0.	30.	1147	600	3763.2
21	760	68.9	29.92	1209	650	4283.3
137	750	446.7	29.52	1393	640	4528.3
234	740	767.7	29.18	1519	630	4904.1
342	730	1122.1	28.74	1647	620	5403.2
459	720	1486.2	28.38	1777	610	5820.2
584	710	1850.4	27.95	1909	600	6246.3
678	700	2224.5	27.55	2043	590	6702.9
793	690	2599.7	27.16	2180	580	7172.4
909	680	2966.1	26.77	2318	570	7665.1
1027	670	3369.5	26.38	2460	560	8071.

Levelling by the Barometer and by Boiling.

(Traverse.)—Many circumstances combine to render the use of this kind of levelling unreliable where great accuracy is required. It is to read off from an aneroid (the kind of barometer usually employed for engineering purposes) to within from two to five or six feet, depending on its size. The moisture or dryness of the air affects the results; also the vicinity of mountains, and the daily atmospheric tides, which are incessant and irregular fluctuations in the barometer. A barometer will often vary $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch within a few hours.

—The difference of elevation of nearly 100 feet. No form of levelling shall embrace these sources of error.

Find the Difference in Altitude of Two Places.—Take the table the altitudes opposite to the two boiling temperatures, or to the barometer readings. Subtract the one opposite the lower reading from that opposite the upper reading. The remainder will be the required height as a rough approximation. To correct this, add together the two barometer readings, and divide the sum by 2, for their mean. From the corrections for temperature, take out the number under this mean, for the approximate height just found by this number. At 32° F. pure water will boil at 1° less of temperature for an average of 500 feet of elevation above sea-level, up to a height of 1 1/2 a mile. At a height of 1 mile, 1° of boiling temperature will correspond to about 550 feet of elevation. In the table the mean of the temperatures at the two places is assumed to be 32° F., at which no correction for temperature is necessary in using the table.

Barom. in.	Altitude above Sea-level, feet.	Boiling- point in deg. Fah.	Barom. in.	Altitude above Sea-level, feet.	Boiling- point in deg. Fah.	Barom. in.	Altitude above Sea-level, feet.
16.79	15,221	196	21.71	8,481	208	27.73	2,063
17.16	14,619	197	22.17	7,932	208.5	28.00	1,800
17.54	14,075	198	22.64	7,381	209	28.29	1,539
17.93	13,498	199	23.11	6,843	209.5	28.56	1,290
18.32	12,934	200	23.59	6,304	210	28.85	1,035
18.72	12,367	201	24.08	5,764	210.5	29.15	754
19.13	11,799	202	24.59	5,225	211	29.42	519
19.54	11,243	203	25.08	4,687	211.5	29.71	255
19.96	10,685	204	25.59	4,169	212	30.00	S. L. = 0
20.39	10,127	205	26.11	3,642	212.5	30.30	-261
20.82	9,570	206	26.64	3,115	213	30.59	-511
21.26	9,031	207	27.18	2,580			

CORRECTIONS FOR TEMPERATURE.

Temp. F. in shade.	0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°	100°
to be by	.033	.554	.975	.906	1.016	1.036	1.068	1.079	1.100	1.121	1.142

Moisture in the Atmosphere.—Atmospheric air always contains a quantity of carbonic acid gas and a varying quantity of aqueous vapour. Pure mountain air contains about 3 to 4 parts of carbonic acid in 100 parts of air. A properly ventilated room should contain not more than six parts

of degree of saturation or relative humidity of the air is determined by the difference of the dry and wet bulb thermometer. The degree of saturation for different readings of the thermometer is given in the following

INDICATIONS OF THE HYGROMETER (DRY AND WET BULB), FROM MR. GLAISHER'S OBSERVATIONS AT GREENWICH.

Temperature of Air, in deg. F.	Difference of Temperature or Degrees of Cold in the Wet- bulb Thermometer.																							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Degrees of Humidity, Saturation being 100.																							
87	75																							
92	85	78	72	66	60	54	49	44	40	36	33	30	27											
93	86	80	74	69	64	59	54	50	46	42	39	36	33	30	27	25								
94	88	82	77	72	67	62	58	54	50	47	44	41	38	35	32	30	26	24						
94	89	84	79	74	69	65	61	57	54	51	48	45	42	39	36	34	32	30	28	26	24	23	22	
95	90	85	80	76	72	68	64	60	57	54	51	48	45	42	40	38	35	33	31	29	27	25	23	22
95	90	85	81	77	73	70	66	62	59	56	53	50	47	45	43	41	38	36	34	32	30	28	26	25

Weights of Air, Vapor of Water, and Saturated Mixture of Air and Vapor at Different Temperatures, at the Ordinary Atmospheric Pressure of 29.92 inches of Mercury.

Temperature, Fahrenheit.	Weight of a Cubic Ft. of Dry Air at Different Temperatures, lbs.	Elastic Force of Vapor, Inches of Mercury.	MIXTURES OF AIR SATURATED WITH VAPOR.			
			Elastic Force of the Air in Mixture of Air and Vapor, Inches of Mercury.	Weight of Cubic Foot of the Mixture of Air and Vapor.		
				Weight of the Air, lbs.	Weight of the Vapor, pounds.	Total Weight of Mixture, pounds.
0°	.0864	.044	29.877	.0863	.000070	.08637
10	.0843	.074	29.849	.0840	.000130	.08413
20	.0824	.118	29.803	.0821	.000232	.08233
30	.0807	.181	29.740	.0802	.000394	.08060
40	.0791	.267	29.654	.0784	.000440	.07884
50	.0776	.388	29.543	.0766	.000627	.07723
60	.0761	.556	29.395	.0747	.000881	.07561
70	.0747	.785	29.196	.0727	.001221	.07391
80	.0733	1.093	28.929	.0706	.001637	.07226
90	.0720	1.501	28.420	.0684	.002250	.07065
100	.0707	2.036	27.885	.0659	.003097	.06905
110	.0694	2.791	27.190	.0631	.003946	.06706
120	.0682	3.621	26.300	.0599	.005142	.06508
130	.0671	4.752	25.169	.0564	.006339	.06303
140	.0660	6.105	23.756	.0524	.008473	.06097
150	.0649	7.930	21.991	.0477	.010716	.05848
160	.0638	10.099	19.822	.0423	.013415	.05575
170	.0628	12.798	17.103	.0360	.016692	.05269
180	.0618	15.990	13.901	.0288	.020536	.04933
190	.0609	19.828	10.093	.0205	.025542	.04559
200	.0600	24.450	5.471	.0109	.030545	.04145
212	.0591	29.921	0.000	.0000	.036820	.03682

The weight in lbs. of the vapor mixed with 100 lbs. of pure air at the given temperature and pressure is given by the formula

$$\frac{62.3 \times E}{29.92 - E} \times \frac{29.92}{p}$$

where E = elastic force of the vapor at the given temperature, in inches of mercury; p = absolute pressure in inches of mercury, = 29.92 for atmospheric pressure.

Specific Heat of Air at Constant Volume and at Constant Pressure.—Volume of 1 lb. of air at 32° F. and pressure of 14.7 lb. in. = 12.387 cu. ft. = a column 1 sq. ft. area \times 12.387 ft. high. Raising at 1° F. expands it $\frac{1}{491.2}$, or to 12.4122 ft. high—a rise of .0235 ft.

Work done = 2116 lbs. per sq. ft. \times .02352 = 53.37 foot-pounds, or = .0696 heat units.

The specific heat of air at constant pressure, according to Regnault, is .2475; but this includes the work of expansion, or .0686 heat unit; the specific heat at constant volume = .2475 - .0686 = 0.1689.

Ratio of specific heat at constant pressure to specific heat at constant volume = .2475 \div .1689 = 1.465. (See Specific Heat, p. 458.)

Flow of Air through Orifices.—The theoretical velocity per second of flow of any fluid, liquid, or gas through an orifice

$\sqrt{2gh}$ = $8.02 \sqrt{h}$, in which h = the "head" or height of the fluid required to produce the pressure of the fluid at the level of the orifice.

\therefore flow in cubic feet per second is equal to the

by the area of the orifice, in square feet, multiplied by a "coefficient of flow," which takes into account the contraction of the vein of flow, the friction of the orifice, etc.

Flow through an orifice or short tube, from a reservoir of the pressure p_1 . Weisbach gives the following coefficient of flow, obtained from his experiments.

FLOW OF AIR THROUGH AN ORIFICE.

Coefficient c in formula $v = c \sqrt{2gh}$.

	Ratio of pressures $p_1 + p_2$	1.05	1.09	1.43	1.65	1.89	2.15
2.	Coefficient	.555	.589	.692	.724	.754	.788
	Ratio of pressures	1.05	1.09	1.36	1.67	2.01	...
2.5	Coefficient	.568	.573	.634	.678	.723	...

FLOW OF AIR THROUGH A SHORT TUBE.

	Ratio of pressures $p_1 + p_2$	1.05	1.10	1.30
1.	Coefficient	.730	.771	.890
1.5	Ratio of pressures	1.41	1.69
1.5	Coefficient	.813	.822
2.	Ratio of pressures	1.34	1.38	1.59	1.85	2.14	...
2.5	Coefficient	.979	.986	.965	.971	.978	...

EQUATIONS FOR FLOW OF AIR FROM A RESERVOIR THROUGH AN ORIFICE. (Peebody's Thermodynamics, p. 145.)

$$\text{For } p_1 > 2p_0, \quad G = 0.590 F \frac{p_1}{\sqrt{T_1}};$$

$$p_1 < 2p_0, \quad G = 1.060 F \sqrt{p_0 \left(\frac{p_1}{T_1} - \frac{p_0}{T_1} \right)};$$

air through the orifice in lbs. per sec., F = area of orifice in sq. in.; p_1 = absolute pressure in reservoir in lbs. per sq. in.; p_0 = pressure of air in atmosphere; T_1 = absolute temperature, Fahr., of air in reservoir. See Tables, and Data, p. 891 gives, for the velocity of flow of air through an orifice due to small differences of pressure,

$$V = C \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{12} \times 773.2 \times \left(1 + \frac{t - 32}{493} \right) \times \frac{29.92}{p}};$$

simplified,

$$V = 352 C \sqrt{\left(1 + .00203(t - 32) \right) \frac{h}{p}};$$

V = velocity in feet per second; $2g = 64.4$; h = height of the column of air, in feet, measuring the difference of pressure; t = the temperature in Fahr.; p = barometric pressure in inches of mercury. 773.2 is the weight of air at 32° under a pressure of 29.92 inches of mercury when that of water is taken as 1.

The formula becomes $V = 352 C \sqrt{\frac{h}{p}}$, and if $p = 29.92$ inches $V =$

coefficient of efflux C , according to Weisbach, is:

at mouthpiece, of form of the contracted vein,	
measures of from 23 to 1.1 atmospheres	$C = .97$ to $.99$
tees in thin plates	$C = .56$ to $.59$
fixed mouthpieces	$C = .81$ to $.84$
rounded at the inner end	$C = .92$ to $.94$
tearing mouthpieces	$C = .90$ to $.92$

Flow of Air in Pipes.—Hawkesley (Proc. Inst. C. E., xxxix, 1877)

his formula for flow of water in pipes $v = 48 \sqrt{\frac{Hh}{L}}$ may also

be used for flow of air. In this case H = height in feet of a column of air to produce the pressure causing the flow, or the loss

for a given flow; v = velocity in feet per second, D = diameter in feet, length in feet.

If the head is expressed in inches of water, h , the air being at 62° F., its weight per cubic foot at atmospheric pressure = .0761 lb., $H = \frac{62.36}{.0761 \times 12} = 68.3h$. If d = diameter in inches, $D = \frac{d}{12}$, and the formula

becomes $v = 114.5 \sqrt{\frac{hd}{L}}$, in which h = inches of water column, d =

diameter in inches and L = length in feet; $h = \frac{Lv^2}{13110d}$; $d = \frac{Lv^2}{13110h}$.

The quantity in cubic feet per second is

$$Q = .5854 \frac{d^3}{144} v = .6245 \sqrt{\frac{hd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 L}{.89h}}; \quad h = \frac{Q^2 L}{.89d^5}.$$

The horse-power required to drive air through a pipe is the volume in cubic feet per second multiplied by the pressure in pounds per square foot and divided by 550. Pressure in pounds per square foot = P = head of water column $\times 5.196$, whence horse-power =

$$HP. = \frac{QP}{550} = \frac{Qh}{106.9} = \frac{Q^2 L}{41.3d^5}.$$

If the head or pressure causing the flow is expressed in pounds per inch = p , then $h = 27.71p$, and the above formulae become

$$v = 602.7 \sqrt{\frac{pd}{L}}; \quad p = \frac{Lv^2}{363,300d}; \quad d = \frac{Lv^2}{363,300p};$$

$$Q = 3.987 \sqrt{\frac{pd^5}{L}}; \quad p = \frac{Q^2 L}{10,800d^5}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 L}{10,800p}};$$

$$HP. = \frac{Q144p}{550} = .2618Qp = .02421 \frac{Q^2 L}{d^5}.$$

Volume of Air Transmitted in Cubic Feet per Minute Pipes of Various Diameters.

$$\text{Formula } Q = \frac{.754}{144} d^2 v \times 60.$$

Actual Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

Feet Velocity ft. per sec.	1	2	3	4	5	6	8	10	12	16	20
1	.327	1.31	2.95	5.24	8.18	11.78	20.94	32.78	47.13	83.77	130
2	.655	3.62	5.89	10.47	16.36	23.56	41.80	65.45	94.25	167.5	261
3	.982	3.93	8.84	15.7	24.5	35.3	62.8	98.2	141.6	251.3	392
4	1.31	5.24	11.78	20.9	32.7	47.1	83.8	131	183	325	504
5	1.64	6.54	14.7	26.2	41	59	104	163	225	402	604
6	1.96	7.85	17.7	31.4	49.1	70.7	125	196	283	502	750
7	2.29	9.16	20.6	36.6	57.4	82.4	146	229	330	585	866
8	2.62	10.5	23.5	41.9	65.4	94	167	262	377	670	1007
9	2.95	11.78	26.5	47	73	106	189	291	424	754	1135
10	3.27	13.1	29.4	52	82	118	209	327	471	835	1269
12	3.93	15.7	35.3	63	98	141	251	393	565	1000	1511
15	4.91	19.6	44.2	78	122	177	314	491	707	1256	1883
18	5.89	23.5	53	94	147	212	357	559	818	1508	2266
20	6.54	26.2	59	105	164	235	419	654	942	1675	2504
25	7.85	31.4	71	125	196	283	502	751	1131	2010	2991
30	9.16	36.6	83	146	229	329	585	878	1278	2301	3422
40	11.78	47	106	189	291	424	754	1135	1675	2991	4422
50	14.7	59	125	212	357	559	942	1416	2125	3770	5504
60	17.7	70.7	147	235	419	654	1131	1707	2513	4422	6504
70	20.6	82.4	167	262	471	751	1278	1960	2835	5044	7504
80	23.5	94	183	283	502	818	1416	2125	3146	5666	8372
90	26.5	106	201	306	532	878	1511	2266	3377	6000	8966
100	29.4	118	218	327	562	942	1636	2422	3619	6466	9600

The formula and its derivatives the numerical coefficients are scarcely possible, however, that they can be accurate except a range of conditions. In the case of water it is found that of friction, on which the loss of head depends, varies with the diameter of the pipe, and with the velocity, as well as with the interior surface. In the case of air and other gases we find, the decrease in density and consequent increase in volume due to the progressive loss of head from one end of the pipe

That according to the experiments of D'Aubuisson and those of omission on the resistance of air through long conduits of friction of pressure is very nearly directly as the length, and of the velocity and inversely as the diameter. The resistance of the density.

If the formulae are correct, then the formulæ $h = \frac{Lv^2}{cd}$ and $h = \frac{Q^2 L}{c'd^5}$ derivatives are correct in form, and they may be used when the coefficients c and c' are obtained by experiment.

In the forms of the above formulae as correct, and let C be a variable, depending upon the length, diameter, and condition of surface, and possibly also upon the velocity, the temperature and the density, determined by future experiments, then for h = head in feet, d = diameter in inches, L = length in feet, v = velocity in feet per second, and Q = quantity in cubic feet per second:

$$Q = \sqrt{\frac{hd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Lv^2}{C^2 h}}; \quad h = \frac{Lv^2}{C^2 d^5};$$

$$Q = \sqrt[5]{\frac{hd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{33089 Q^2 L}{C^2 h}}; \quad h = \frac{33089 Q^2 L}{C^2 d^5}.$$

Loss of pressure p in pounds per square inch,

$$Q = 171p \sqrt{\frac{pd^5}{L}}; \quad \sqrt{h} = 5.304 \sqrt{p};$$

$$Q = 171p \sqrt{\frac{pd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Lv^2}{27.71 C^2 p}}; \quad p = \frac{Lv^2}{27.71 C^2 d^5};$$

$$Q = 171p \sqrt{\frac{pd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{1213 Q^2 L}{C^2 p}}; \quad p = \frac{1213 Q^2 L}{C^2 d^5}.$$

Formulae for flow of air, see Mine Ventilation.)

Pressure in Ounces per Square Inch.—B. F. Sturtevant uses the following formulae:

$$\frac{Lv^2}{25000d}; \quad v = \sqrt{\frac{25000dp_1}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt{\frac{Lv^2}{25000p_1}};$$

Loss of pressure in ounces per square inch, v = velocity of air in feet per second, and L = length of pipe in feet. If p is taken in pounds per square inch, these formulæ reduce to

$$p = 0.000025 \frac{Lv^2}{d^5}; \quad v = \sqrt{\frac{.00158 p d^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{0.000025 Lv^2}{p}}.$$

Derived from the common formula (Weisbach's), $p = f \frac{v^2}{d} \frac{L}{2g}$, in which f is the friction coefficient.

This table is condensed from one given in the catalogue of B. F. Sturtevant.

Pressure in pipes 100 feet long, in ounces per square inch, the loss is proportional to the length.

Velocity of Air,
feet per min.

Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
600	.400	.200	.133	.100	.080	.067	.057	.050	.044	.040
1200	1.600	.800	.533	.400	.320	.267	.220	.200	.178	.160
1800	3.000	1.800	1.200	.900	.720	.600	.514	.450	.400	.360
2400	6.400	3.200	2.133	1.600	1.280	1.067	.914	.800	.711	.640
3000	10.	5.	3.333	2.5	2.	1.667	1.420	1.250	1.111	1.000
3600	14.4	7.2	4.8	3.6	2.88	2.4	2.057	1.8	1.6	1.44
4200	9.8	6.553	4.9	3.93	3.267	2.8	2.45	2.178	1.93
4800	12.6	8.533	6.4	5.12	4.267	3.657	3.2	2.844	2.56
6000	20.	13.333	10.0	8.0	6.667	5.714	5.0	4.444	4.0

Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	40
600	.029	.020	.022	.020	.018	.017	.014	.012	.011	.010
1200	.114	.100	.089	.080	.072	.067	.057	.050	.044	.040
1800	.257	.225	.200	.180	.164	.156	.129	.111	.100	.090
2400	.457	.400	.356	.320	.291	.267	.230	.200	.178	.160
3000	1.020	.900	.800	.720	.655	.600	.514	.450	.400	.360
4200	1.400	1.225	1.089	.980	.894	.817	.700	.612	.544	.500
4800	1.820	1.600	1.422	1.280	1.164	1.067	.914	.800	.711	.640
6000	2.857	2.500	2.222	2.000	1.818	1.667	1.420	1.250	1.111	1.000

Effect of Bends in Pipes. (Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

Radius of elbow, in diameter of pipe = 5 3 2 1½ 1¼ 1
 Equivalent length of straight pipe, diam 7.85 8.24 9.05 10.36 11.72 12.56

Compressed-air Transmission. (Frank Richards 4th, March 8, 1894.) The volume of free air transmitted may be assumed directly as the number of atmospheres to which the air is compressed. Thus, if the air transmitted be at 75 pounds gauge-pressure, or six atmospheres, the volume of free air will be six times the amount given in table (page 186). It is generally considered that for economical transmission the velocity in main pipes should not exceed 20 feet per second, smaller distributing pipes the velocity should be decidedly less than this.

The loss of power in the transmission of compressed air in general is a serious one, or at all to be compared with the losses of power in friction of compression and in the re-expansion or final application of it.

The formulas for loss by friction are all unsatisfactory. The observations of facts in this line are in a more or less chaotic state, and are evidently unreliable.

A statement of the friction of air flowing through a pipe involves all the following factors: Unit of time, volume of air, pressure of air, diameter of pipe, length of pipe, and the difference of pressure at the two ends of the pipe or the head required to maintain the flow. Neither of these can be allowed its independent and absolute value, but is subject to variations in reference to its associates. The flow of air being assumed uniform at the entrance to the pipe, the volume and flow are not affected after that. The air is constantly losing some of its pressure and the velocity is constantly increasing. The velocity of flow is therefore also constantly accelerated continually. This also modifies the use of the length of pipe as a constant factor.

Then, to select the fluctuating values of these factors, there is the question of the actual diameter of the pipe, especially when the nominal diameter is different from the nominal diameter. The pipe may be crooked and have numerous elbows. It may be of a size as equivalent to a length of pipe.

and or Additional Pressure in pounds per sq. in. required to deliver Air at 75 Pounds Gauge-pressure through Pipes of Various Sizes and Lengths. (Frank

1" PIPE.					4" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
50	100	300	500	1,000		200	300	400	1,000	2,000
Loss of pressure, lbs. p. sq. in.						Loss of pressure, lbs. p. sq. in.				
.245	.49	1.47	2.45	4.9	500	.16	.24	.4	.8	1.6
.881	1.902	5.886	9.81	19.6	750	.36	.54	.9	1.8	3.6
1.925	7.85	23.55	39.25	78.5	1,000	.64	.96	1.6	3.2	6.4
3.229	17.60	52.80	88.00	176.0	1,250	1.1	1.5	2.5	5.	10.
					1,500	1.44	2.16	3.6	7.2	14.4
1 1/2" PIPE.					5" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
50	100	300	500	1,000		500	1,000	2,000	4,000	5,000
.056	.112	.336	.561	1.12	500	.11	.22	.44	.88	1.1
.224	.449	1.35	2.24	4.49	1,000	.44	.88	1.76	3.52	4.4
.497	1.79	5.38	8.97	17.9	1,500	.99	1.98	3.96	7.92	9.9
2.02	3.94	12.11	20.2	40.4	2,000	1.76	3.52	7.04	14.08	17.6
3.59	7.18	21.55	35.9	71.8	2,500	2.75	5.5	11.	22.	27.5
1 3/4" PIPE.					6" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
50	100	300	500	1,000		1,000	2,000	4,000	5,000	10,000
.017	.031	.103	.171	.34	1,000	.354	.708	1.42	2.77	3.54
.008	.137	.411	.685	1.37	1,500	.709	1.399	2.79	3.99	7.99
.274	.548	1.64	2.74	5.48	2,000	1.417	2.83	5.67	7.99	14.17
.616	1.23	3.69	6.16	12.33	2,500	2.22	4.44	8.89	11.1	22.2
1.09	2.19	6.57	10.96	21.9	3,000	3.18	6.37	12.7	15.9	31.8
2" PIPE.					8" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
50	100	300	500	1,000		2,000	4,000	8,000	10,000	15,000
.019	.038	.114	.19	.38	2,000	.698	1.19	2.39	3.99	4.48
.071	.142	.427	.71	1.42	2,500	.995	1.87	3.74	4.98	7.98
.171	.343	1.03	1.71	3.43	3,000	1.417	2.83	5.67	7.99	14.17
.304	.609	1.83	3.04	6.09	3,500	2.22	4.44	8.89	11.1	22.2
.476	.952	2.86	4.76	9.52	4,000	3.18	6.37	12.7	15.9	31.8
.685	1.37	4.11	6.85	13.7						
2 1/4" PIPE.					10" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
200	300	500	1,000	2,000		2,000	4,000	8,000	10,000	15,000
.067	.13	.217	.434	.867	2,000	.698	1.19	2.39	3.99	4.48
.347	.694	2.08	3.47	6.94	2,500	.995	1.87	3.74	4.98	7.98
.781	1.57	4.71	7.81	15.6	3,000	1.25	2.49	4.99	6.24	9.36
1.39	2.78	8.37	13.9	27.8	4,000	2.39	4.79	9.58	11.97	17.97
2.17	4.35	13.05	21.7	43.5	5,000	3.54	7.08	14.17	17.71	26.66
3" PIPE.					12" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
50	100	300	500	1,000		2,500	5,000	7,500	10,000	15,000
.033	.065	.195	.33	.66	2,500	.286	.57	1.14	1.48	2.15
.133	.265	.795	1.33	2.65	3,000	.375	.75	1.5	1.99	2.99
.3	.6	1.8	3	6	4,000	.5	1.0	2.0	2.6	3.9
.53	1.05	3.15	5.3	10.5	5,000	.64	1.28	2.56	3.28	4.92
.83	1.65	4.95	8.3	16.5	7,500	.96	1.92	3.84	4.96	7.44
1.33	2.65	7.95	13.3	26.5	10,000	1.44	2.88	5.76	7.36	11.04
3 1/2" PIPE.					14" PIPE.					
Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.				
50	100	300	500	1,000		2,000	4,000	8,000	10,000	20,000
.032	.064	.192	.32	.64	2,000	.11	.22	.44	.55	1.1
.124	.248	.744	1.24	2.48	2,500	.165	.33	.66	.825	1.65
.274	.548	1.64	2.74	5.48	3,000	.22	.44	.88	1.1	2.2
.448	.896	2.688	4.48	8.96	4,000	.275	.55	1.1	1.375	2.75
.724	1.448	4.344	7.24	14.48	5,000	.41	.82	1.64	2.05	4.1
1.12	2.24	6.72	11.2	22.4	7,500	.55	1.1	2.2	2.75	5.5
1.72	3.44	10.32	17.2	34.4	10,000	.825	1.65	3.3	4.1	8.2

through Mr. Richards does not give any formula with which it is shown that for any given diameter the

The impossibility of measuring the true quantity of air to a high degree of accuracy in one position is shown by the following figures. With Daniel, Ponce, Inst. N. E. 1875, the velocity of air found at four points in the cross-sections of two different airways was as follows:

DIFFERENCES OF ANEMOMETER READINGS IN AIRWAYS.

8 ft. square.				5.5 ft.		
1712	1725	1850	1820	1170	1200	1280
1682	1685	1782	1691	945	1004	1075
1477	1344	1524	1049	1184	1049	1102
1202	1256	1253	1333			
Average 1469				Average 1042		

Equation of Pipes.—It is frequently desired to know the volume of pipes of a given size are equal in carrying capacity to pipes of other sizes. At the same velocity of flow the volume delivered to pipes of different sizes is proportional to the squares of their diameters. Thus, a 4-inch pipe will deliver the same volume as four 2-inch pipes. With the head, however, the velocity is less in the smaller pipe, and the volume delivered varies about as the square root of the fifth power (the 2.5 power). The following table has been calculated on this basis. For the intersection of any two sizes is the number of the smaller pipes required to equal one of the larger. Thus, one 4-inch pipe is equal to 2.5 2-inch pipes.

Diam. in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	14	16	18
2	5.7	1												
3	10.6	2.8	1											
4	14.1	5.7	2.1	1										
5	15.9	9.9	3.6	1.5	1									
6	18.8	15.6	5.7	2.8	1.6	1								
7	190	22.9	8.4	4.1	2.3	1.5	1							
8	183	32	11.7	5.7	3.2	2.1	1.4	1						
9	243	43	15.6	7.6	4.3	2.8	1.9	1.3	1					
10	246	55.9	20.3	9.9	5.7	3.6	2.4	1.7	1.3	1				
11	401	70	25.7	12.5	7.2	4.6	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.3	1			
12	499	88	32.2	15.6	8.9	5.7	3.8	2.8	2.1	1.6	1.1	1		
13	609	108	40.1	19	10.9	7.1	4.7	3.4	2.6	1.9	1.2	1		
14	731	130	47	22.9	13.1	8.3	5.7	4.1	3.0	2.3	1.5	1		
15	851	154	55.9	27.2	15.6	9.9	6.7	4.8	3.6	2.8	1.7	1.2	1	
16		181	65.7	32	18	11.7	7.9	5.7	4.2	3.2	2.1	1.4	1	
17		211	76.4	37.2	22.1	13.5	9.2	6.6	4.9	3.8	2.4	1.6	1.2	1
18		243	88	43	24.6	15.6	10.6	7.6	5.7	4.3	2.8	1.9	1.3	1
19		278	101	49	28.1	17.8	12.1	8.7	6.5	5	3.2	2.1	1.5	1
20		316	115	55.9	32	20.3	13.8	9.9	7.4	5.7	3.6	2.4	1.7	1
22		401	145	70	40.6	25.7	17.5	12.5	9.3	7.2	4.6	3.1	2.2	1
24		499	181	88	50.6	32	21.8	15.6	11.6	8.9	5.7	3.8	2.8	1
25		509	221	108	61.7	39	26.6	19	14.2	10.9	7.1	4.7	3.4	2
28		571	295	139	74.2	47	32	22	17.1	13.1	8.3	5.7	4.1	2
30			315	154	88	55.9	38	27	20.3	15.6	9.9	6.7	4.8	3
32			339	173	95	60	43	32	24	18	10	7.6	5.7	4
34					101	65	47	38	28	22	15	9	6.7	5
36					115	76	55	43	32	24	18	10	7.6	5
38					128	85	59	48	36	28	22	15	9	6
40					141	95	65	53	40	31	24	18	10	7
42					154	105	70	58	44	34	26	20	13	8
44					167	115	76	63	48	38	28	22	15	9
46					180	125	82	68	52	42	32	24	18	10
48					193	135	88	73	56	46	36	28	22	15
50					206	145	95	78	60	50	40	31	24	18
52					219	155	101	83	64	54	44	34	26	20
54					232	165	108	88	68	58	48	38	28	22
56					245	175	115	93	72	62	52	42	32	24
58					258	185	122	98	76	66	56	46	36	28
60					271	195	129	103	80	70	60	50	40	31

**Pressure in Compressed Air Pipe-main, at
St. Gothard Tunnel.**
(E. Stockalper.)

ft.	atmospheric pressure and 32° F.		Volume per second of compressed air at mean density.	Mean density of compressed air. (Water = 1.)	Weight of air flowing per second.	Mean velocity in feet per second.	Observed Pressures.			Value of c' in formula $p = \frac{C' L}{Q \sqrt{d}}$
	cu. ft.	den.					Pressure at beginning of pipe.	Pressure at end of pipe.	Loss of Pressure.	
					lbs.	feet.	at.	at.	lbs. per sq. in.	%
1	6.534	.00650	2.639	19.33	5.60	5.24	5.292	6.4	610	
2	7.703	.00640	2.689	37.14	5.24	5.00	3.528	4.6	515	
3	5.509	.00514	1.776	16.30	4.35	4.13	3.344	5.1	519	
4	3.699	.00182	1.776	...	4.13	
5	5.262	.00149	1.483	15.58	3.84	3.65	2.793	5.0	496	
6	6.580	.00423	1.483	22.74	3.65	3.51	1.017	3.0	492	

If the pipe 7.87 in diameter was 15,000 ft., and of the smaller The mean temperature of the air in the large pipe was 70° F. If pipe 80° F.

WIND.

the Wind.—Smeaton in 1759 published a table of the measure of wind, as follows:

Y AND FORCE OF WIND, IN POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH.

sq. ft. pounds.	Common Appellation of the Force of Wind.	Miles per Hour.	Feet per second.	Force per sq. ft. pounds.	Common Appellation of the Force of Wind.
005	Hardly perceptible.	18	26.4	1.55	Very brisk.
020		30	39.31	1.068	
041	Just perceptible.	35	30.67	3.075	
070		40	44.01	1.429	High wind.
123	Gentle pleasant wind.	35	51.31	6.037	
177		40	58.68	7.878	
241		45	66.01	9.903	Very high storm.
315		50	73.35	12.80	
400		55	80.7	14.9	
493		60	88.02	17.71	Great Storm
594	Pleasant brisk gale.	65	95.4	20.85	
708		70	102.5	24.1	
841		75	110.	27.7	Hurricane.
107		80	117.36	31.49	
136		100	146.67	49.2	

per square foot in the above table correspond to the 05.7, in which V is the velocity in miles per hour. *Eng'g* says that the formula was never well established, and is on Smeaton's name and for lack of a better. It was put for surfaces for use in windmill practice. The trend of is that it is approximately correct only for such surfaces—large solid bodies it often gives greatly too large results. others are thus compared with Smeaton's

a formula.
ed by Prof. Martin
Whipple and Dines.

At 60 miles per hour these formulas give for the pressure 18.144 and 59.44 lbs. respectively, the pressure varying as the square of the velocity. Least Crosby's experiments (1890), claiming to prove that $P = \sqrt{V}$ instead of $P = V^2$.

A. R. Wolff, *The Windmill as a Prime Mover*, p. 9, gives as pressure per sq. ft. of surface, $P = \frac{dQv}{g}$, in which d = density

per cu. ft. = $\frac{.018743 p + P}{t}$; p being the barometric pressure

foot at any level, and temperature of 32° F., t any absolute

Q = volume of air carried along per square foot in one second

of the wind in feet per sec., $v = 32.16$. Since $Q = v$ cu. ft. per

Multiplying this by a coefficient 0.93 found by experiment, in

the above value of d , he obtains $P = \frac{0.017431 \times p}{t \times 32.16} - .018743$

= 2116.5 lbs. per sq. ft. of average atmospheric pressure at

$P = \frac{36.8029}{t \times 32.16} - 0.18743$, an expression in which the pressure is

with the temperature; and he gives a table showing the pressure and velocity for temperatures from 0° to 100° F., from 1 to 80 miles per hour. For a temperature of 15° F. (the same as in Smeaton's table, for 0° F. they are about 10 per cent. and for 100° 10 per cent. less. Prof. H. Allen Hazen, *Eng'g*, 1890, says that experiments with whirling arms, by exposing a wind, and on locomotives with velocities running up to 40 miles per hour, have invariably shown the resistance to vary with V^2 . $P = .00551 V^2$, in which P = pressure in pounds, S = surface in sq. ft., V = velocity in miles per hour, the doubtful question as to the accuracy of the first two factors in the second member of the first factor has been variously determined from .003 to .004 determined as low as .0014 — *Ed. Eng'g News*].

The second factor has been found in some experiments with whirling arms and low velocities to vary with the perimeter but this entirely disappears, with longer arms or straight lines, the only question now to be determined is the value of the coefficient, which some of the best experiments for determining this value were made in France in 1886 by carrying flat boards on trains. The result in this case was, for 44.5 miles per hour, $p = .00551 V^2$.

Mr. Crosby's whirling experiments were made with an arm 10 ft. long, it is certain that most serious effects from centrifugal action are produced by using such a short arm, and nothing satisfactory can be obtained with arms less than 20 or 30 ft. long at velocities above 5 miles per hour.

Prof. Kermel, of Melbourne (*Engineering Record*, Feb. 20, 1891), made experiments at the Forth Bridge showed that the average pressure on surfaces as large as railway carriages, houses, or bridges never exceeds one-third of that upon small surfaces of one or two square feet. He has been used at observatories, and also that an inertia effect, when overlooked, may cause some forms of anemometer to give enormously exceeding the correct indication. Experiments made by Crosby showed that the pressure varied directly as the velocity, the early investigators, from the time of Smeaton onwards, found the pressure to be proportional to the square of the velocity. Experiments made by Prof. Kermel, varying from 2 to 15 miles per hour agreed with the earlier experiments, tended to negative Crosby's results. The pressure upon one side of a block proportioned like an ordinary carriage, was found to be that upon a thin plate of the same area. The same result was obtained upon a square tower. A square pyramid, whose height was three times its base, experienced 1/3 of the pressure upon a thin plate equal to one side of its base. When an angle was turned to the wind the pressure was increased in proportion to the square of the sine of the angle. A bridge consisting of two plate-girders connected by a deck, experienced 1/2 of the pressure on a thin plate equal to one side of its base. The distance between the girders was equal to the width of the bridge, and the distance between the girders was equal to the width of the bridge.

th. A lattice-work in which the area of the openings was 55% experienced a pressure of 80% of that upon a plate of the same pressure upon cylinders and cones was proved to be equal in the diametral planes, and that upon an octagonal prism to that upon the circumscribing cylinder. A sphere was substituted of 35 of that upon a thin circular plate of equal diameter. A cup gave the same result as the sphere; when its concavity to the wind the pressure was 1.15 of that on a flat plate of equal area on a plane surface parallel to the direction of the wind was brought into contact with a cylinder or sphere, the pressure on the sphere was augmented by about 30%, owing to the lateral escape of the wind. Thus it is possible for the security of a tower or chimney by the erection of a building nearly touching it on one side.

of Wind Registered in Storms.—Mr. Frizell has published records of Greenwich Observatory from 1849 to 1860, at the highest pressure of wind he finds recorded is 41 lbs. there are numerous instances in which it was between 30 and 40. Prof. Henry says that on Mount Washington, N. H., a velocity per hour has been observed, and at New York City 60 and that the highest winds observed in 1870 were of 72 and 63 respectively.

U. S. A., says, in substance, that the New England coast storms which produce a pressure of 50 lbs. per sq. ft. *Engineering*, 20, 1880.

WINDMILLS.

Efficiency of Windmills.—Rankine, S. E., p. 315, says: Let Q = volume of air which acts on the sail, or part thereof, in feet per second, v = velocity of the wind in feet per second, A = area of the cylinder, or annular cylinder of wind, swept by the sail, or part of the sail, in one revolution, c = a coefficient found by experience; then $Q = c v A$. Rankine, from experiments by Smeaton, and taking c to include an allowance for the weight of a wheel with four sails, proportioned in the best manner, and θ = weather angle of the sail at any distance from the axis, the portion of the sail considered makes with its plane of rotation an angle which gradually diminishes from the inner end of the sail to the outer end, the velocity of the same portion of the sail, and E = the efficiency is the ratio of the useful work performed to whole stream of wind acting on the surface s of the wheel, which D being the weight of a cubic foot of air. Rankine's formula

$$\frac{Wu}{Wv^3} = c \left\{ \frac{u}{v} \sin 2A - \frac{u^3}{v^3} (1 - \cos 2A + f) - f \right\},$$

where f is a coefficient of friction found from Smeaton's data. Rankine gives the following from Smeaton's data:

Weather-angle.....	= 7°	13°	19°
Ratio of speed of greatest efficiency, for a given weather-angle, to that of the wind.....	= 2.83	1.86	1.41
Efficiency.....	= 0.34	0.29	0.31

Rankine gives the following as the best values for the angle of weather at the axis from the axis:

Sixths of total radius..	1	2	3	4	5	6
Angle.....	18°	19°	18°	16°	12½°	7°

Rankine shows that Smeaton did not term these the best angles as they "answer as well as any," possibly any that were in existence. Wolff says that they "cannot in the nature of things be the best angles." Mathematical considerations, he says, connect the angle of impulse depends on the relative velocity of the sail and the wind, the angle growing larger as the velocity of the wind increases. Smeaton's angles do not fulfil this condition.

3. The great cold which results when air expands against a forbids expansive working, which is equivalent to saying, forbids a high degree of efficiency in the use of compressed air.

4. Friction of the air in the pipes, leakage, dead spaces, the resistance of the valves, insufficiency of valve-area, inferior working, slovenly attendance, are all more or less serious causes of loss of work.

The first cause of loss of work, namely, the heat developed by compression, is entirely unavoidable. The whole of the mechanical energy of the compressor piston spends upon the air is converted into heat, is dissipated by conduction and radiation, and its mechanical work lost. The compressed air, having again reached thermal equilibrium with the surrounding atmosphere, expands and does work in its intrinsic energy.

The intrinsic energy of a fluid is the energy which it is capable of doing against a piston in changing from a given state as to temperature, volume, to a total privation of heat and indefinite expansion.

Volumes, Mean Pressures per Stroke, Temperature in the Operation of Air-compression from 1 Atmosphere and 60° Fahr. (F. Richards, *Am. Mach.*, March 30, 1893.)

Gauge-pressure.		Atmospheres.		Volume with Air at Constant Temp.		Volume with Air not cooled		Mean Pressure per Stroke; Air Constant Temp.		Mean Pressure per Stroke; Air not cooled.		Temp. of Air; not cooled.		Gauge-pressure.		Atmospheres.		Volume with Air at Constant Temp.		Volume with Air not cooled		Mean Pressure per Stroke; Air Constant Temp.		Mean Pressure per Stroke; Air not cooled.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24		
0	1	1	1	0	0	60	80	6.442	1552	266	21	80	6.442	1552	266	21	80	6.442	1552	266	21	80	6.442	1552	266
1	0.068	9963	.05	.06	.075	71	85	6.782	1474	266	21	85	6.782	1474	266	21	85	6.782	1474	266	21	85	6.782	1474	266
2	1.136	8803	.01	1.87	1.91	70	90	7.122	1404	248	20	90	7.122	1404	248	20	90	7.122	1404	248	20	90	7.122	1404	248
3	1.204	8305	.876	2.72	2.8	68	95	7.462	1341	24	19	95	7.462	1341	24	19	95	7.462	1341	24	19	95	7.462	1341	24
4	1.272	7961	.84	3.53	3.67	68	100	7.802	1281	224	18	100	7.802	1281	224	18	100	7.802	1281	224	18	100	7.802	1281	224
5	1.34	7662	.81	4.3	4.5	106	105	8.142	1228	224	17	105	8.142	1228	224	17	105	8.142	1228	224	17	105	8.142	1228	224
10	1.68	5662	.60	7.62	8.27	145	110	8.482	1178	2186	16	110	8.482	1178	2186	16	110	8.482	1178	2186	16	110	8.482	1178	2186
15	2.02	4985	.006	10.83	11.51	178	115	8.822	1133	2129	15	115	8.822	1133	2129	15	115	8.822	1133	2129	15	115	8.822	1133	2129
20	2.36	4437	.513	12.62	13.4	207	120	9.162	1091	2073	14	120	9.162	1091	2073	14	120	9.162	1091	2073	14	120	9.162	1091	2073
25	2.7	3703	.494	14.56	17.01	234	125	9.502	1052	2000	13	125	9.502	1052	2000	13	125	9.502	1052	2000	13	125	9.502	1052	2000
30	3.04	3289	.4538	16.34	19.4	252	130	9.842	1015	1962	12	130	9.842	1015	1962	12	130	9.842	1015	1962	12	130	9.842	1015	1962
35	3.381	2957	.42	17.92	21.6	281	135	10.182	980	1922	11	135	10.182	980	1922	11	135	10.182	980	1922	11	135	10.182	980	1922
40	3.721	2687	.393	19.32	23.68	302	140	10.522	945	1878	10	140	10.522	945	1878	10	140	10.522	945	1878	10	140	10.522	945	1878
45	4.061	2469	.37	20.57	25.59	321	145	10.862	921	1837	9	145	10.862	921	1837	9	145	10.862	921	1837	9	145	10.862	921	1837
50	4.401	2272	.35	21.69	27.39	330	150	11.202	892	1796	8	150	11.202	892	1796	8	150	11.202	892	1796	8	150	11.202	892	1796
55	4.741	2099	.331	22.76	29.11	357	155	11.542	864	1752	7	155	11.542	864	1752	7	155	11.542	864	1752	7	155	11.542	864	1752
60	5.081	1968	.3144	23.78	30.75	375	170	12.56	836	1697	6	170	12.56	836	1697	6	170	12.56	836	1697	6	170	12.56	836	1697
65	5.422	1844	.301	24.75	32.32	389	180	13.24	805	1635	5	180	13.24	805	1635	5	180	13.24	805	1635	5	180	13.24	805	1635
70	5.762	1735	.288	25.67	33.83	405	190	13.93	771	1568	4	190	13.93	771	1568	4	190	13.93	771	1568	4	190	13.93	771	1568
75	6.102	1639	.276	26.55	35.27	430	200	14.61	738	1498	3	200	14.61	738	1498	3	200	14.61	738	1498	3	200	14.61	738	1498

Column 3 gives the volume of air after compression to the given pressure and after it is cooled to its initial temperature. After compression the heat is very rapidly lost, and this column may be taken to represent the volume of air after compression available for the purpose for which it is compressed.

Column 4 gives the volume of air more nearly as the compressor deals with it. In any compressor the air will lose some of its volume during compression. The slower the compressor runs the cooler the air, and the smaller the volume.

Column 5 shows the mean effective resistance to be overcome during the stroke of compression, supposing the air to be cooled to its initial temperature. Of course it will not be so cool as it is kept in view in economical air-

gives the mean effective resistance to be overcome by the piston that there is no cooling of the air. The actual mean effective pressure will be somewhat less than as given in this column; but for the actual power required for operating air-compressor cylinders in this column may be taken and a certain percentage added, if desired—and the result will represent very closely the power required by the compressor.

The pressures given being for compression from one atmosphere they will not be correct for computations in compound compression from other initial pressure.

Due to Excess of Pressure caused by Heating in Compression-cylinder.—If the air during compression were at constant temperature, the compression-curve of an indicator-diagram from the cylinder would be an isothermal curve, and would follow from Boyle and Mariotte, $p_v = a$ constant, or $p_1 v_1 = p_2 v_2$, or

p_2 and v_2 being the pressure and volume at the beginning of compression, and $p_1 v_1$ the pressure and volume at the end, or at any intermediate point. But as the air is heated during compression the pressure rises faster than the volume decreases, causing the work required for compression to be increased. If none of the heat were abstracted from or by injection of water, the curve of the diagram would be an adiabatic curve, with the equation $p_1 = p_2 \left(\frac{v_2}{v_1} \right)^{1.405}$. Cooling the air dur-

ing compression, or compressing it in two cylinders, called compounding, or the air as it passes from one cylinder to the other, reduces the effect of this equation, and reduces the quantity of work necessary to compress the air. F. T. Gause (*Am. Mach.*, Oct. 20, 1892), describing operations of the Popp air compressors in Paris, says: The greatest saving realized in compressing in a single cylinder was 33 per cent of that which would be required in a single cylinder. In cards taken from the 2000 H.P. compound compressor at La Gare, Paris, the saving realized is 85 per cent of the amount. Of this amount only 8 per cent is due to cooling during compression, so that the increase of economy in the compound compressor is mainly due to cooling the air between the two stages of compression. Compression-curve with exponent 1.25 is the best result that was obtained for compression in a single cylinder and cooling with a very fine water spray. The curve with exponent 1.15 is that which must be realized in a single cylinder to equal the present economy of the compound compressor at La Gare.

Power required to compress and deliver one cubic foot of Free Air per minute at a given pressure with no cooling of the air during the compression; also the horse-power required, supposing the air to be maintained at constant temperature during the compression.

Air not cooled.	Air constant temperature.	Gauge-pressure.	Air not cooled.	Air constant temperature.
.0196	.0188	5	.0268	.0251
.0361	.0333	10	.0606	.0559
.0624	.0551	20	.1183	.1100
.0845	.0713	30	.1573	.1468
.1032	.0843	40	.1842	.1738
.1195	.0946	50	.2061	.1956
.1342	.1046	60	.2248	.2143
.1476	.1120	70	.2408	.2296
.1599	.1195	80	.2549	.2429
.1710	.1261	90	.2677	.2557
.1815	.1318	100	.2797	.2677

The power given above is the theoretical power, no allowance being made for friction of the compressor or other losses, which may amount to 10 per cent or more.

Table for Adiabatic Compression or Expansion

(Proc. Inst. M.E., Jan. 1881, p. 123.)

Absolute Pressure.		Absolute Temperature.		Vol.
Ratio of Greater to Less. (Expansion.)	Ratio of Less to Greater. (Compression.)	Ratio of Greater to Less. (Expansion.)	Ratio of Less to Greater. (Compression.)	Ratio of Greater to Less. (Compression.)
1.2	1.811	1.054	.948	1.138
1.4	.714	1.102	.907	1.270
1.6	.625	1.146	.873	1.396
1.8	.556	1.186	.843	1.518
2.0	.500	1.222	.818	1.636
2.2	.454	1.257	.796	1.750
2.4	.417	1.289	.770	1.862
2.6	.385	1.319	.758	1.971
2.8	.357	1.348	.742	2.077
3.0	.333	1.375	.727	2.182
3.2	.312	1.401	.714	2.284
3.4	.294	1.426	.701	2.384
3.6	.278	1.450	.690	2.483
3.8	.263	1.473	.679	2.580
4.0	.250	1.495	.669	2.676
4.2	.238	1.516	.660	2.770
4.4	.227	1.537	.651	2.862
4.6	.217	1.557	.642	2.955
4.8	.208	1.576	.635	3.046
5.0	.200	1.595	.627	3.135
6.0	.167	1.681	.606	3.569
7.0	.143	1.758	.580	3.981
8.0	.125	1.822	.547	4.377
9.0	.111	1.881	.520	4.759
10.0	.100	1.950	.513	5.129

Mean Effective Pressures for the Compression of the Stroke when compressing and delivery from one Atmosphere to given Gauge-pressure Cylinders. (F. Richards, *Am. Mach.*, Dec. 14, 1893.)

Gauge-pressure.	Adiabatic Compression	Isothermal Compression	Gauge-pressure.	Adiabatic Compression.
1	.44	.43	45	13.65
2	.66	.66	50	15.05
3	1.41	1.4	55	16.58
4	1.80	1.84	60	18.29
5	2.26	2.22	65	19.94
10	4.26	4.14	70	21.74
15	5.99	5.77	75	23.54
20	7.58	7.2	80	25.5
25	9.05	8.40	85	27.22
30	10.39	9.65	90	29
35	11.59	10.72	95	30.77
40	12.8	11.7	100	32.43

The mean effective pressure for compression only is always the mean effective pressure for the whole work

and Terminal Pressures of Compressed Air used
Extensively for Gauge-pressures from 60 to 100 lbs.

(Frank Richards, *Am. Mach.*, April 13, 1893.)

60.		70.		80.		90.		100.	
Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.
33.6	10.65	38.74	12.07	39.89	13.49	39.04	14.91	44.19	1.83
32.9	13.77	31.75	6	40.61	3.44	46.46	4.27	53.92	0.11
32.13	.96	35.41	3.09	44.69	5.23	50.96	7.35	57.26	9.49
31.92	2.39	40.15	4.34	46.64	6.66	53.13	8.95	59.62	11.33
35.85	3.85	42.63	6.30	49.41	7.83	56.2	11.39	62.98	11.39
37.93	5.64	44.99	8.39	52.05	11.14	59.11	14.88	66.16	16.64
41.75	10.71	49.31	12.01	56.9	15.89	64.45	19.11	72.02	22.36
45.14	13.26	53.16	17	61.18	20.81	69.19	23.56	77.21	28.33
50.75	21.53	59.51	26.4	68.28	31.27	77.05	36.14	85.82	41.01
51.92	23.69	60.84	22.85	69.76	34.01	78.69	39.16	87.61	44.32
53.67	27.94	62.83	33.03	71.99	38.08	81.14	41.38	90.32	49.97
54.94	30.30	64.25	36.44	73.57	42.49	82.9	48.54	92.22	54.59
56.52	35.01	66.05	41.68	75.59	48.35	85.12	55.02	94.66	61.69
57.79	39.78	67.5	47.08	77.2	54.34	86.91	61.69	96.61	68.99
59.15	47.14	69.04	55.43	78.92	63.81	88.81	72.	98.7	80.28
60.16	49.65	69.38	58.27	79.31	66.89	89.24	75.62	99.17	87.82

pressures in the table are all gauge-pressures except those in italics,
are absolute pressures (above a vacuum).

Wright-line Air-compressors, Ingersoll-Sergeant Rock-drill Co.

Diameter of Air- cylinder, inches.	Length of Stroke, inches.	No. of Revolutions per minute.	Piston Speed in feet per minute.	Cubic Feet Free Air per minute (Theoretical).	Horse- power of Boiler required.
4 3/4	10	175	291	28	8
5 1/4	10	175	291	42	8
6 1/4	12	160	330	66	10
7 1/4	12	160	330	91	12
8 1/4	12	160	330	117	15
9 1/4	12	160	330	148	20
10 1/4	14	155	361	207	30
11 1/4	14	155	361	295	40
12 1/4	18	120	390	308	55
13 1/4	18	120	390	518	70
14 1/4	24	111	370	683	100
16 1/4	24	94	370	840	130
18 1/4	31	75	375	1011	155
24 1/4	30	75	375	1202	200

The same sizes are made to be driven by belt or gearing.

Compressors at High Altitudes.—Cubic feet of compressed air
delivered by air-compressors at high altitudes, expressed as a percentage of
that delivered at the sea-level.

Feet above Sea- level, feet.	0	1000	2000	3000	4000	5000	6000	7000	8000	9000	10000
Percent, per cent.	100	97	94	91	89	86	84	81	78		

Standard Air-compressors driven by Steam.

(Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

In the following list the large air cylinder gives the capacity of the machine. For actual capacity, allowance of 10 per cent may be made for contingencies. The small piston only encounters the pressure of the compression.

Diameter of Air-cylinder.	Length of Stroke.	Diameter of Compressing cylinder.	Diameter of Steam-cylinder.	Revolutions or Double Strokes per minute.	Theoretical Capacity, cubic feet per minute Free Air.	Steam pipe.	Exhaust pipe.	Air pipe.	Water pipe.
8	10	5	8	200	116	2 1/2	2 1/2	2	1 1/2
10	12	6 1/4	10	190	207	2 1/2	3	2 1/2	2
14	16	9 1/4	14	150	427	3	4	4	1 1/2
20	24	13 1/4	20	110	960	5	6	5	1 1/2
26	30	17 1/4	24	90	1650	6	8	6	1 1/2
32	36	21 1/4	30	80	2680	7	10	8	1 1/2

Double-compound Compressors.

(Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

Diameter of Air-cylinder.	Length of Stroke.	Diameter of—				Revolutions per minute.
		Compressing cylinder.	High-pressure Steam-cylinder.	Low-pressure Steam-cylinder.	Steam pipe.	
10	12	5	7 1/2	12	2	100
12	12	5	7 1/2	12	2	150
14	16	9 1/4	10	16	2 1/2	150
16	16	9 1/4	10	16	2 1/2	150
20	20	13 1/4	14	22	3	120
20	24	13 1/4	14	22	3	110
22	24	13 1/4	14	22	3	110
26	30	17 1/4	18	28	4 1/2	90
28	30	17 1/4	18	28	4 1/2	90
32	36	21 1/4	22	35	6	80

Mountain or High-altitude Compressors.

(Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

Diameter Air-cylinder.	Length of Stroke.	Diameter of Compressing cylinder.	Diameter of Steam-cylinder.	Revolutions per minute.	At Sea-level.		At 2000 feet.		At 4000 feet.		At 6000 feet.
					Capacity cubic feet.	Horse-power.	Capacity.	Horse-power.	Capacity.	Horse-power.	
12	12	7	10	120	208	35	280	54	211	32	211
16	16	9 1/4	14	150	558	50	524	68	467	64	467
20	20	13 1/4	18	120	872	100	849	107	722	100	849
24	24	17 1/4	20	110	1160	145	1090	140	960	132	960
28	30	21 1/4	24	90	1650	225	1400	207	1355	195	1400

The delivery and power of the compressors decrease as the height increases, as the capacity decreases in a greater ratio than the pressure increases. It follows that operation at a high altitude is more expensive than at sea-level. At 10,000 feet this extra expense amounts to 10 per cent.

Hand Drill Co.'s Air-compressors.

Dimensions of Air-cylinders in inches.	Revolutions per minute.	Theoretical Volume of Air delivered in cubic feet per minute, at Sea-level.						
		Free.	Compressed to a Gauge-pressure of					
			10 lbs.	20 lbs.	40 lbs.	60 lbs.	80 lbs.	100 lbs.
10 x 16 S*	100	145.44	86.56	61.61	39.08	28.62	22.57	18.64
10 x 16 D*	100	350.88	173.12	123.23	78.17	57.24	45.15	37.28
14 x 22 S*	85	333.20	198.31	141.10	80.51	63.54	51.93	42.67
14 x 22 D*	85	666.40	396.61	282.20	179.01	131.07	103.86	85.34
16½ x 30 S*	75	556.83	331.39	235.89	149.64	109.57	86.43	71.36
16½ x 30 D*	75	1113.66	662.79	471.79	299.28	219.15	172.86	142.72
18 x 30 S*	75	662.68	394.30	280.73	178.08	130.40	102.86	84.92
18 x 30 D*	75	1325.36	788.78	561.46	356.17	260.81	205.72	169.84
20 x 38 S*	50	872.69	519.36	369.69	234.51	171.72	135.46	111.84
20 x 38 D*	50	1745.32	1038.72	739.38	469.03	343.45	270.92	223.68
28 x 48 S*	40	1368.34	814.36	579.67	367.72	269.27	212.40	175.36
28 x 48 D*	40	2736.68	1628.72	1159.34	735.45	538.54	424.80	350.73
32 x 58 S*	40	1787.22	1063.65	757.12	480.29	351.70	277.42	230.05
32 x 58 D*	40	3574.44	2127.30	1514.24	960.58	703.40	554.85	458.10
32 x 60 S*	35	1951.77	1163.37	828.10	525.32	394.67	303.43	250.52
32 x 60 D*	35	3903.55	2326.73	1656.20	1050.63	769.31	606.86	501.05
36 x 60 S*	30	2120.61	1292.07	898.35	572.07	417.72	329.16	272.82
36 x 60 D*	30	4241.22	2584.14	1796.70	1144.14	835.44	658.32	545.64
8 x 12 S*	120	89.78	49.86	35.49	22.51	16.49	13.00	10.74
10 x 14 S*	110	130.05	83.27	59.29	37.82	27.50	21.72	17.94
12 x 16 S*	100	209.44	124.65	88.73	56.28	41.22	32.51	26.66
14 x 22 S*	95	372.40	221.64	157.70	100.04	73.25	58.04	47.60
16 x 24 S*	90	502.66	299.15	212.94	135.08	98.02	78.03	64.12
17½ x 24 S*	90	601.29	357.85	254.95	161.60	118.33	93.33	77.06
20 x 30 S*	80	872.67	519.36	369.69	234.52	171.73	135.46	111.84

* S, Single; D, Duplex.

Actual Results with Compressed Air.—*Compressed air at the Chapin Mines, Iron Mountain, Mich.*—These mines are three on the falls which supply the power. There are four turbines at one of 1000 horse-power and three of 900 horse power each. The air is 60 pounds at 90° Fahr. Each turbine runs a pair of compressors. To the mines is 24 inches in diameter. The power is applied at the Corliss engines, running pumps, hoists, etc., and direct to rock-

made in 1888 gave 1130.27 horse-power at the compressors, and 390.17 over as the sum of the horse-power of the engines at the mines. Only 27% of the power generated was recovered at the mines, besides the loss due to leakage and the loss of energy in heat, but not in the engines or compressors. (F. A. Peacock, Trans. A. I. M. E.,

Baunders (Jour. F. I. 1892) says: "There is not a properly designed compressed air installation in operation to-day that loses over 5% by transmission. The question is altogether one of the size of pipe; and if it is large enough, the friction loss is a small item. The largest compressed air power plant in America is that at the Chapin Mines in Michigan. Over 1000 horse-power is generated at Quinnesec Falls, and transmitted three miles to an economical plant, but the loss of pressure as shown by the gauge is only 2 lbs., and this is the loss which may be laid strictly to trans-

mission of power in common practice, where compressed air is used to operate machinery in mines and tunnels, is about 7%. I refer to cases where American air-compressors are used, and where the loss of heat is not great enough to lose its heat of compression and is ex-

many industries becomes possible, while in cases where it is necessary to have a constant supply of cold air economy ceases to be a matter of first importance.

The following table shows the results of tests of a small rotary engine for driving sewing-machines, and indicating about a tenth of a horse-

TRIALS OF A SMALL ROTARY RIEDINGER ENGINE

Numbers of trials	I.
Initial air-pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	40
Initial temperature, deg. Fahr.	54*
Ft.-lbs. per sec., measured on the brake	51.65
Revolutions per minute	384
Consumption of air per 1 horse-power per hour	1877

The following table shows the results obtained with a one-cylinder power variable expansive Riedinger rotary engine. These trials are the best practice that has been obtained up to the present time. All volumes of air were in all cases taken at atmospheric pressure.

TRIALS OF A .5-HORSE-POWER RIEDINGER ROTARY ENGINE

Numbers of trials	I.	II.	III.
Initial pressure of air, lbs. per sq. in.	54	69.7	80
" temperature of air, deg. Fahr.	53.8	350	388
Final	77	68	88
Revolutions per minute	335	350	310
Ft.-lbs. per second, measured on brake	371	477	376
Consumption of air per horse-power per hour	983	791	900

Trials made with an old single-cylinder 80-horse-power Farcat engine, indicating 72 horse-power, gave a consumption of air per brake-horse-power as low as 465 cu. ft. per hour. The temperature of admission 320° F., and of exhaust 95° F.

Prof. Elliott gives the following as typical results of efficiency for systems of compressors and air-motors:

Simple compressor and simple motor, efficiency
Compound compressor and simple motor, "
" " compound motor, efficiency
Triple compressor and triple motor,

The efficiency is the ratio of the indicated horse-power in the motor to the indicated horse-power in the steam cylinders of the compressor. The pressure assumed is 6 atmospheres absolute, and the losses due to those found in Paris over a distance of 4 miles.

Summary of Efficiencies of Compressed-air Transmissions at Paris, between the Central Station at St. Lazare, and a 10-horse-power Motor Working with Pressure Reduced to $4\frac{1}{2}$ Atmospheres.

(The figures below correspond to mean results of two experiments, two heated.)

1 indicated horse-power at central station gives 0.845 indicated horse-power in compressors, and corresponds to the compression of 24 cubic feet per hour from atmospheric pressure to 6 atmospheres absolute. (The weight of this air is about 25 pounds.)

0.845 indicated horse-power in compressors delivers as much air as 0.52 indicated horse-power in adiabatic expansion after it has fallen in temperature to the normal temperature of the mains.

The fall of pressure in mains between central station and Paris (4 miles) reduces the possibility of work from 0.52 to 0.51 indicated horse-power.

The further fall of pressure through the reducing valve to $4\frac{1}{2}$ atmospheres absolute reduces the possibility of work from 0.51 to 0.50.

Incomplete expansion, wire drawing and other such causes reduce the indicated horse-power of the motor from 0.50 to 0.39.

By heating the air before it enters the motor to about 320° F., the indicated horse-power at the motor is, however, increased to 0.54.

By again heating the air is, therefore, $\frac{0.54}{0.39} = 1.38$.

additional heat is supplied by the combustion of about 0.30 indicated horse-power per hour, and if this be taken into account the indicated efficiency of the whole process becomes 0.47.

With cold air the work spent in driving the motor itself reduces the power from 0.39 to 0.26.

With heated air the work spent in driving the motor itself reduces the power from 0.54 to 0.41.

The efficiencies are as follows:

For engines 0.845.

For compressors $0.52 \div 0.845 = 0.61$.

For transmission through mains $0.51 \div 0.52 = 0.98$.

For the driving valve $0.50 \div 0.51 = 0.98$.

Efficiency of the mains and receiving valve between 5 and 15 is thus $0.98 \times 0.98 = 0.96$. If the reduction had been to 4, the corresponding efficiencies would have been 0.93, etc.

Efficiency of motor $0.39 \div 0.50 = 0.78$.

Efficiency of whole process with cold air 0.39. Apparent indicated efficiency of whole process with heated air 0.54.

Efficiency of whole process with heated air 0.47.

Efficiency of motor, cold, 0.67.

Efficiency of motor, hot, 0.81.

Compressed air in Paris is used for driving motors, but the use is of the most varied kind. A list of motors driven from compressed air shows 225 installations, nearly all motors working at from 10 to 50 horse-power, and the great majority of them more than 100 ft. from the station. The new station at Quai de la Gare is the one at St. Fargeau. Experiments on the Riedler at Paris, made in December, 1901, to determine the ratio of indicated work done by the air-pistons and the indicated work done by the steam-pistons, showed a ratio of 0.8067. The compressors are driven by gas engines of 2000 horse-power each.

Used by Compressed Air.—The *Iron Age*, March 2, 1902, says: "The Wuerpel Switch and Signal Co., East St. Louis, Mo., has a number of tools operated by compressed air, each of the tools having its own air engine, and the smaller tools being belted down by an air engine. Power is supplied by a compound engine at 65 horse-power. The air engines are of the Kriebel type, 2 to 8 horse-power."

Postal Transmission.—A paper by A. Falkenau, Philadelphia, April 1891, entitled the "First United States System," gives a description of the system used in London and recently introduced in Philadelphia between the main station and the suburban stations. In London the tubes are 2½ and 3 inch lead or iron pipes for protection. The carriers used in 2½ inch tubes are 1½ inches diameter, the remaining space being taken up by the carriers. In Philadelphia the tubes are 2½ inch lead or iron, the Paris tubes being 2½ inches diameter. The carriers are despatched in trains of six to ten, propelled by a vacuum. In Philadelphia the size of tube adopted is 6½ inches, the tubes being bored to size. The lengths of the outgoing and return tubes are 100 ft. each. The pressure at the main station is 7 lbs., at the suburban station 1½ lbs., and at the end of the return pipe atmospheric pressure. Each carrier holds about 100 to 150 letters as an average. Eight carriers may be despatched, giving a delivery of 48,000 to 72,000 letters per hour. The time of transmission is about 37 seconds.

Local Compressed-air Tramway at Berne.

(*Eng'g News*, April 30, 1903.)—The Mekarski system has been adopted at Berne, Switzerland, on a line about two miles long, with a 1.5% and 5.2%. A special feature of the Mekarski system is the use of air, to maintain it at a constant temperature, by passing heated water at 330° F. The air thus becomes saturated with water vapor, and subsequently partly condenses, its latent heat being used to expand the air. The pressure in the air reservoir is 100 lbs.

The tramway is constructed like an ordinary steam tramway locomotive.

would be useless to make the vanes of the fan of a greater width, the inlet opening can freely supply. On the proportion of the length of the vane and the diameter of the inlet opening rest the three important points, *viz.*, quantity and density of air, and expending.

In the 14-inch blade the tip has a velocity 2.6 times greater than at the heel; and, by the laws of centrifugal force, the air will have a velocity 2.6 times greater at the tip of the blade than that at the heel. The air entering on the heel with a density higher than that of the atmosphere, in its passage along the vane it becomes compressed in proportion to the centrifugal force. The greater the length of the vane, the greater the difference of the centrifugal force between the heel and the tip of the blade; consequently the greater the density of the air.

Reasoning from these experiments, Mr. Buckle recommends the following proportions for the construction of the fan.

1. Let the width of the vanes be one fourth of the diameter of the fan; 2. Let the diameter of the inlet openings in the sides of the fan-chest be one fourth of the diameter of the fan; 3. Let the length of the vanes be one fourth of the diameter of the fan.

In adopting this mode of construction, the area of the inlet in the sides of the fan-chest will be the same as the circumference of the blade, multiplied by its width; or the same area as described by the heel of the blade.

Best Proportions of Fans. (Buckle.)

PRESSURE FROM 3 OUNCES TO 6 OUNCES PER SQUARE INCH; OR 1 TO 10.4 INCHES OF WATER.

Diameter of Fan.	Vanes.		Diameter of Inlet Openings.	Diameter of Fan.	Vanes.	
	Width.	Length.			Width.	Length.
ft. ins.	ft. ins.	ft. ins.	ft. ins.	ft. ins.	ft. ins.	ft. ins.
3 0	0 9	0 9	1 6	4 6	1 1½	1 ½
3 6	0 10½	0 10½	1 9	5 0	1 3	1 ½
4 0	1 0	1 0	2 0	6 0	1 6	1 ½

PRESSURE FROM 6 OUNCES TO 9 OUNCES PER SQUARE INCH; OR 10.4 INCHES TO 15.6 INCHES OF WATER.

4 0	0 7	1 0	1 0	4 6	0 10½	1 ½
3 6	0 8½	1 1½	1 3	5 0	1 0	1 ½
4 0	0 9½	1 3½	1 6	6 0	1 2	1 ½

The dimensions of the above tables are not laid down as precise, but as approximations obtained from the best results in practice.

Experiments were also made with reference to the admission of the ugost or outlet pipe. By a side the width of the opening was varied from 12 to 4 inches. The object of this was to prove necessary to the quantity of air required, and thereby to lessen the noise produced by the fan. It was found that the less this opening provided we produce sufficient blast, the less noise will be produced; and by making the tops of this opening level with the tips of the column of air has little or no reaction on the vanes.

The number of blades may be 4 or 6. The case is made of an arithmetical spiral, widening the space between the case and the blades, circumferentially, from the origin to the opening for the fan.

The following rules deduced from experiments are given in the treatise on Casting and Founding:

The fan-case should be an arithmetical spiral to the extent of the blade at least.

The diameter of the tips of the blades should be about double that of the heels in the centre; the width to be about two-thirds of the diameter of the tips. The velocity of the tips of the blades should

than the velocity due to the air at the pressure required, say one more velocity.

In some cases, two fans mounted on one shaft would be more useful than one, as in such an arrangement twice the area of inlet opening is obtained as compared with a single wide fan. Such an arrangement may be used where occasionally half the full quantity of air is required, as when it may be put out of gear, thus saving power.

Pressure due to Velocity of the Fan-blades.—"By increasing the number of revolutions of the fan the head or pressure is increased, being that the total head produced is equal (in centrifugal fans) to the height due to the velocity of the extremities of the blades, or approximately in practice" (W. P. Trowbridge, Trans. A. S. M. E.,

This law is analogous to that of the pressure of a jet striking a surface. T. Hawksley, Proc. Inst. M. E., 1882, vol. lxix., says: "The pressure of a fluid striking a plane surface perpendicularly and then escaping at right angles to its original path is that due to twice the height h due to the velocity."

In discussion of this question, showing that it is an error to take the pressure as equal to a column of air of the height $h = \frac{v^2}{2g}$, see Wolff on Mills, p. 17.)

He says: "From the experiments it further appears that the velocity of the tips of the fan is equal to nine tenths of the velocity a body would acquire in falling the height of a homogeneous column of air equivalent to the pressure." D. K. Clark (R. T. & D., p. 924), paraphrasing Buckle, apparently says: "It further appears that the pressure generated at the circumference is one ninth greater than that which is due to the actual circumference velocity of the fan." The two statements, however, are not in

agreement, for if $v = 0.9 \sqrt{2gH}$, $H = \frac{v^2}{0.81 \times 2g} = 1.234 \frac{v^2}{2g}$, and not $1\frac{1}{9} \frac{v^2}{2g}$.

To make the pressure as that equal to a head or column of air of twice the height due to the velocity, as is correctly stated by Trowbridge, the parabolic statements of Buckle and Clark—which would indicate that the pressure is greater than the theoretical—are explained, and the

formula becomes $H = .617 \frac{v^2}{g}$ and $v = 1.273 \sqrt{gH} = 0.9 \sqrt{2gH}$, in which H

is the head of a column producing the pressure, which is equal to twice the actual head due to the velocity of a falling body (or $h = \frac{v^2}{2g}$), multiplied

by coefficient .617. The difference between 1 and this coefficient explains the loss of pressure due to friction, to the fact that the inner portions of the blade have a smaller velocity than the outer edge, and probably other causes. The coefficient 1.273 means that the tip of the blade must have a velocity 1.273 times that theoretically required to produce the head H .

To convert the head H expressed in feet to pressure in lbs. per sq. in., multiply it by the weight of a cubic foot of air at the pressure and temperature of the air expelled from the fan (about .08 lb. usually) and divide by

144. Multiply this by 16 to obtain pressure in ounces per sq. in. or by 2.035 to obtain inches of mercury, or by 27.71 to obtain pressure in inches of water column. Taking .08 as the weight of a cubic foot of air,

$$p \text{ lbs. per sq. in.} = .00001066v^2; \quad v = 310 \sqrt{p} \text{ nearly};$$

$$p_1 \text{ ounces per sq. in.} = .0001706v^2; \quad v = 80 \sqrt{p_1}$$

$$p_2 \text{ inches of mercury} = .00002169v^2; \quad v = 230 \sqrt{p_2}$$

$$p_3 \text{ inches of water} = .0002954v^2; \quad v = 60 \sqrt{p_3}$$

in which v = velocity of tips of blades in feet per second.

Using the above formula by the experiment of Buckle with the vane fan, as long, quoted above, we have $p = .00001066v^2 = 0.56 \text{ oz.}$ The experiment gave 0.4 oz.

Using it by the experiment of H. I. Snell, given below, in which the centrifugal speed was about 150 ft. per second, we obtain 3.85 ounces, while the experiment gave from 2.34 to 3.50 ounces, according to the amount of air being discharged. The numerical coefficients of the above formulae are based on Buckle's statement that the velocity of the tips of the fan is equal to nine tenths of the velocity a body would acquire in falling the

Experiments were undertaken for the purpose of showing the results obtained by running the same fan at different speeds with the discharge the same throughout the series.

The discharge-pipe was a circular tube 8½ inches inside diameter and, having an area of 56.74, which is 7½ larger than 53 sq. inches, the 73 square inches equal to 36½ square feet, is called the area of discharge, that is the practical area by which the volume of air is computed.

Experiments on a Fan with Constant Discharge, and Varying Speed.—The first four columns are given by Snell, the others are calculated by the author.

Revs. per min.	Pressure in ounces, p	Vol. of Air to sq. ft. per minute, V	Horse-power.	Velocity of Tips of Blades, ft. per sec.	Velocity due to Rotation from Formula $V = 80 \sqrt{p}$	Coefficient of Force, $C = V \div \sqrt{p}$, from Experiment.	Velocity of Air per minute, in Efflux Pipe, V_1 , 308	Theoretical Horse- power.
600	.50	1336	.25	60.2	56.6	65.1	3.690	
800	.88	1767	.70	80.3	75.0	85.6	4.966	
1000	1.33	2245	1.35	100.4	94.	85.4	6.100	
1200	2.00	2712	2.30	120.4	113.	86.1	7.356	
1400	2.75	3172	3.45	140.5	133.	84.8	8.631	
1600	3.80	3610	5.10	160.6	156.	82.4	9.973	
1800	4.80	4172	8.00	180.6	175.	82.4	11.337	
2000	5.95	4674	11.40	200.7	196.	85.6	12.701	

Mr. Snell has not found any practical difference between the effect of blowers with curved blades and those with straight radial ones.

From these experiments says Mr. Snell, it appears that we may save a large back 55% to 75% of the power expended, and no more.

The great amount of power often used to run a fan is not due to the resistance of the air, but to the method of selecting, erecting, and piping it.

For opinions on the relative merits of fans and positive rotary see discussion of Mr. Snell's paper. Trans. A. S. M. E., ix 66, etc.

Comparative Efficiency of Fans and Positive Blowers. (H. M. Howe, Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 482.)—Experiments with fans and (Baker) blowers working at moderately low pressures, under 20 ounces, that they work more efficiently at a given pressure when delivering small volumes (*i.e.*, when working nearly up to their maximum capacity when delivering comparatively small volumes. Therefore, when great quantities in the quantity and pressure of blast required are liable to the highest efficiency would be obtained by having a number of blowers, driving them up to their full capacity, and regulating the amount of blast by altering the number of blowers at work, instead of having one very large blower and regulating the amount of blast by the speed of the blowers.

There appears to be little difference between the efficiency of fans and Baker blowers when each works under favorable conditions as to quantity of work, and when each is in good order.

For a given speed of fan, any diminution in the size of the blast orifice increases the consumption of power and at the same time raises the pressure of the blast; but it increases the consumption of power per unit of force for a given pressure of blast. When the orifice has been reduced to its normal size for any given fan, further diminishing it causes a slight elevation of the blast pressure; and, when the orifice becomes comparatively small, further diminishing it causes no sensible elevation of blast pressure, which remains practically constant, even when the orifice is nearly closed.

Many of the failures of fans have been due to too low speed, to too imperfect, to improper fastening of belts, or to the belts being too loose; in brief, to bad mechanical arrangement, rather than to defects in the principle of the machine.

eral fans are used, it is probably essential to high efficiency to provide separate blast pipe for each (at least if the fans are of different size), while any number of positive blowers may deliver into the same duct without lowering their efficiency.

Capacity of Fans and Blowers.

Following tables show the guaranteed air-supply and air-removal of various forms of blowers and exhaust fans. The figures given are often not in practice, especially when the blowers and fans are driven at speeds than stated. The ratings, particularly of the blowers, are those generally given in catalogues, but it was the desire to present a conservative and assured practice. (A. R. Wolff on Ventilation.)

TABLE OF AIR SUPPLIED TO BUILDINGS BY BLOWERS OF VARIOUS SIZES.

Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Blower.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min. against a Pressure of 1 ounce per sq. in.	Diameter of Wheel in feet.	Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Blower.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min. against a Pressure of 1 ounce per sq. in.
350	6	10,635	9	175	29	56,800
325	9.4	17,000	10	160	35.5	70,340
275	13.5	29,018	12	130	49.5	102,000
230	18.4	42,700	14	110	66	139,000
200	24	46,000	15	100	77	160,000

If resistance exceeds the pressure of one ounce per square inch, of course, the capacity of the blower will be correspondingly decreased, and allowance for this must be made when the ducts are small, of excessive length, and contain many contractions.

TABLE OF AIR MOVED BY AN APPROVED FORM OF EXHAUST FAN, THE FAN DISCHARGING DIRECTLY FROM ROOM INTO THE ATMOSPHERE.

Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Fan.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min.	Diameter of Wheel in feet.	Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Fan.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min.
600	0.50	5,000	4.0	475	3.50	28,000
550	0.75	8,000	5.0	350	4.50	35,000
500	1.00	12,000	6.0	300	7.00	50,000
400	2.50	20,000	7.0	250	15.00	80,000

Capacity of exhaust fans here stated, and the horse-power to drive them for free exhaust from room into atmosphere. The capacity depends and the horse-power increases materially as the resistance, resulting from the smallness and bends of ducts, enters as a factor. The difference in pressures in the two tables is the main cause of variation in the records. The fan referred to in the second table could not be used with a resistance as one ounce per square inch, the rated resistance of the first.

CENTRIFUGAL FANS.

Pressures, Velocities, Volume of Air, Horse-Power Required, etc. (B. F. Sturtevant Co.)

Pressure per sq. in. in ounces, from $\frac{1}{4}$ to 20 ounces; which includes the strongest blast found on any cupola in this country.				
Velocity in feet per minute of Air (at 50° F.) escaping into open air through any shaped hole from any pipe or reservoir in which the Air is compressed.				
Cubic feet of Air per minute (at 50° F.), which may be discharged through a proper shaped mouth-piece, the diameter of which must be 1.392 inches, the area being 1.97 square inches.				
Actual H. P. contained in the blast discharged through the mouth-piece described in column 3.				
*Cubic feet of Air per minute that may be discharged with one H. P., no allowance being made for friction in the blast-machine (whatever power that friction amounts to must be added). It makes no difference how the Air is discharged, provided the pressure is steady, the same as given in the first column.				
1	2	3	4	5
$\frac{1}{4}$	2584.80	17.944	0.001224	14002.76
$\frac{1}{2}$	3277.31	25.300	0.001463	7393.70
$\frac{3}{4}$	4482.00	31.124	0.001659	4860.11
1	5175.00	35.93	0.0018	3606.62
2	7338.24	50.96	0.0278	1803.03
3	9006.48	62.54	0.0512	1242.23
4	10421.58	72.37	0.0780	916.27
5	11676.00	81.08	0.1106	733.35
6	12817.08	89.01	0.1456	611.10
7	13872.72	96.34	0.1839	509.81
8	14861.16	103.20	0.2251	438.43
9	15795.00	109.69	0.2692	387.42
10	16681.21	115.86	0.3160	346.69
11	17523.50	121.76	0.3652	313.40
12	18336.34	127.43	0.4170	285.56
13	19128.26	132.89	0.4712	262.05
14	19906.78	138.10	0.5277	241.31
15	20680.48	143.34	0.5864	224.44
16	21360.00	148.31	0.6473	210.17
17	22000.80	153.26	0.7103	197.77
18	22745.40	157.98	0.7754	187.71
19	23415.00	162.60	0.8426	179.26
20	24070.80	167.16	0.9118	172.33

* Always give the wind a good wide opening into the furnace to see by this table how much more wind can be discharged with one low pressure than at high.

This table shows the great advantage of large thyres, large blowers, and slow speed when the nature of the work will admit.

+ Number of forges driven with 1.2 H. P. with Sturtevant blowers.

Caution in Regard to Use of Fan and Blower. Many engineers report that manufacturers' tables overstate the capacity of their fans and underestimate the horse-power required to drive them. In some cases the complaints may be due to restricted air ways and crooked pipes, slipping of belts, too small engines, etc.

Fans, and Steam-coils combined for the System of Heating. (Buffalo Forge Co.)

Capacity of Fan per Minute at 1 oz. Pressure.	Weight of Fan and Engine.	Floor-space of Fan and Engine, Inches.	Required H. P. to drive Fan.	Usual Size Heater in ft. of Pipe.	Required H. P. of Boiler.
8,740	1,900	49 x 38	3.1	1,000	12
11,000	1,525	51 x 45	4	1,200	15
15,940	1,700	53 x 50	4.5	1,600	20
10,940	2,200	52 x 56	6	2,000	25
25,900	2,450	59 x 74	7.2	2,500	30
22,500	2,700	62 x 84	9.1	3,000	35
39,300	3,200	69 x 94	11	3,500	42
40,161	3,900	79 x 104	13.5	4,000	48
57,730	4,500	83 x 111	15	4,500	54
81,120	5,300	87 x 133	20	5,000	62
101,350	6,000	92 x 148	22	6,000	72

Sturtevant Steel Pressure-blower, applied to Cupola Furnaces.

No. of sq. in. of Blast.	Cub. feet of Air per minute.	Speed.	Pressure in ounces of Blast.	Horse-power Required.	Power Saved by Reducing the Speed and Pressure of Blast.					
					Speed.	Oz. Press.	H. P.	Speed.	Oz. Press.	H. P.
4	324	4135	5	0.6						
5	507	3756	6	1	3445	5	0.8	3100	4	0.6
8	768	3250	8	1.6	3000	6	1.5	2750	5	1.1
10	1102	3100	8	3	2900	6	2.5	2700	6	2
14.2	1646	2900	10	5.5	2560	8	4	2300	7	3.3
18.7	2175	2820	12	9.7	2550	10	7.4	2260	8	5.3
24.3	3353	2600	14	16	2380	12	12.7	2150	10	9.4
32	4416	2270	14	22	2100	12	16.7	1900	10	12.7
43	6304	2100	16	35	1960	14	28.4	1800	12	22.5
60	8880	1815	16	48	1700	14	39.6	1560	12	31.7

inch of blast is sufficient for one forge-fire, or 60 square cupola furnaces.

The pressure is regulated so as to give the pressure of blast stated in the table.

The "square inches of blast" refers to the area of a proper shaped opening blast into the open air.

The capacity per hour in pounds of iron is made up from an analysis of a few of the best cupolas found, and is reliable in cases where the cupolas are well constructed and driven with the greatest force.

For the steel pressure-blower as applied to forge-fires, and for other patterns of blowers and exhausters, see catalogue of the Buffalo Forge Co.

(Concerning Cupolas, see Foundry Practice.)

Blast-pipes for Pressure-blowers for Cupola Furnaces and Forges. (B. F. Sturtevant Co.)

A pipe has been constructed on this basis, namely: A pipe of 1 1/2 oz. in the process of transmission through air, and as a standard, the increased friction due to the air is compensated for by an enlargement of the pipe.

to keep the loss still at $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. The quantities of air in the left-hand column of each division indicate the capacity of the given blower under pressures of 4, 8, 12, and 16 oz. Thus a No. 6 blower will transmit 1872 cubic ft. of air, at 8 oz. pressure, through 50 ft. of $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. pipe of $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. pressure. If it is desired to force the air 300 ft. without loss by friction, the pipe must be enlarged to $17\frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter.

BLOWER No. 1.						BLOWER No. 2.					
Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.					Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.				
	50	100	150	200	300		50	100	150	Diameter in inches.	
	Diameter in inches.										
360	5½	6¼	6¾	7¼	7¾	1872	10½	12½	13½	Diameter in inches.	
515	6½	7½	7¾	8¼	8¾	2678	12½	14	15½		
635	6¾	7¾	8¼	9	9½	3702	13½	15½	16½		
740	7¼	8¼	9	9½	10¼	3848	14½	16½	17½		
BLOWER No. 3.						BLOWER No. 4.					
Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.					Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.				
	50	100	150	200	300		50	100	150	Diameter in inches.	
	Diameter in inches.										
504	6¼	7¾	7¾	8¼	8¾	2592	12	13½	15	Diameter in inches.	
721	7¼	8¼	9	9½	10¼	3708	13½	15½	17½		
820	7½	9	9½	10½	11	4572	14½	17½	18½		
1035	8½	9½	10½	11	11½	5328	16	18½	20		
BLOWER No. 5.						BLOWER No. 6.					
Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.					Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.				
	50	100	150	200	300		50	100	150	Diameter in inches.	
	Diameter in inches.										
720	7¼	8¼	9	9½	10½	3312	13½	15½	16½	Diameter in inches.	
1080	8½	9½	10½	11	11½	4798	15½	17½	19½		
1270	9¼	10½	11¼	11½	12½	5842	16½	19½	20½		
1480	9¾	11	12	12½	13½	6898	17½	20½	22½		
BLOWER No. 7.						BLOWER No. 8.					
Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.					Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.				
	50	100	150	200	300		50	100	150	Diameter in inches.	
	Diameter in inches.										
1008	8¼	9½	10¼	10¾	11½	5390	14½	17	18½	Diameter in inches.	
1442	9½	10¾	11½	12¼	12½	6180	17	19½	21½		
1778	10½	11½	12½	13½	14½	7630	18½	21½	23½		
2072	11	12½	13½	14½	15½	8880	19½	22½	24½		
BLOWER No. 9.						BLOWER No. 10.					
Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.					Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.				
	50	100	150	200	300		50	100	150	Diameter in inches.	
	Diameter in inches.										
1440	9½	10¾	11½	12¼	13½	5760	16½	19	20½	Diameter in inches.	
2060	11	12½	13½	14½	15½	8240	18½	21½	23½		
2540	11½	12¾	14½	15½	16½	10460	20½	23½	25½		
2960	12½	14½	15½	16½	18	11840	22½	25½	27½		

Centrifugal Ventilators for Mines.—Of different appliances for mines various forms of centrifugal machines having proved their use now almost completely replaced all others. Most if not all fans in use in this country are of this class, being either open, or closed, with chimney and spiral casing, of a more or less bulb type. The theory of such machines has been demonstrated by Murgue in "Theories and Practices of Centrifugal Ventilating" translated by A. L. Stevenson, and is discussed in a paper by R. S. Trans. A. I. M. E. xx. 637. From this paper the following formulae are given:

a in sq. ft. of an orifice in a thin plate, of such area that its resistance to the passage of a given quantity of air equals the resistance of the mine;

α in a thin plate of such area that its resistance to the passage of a given quantity of air equals that of the machine;

Q quantity of air passing in cubic feet per minute;

v velocity of air passing through a in feet per second;

V velocity of air passing through α in feet per second;

h head in feet air column to produce velocity V ;

h_0 head in feet air column to produce velocity V_0 .

$$Q = 0.65a\sqrt{V}; \quad V = \sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{0.65^2 a^2}}; \quad Q = 0.65a\sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{0.65^2 a^2}};$$

$$\alpha = \frac{Q}{0.65\sqrt{2gh}} = \text{equivalent orifice of mine};$$

g to water-gauge in inches and quantity in thousands of feet per

$$\frac{408Q}{\sqrt{W.G.}}; \quad Q = 0.65\alpha\sqrt{V_0}; \quad V_0 = \sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{0.65^2 \alpha^2}}; \quad Q = 0.65\alpha\sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{0.65^2 \alpha^2}};$$

$$\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{0.65^2 h_0 2g}} = \text{equivalent orifice of machine.}$$

theoretical depression which can be produced by any centrifugal ventilator—that due to its tangential speed. The formula

$$H = \frac{T^2}{2g} - \frac{V^2}{2g},$$

T is the tangential speed, V the velocity of exit of the air from the wheel between the blades, and H the depression measured in feet of air. It is an expression for the theoretical depression which can be produced by an uncovered ventilator; this reaches a maximum when the air leaves the blades without speed, that is, $V = 0$, and $H = \frac{T^2}{2g}$.

The theoretical depression which can be produced by any uncovered ventilator is equal to the height due to its tangential speed, and one-half of this can be produced by a covered ventilator with expanding

as the condition of the mine remains constant:

The depression produced by any ventilator varies directly as the speed of

rotation.

The tangential speed with decreased resistance the quantity of air and the depression diminishes.

The following table shows a few results, selected from Mr. Norris's paper, giving a range of efficiency which may be expected under different circumstances.

Details of these and other fans, with diagrams of the results, are given in the paper.

Experiments on Mine-ventilating Fans.

Fan.	Revolutions per Minute, Fan.	Periphery Speed, Feet per Min.	Cu. Ft. Air per Minute.	Cu. Ft. Air per Revolution	Cubical Contents of Fan-blades.	Cu. Ft. Air per 100 Feet periphery Motion.	Water-gauge, Inches.	Horse-power in Air.	Indicated Horse-power of Engine.	Efficiency of Engine and Fan.
A	84	5517	236,684	2818	8040	4290	1.80	67.13	28.40	75.0
	100	6292	336,862	3369	3040	5493	2.50	132.70	155.43	85.4
	111	6973	347,395	3190	3040	5002	3.20	175.17	200.61	83.6
	123	7727	364,100	3304	3040	5100	3.00	223.56	205.21	75.7
B	100	6292	188,388	1829	1520	3007	1.40	41.67	97.99	44.5
	130	8167	274,873	2114	1520	3366	2.00	86.03	194.95	44.6
C	59	3702	59,587	1010	1520	1610	1.20	11.27	16.76	67.8
	83	5208	82,969	1000	1520	1593	2.15	27.86	48.54	57.5
D	40	3140	49,011	1240	3006	1580	0.87	6.80	13.32	49.2
	70	6495	137,760	1825	3006	2507	2.55	55.35	67.34	82.0
E	50	2749	147,232	2944	1532	5356	0.50	11.60	28.55	40.6
	69	3793	205,761	2982	1532	6451	1.00	32.42	45.96	70.5
F	96	5278	229,600	3121	1522	5676	2.15	101.50	120.64	81.1
	200	7540	132,195	666	746	1767	3.35	70.30	102.79	63.4
	300	7540	180,809	904	746	2393	3.05	86.60	120.07	67.6
	300	7540	209,150	1048	746	2774	2.80	92.50	150.08	61.2
G	10	765	29,805	2900	3022	5680	0.10	0.45	1.30	35.7
	50	1570	57,130	2856	3022	5987	0.30	1.80	3.70	43.8
	25	1962	66,640	2665	3022	5399	0.30	2.00	6.10	48.1
	30	2355	73,080	2486	3022	6103	0.40	4.00	9.70	47.7
	35	2747	94,080	2688	3022	8425	0.50	7.40	15.00	48.5
	40	3140	112,000	2800	3022	8567	0.70	12.00	24.90	49.1
	50	3945	132,700	2654	3022	9361	0.90	18.80	38.80	49.3
	60	4710	173,600	2893	3022	9686	1.35	30.90	66.40	50.5
	70	5495	203,260	2904	3022	8718	1.80	57.70	107.10	54.1
	80	6290	222,320	2779	3022	8540	2.25	77.90	152.60	52.1

Type of Fan.	Diam.	Width.	No. Inlets.	Diam.
A. Guibal, double.....	20 ft.	6 ft.	4	8 ft.
B. Same, only left hand running.	20	6	4	8
C. Guibal.....	20	6	2	8
D. Guibal.....	25	8	1	11
E. Guibal, double.....	17½	4	4	6
F. Capell.....	12	10	2	7
G. Guibal.....	25	8	1	12

An examination of the detailed results of each test in Mr. Norris shows a mass of contradictions from which it is exceedingly difficult to draw any satisfactory conclusions. The following, he states, appear to be more or less warranted by some of the figures:

1. *Influence of the Condition of the Airways on the Fan.*—Mine-ventilating equivalent orifices give air per 100 feet periphery-motion within limits as follows, the quantity depending on the resistance in the mine:

Equivalent Orifice.	Cu. Ft. Air per 100 ft. Periphery-speed.	Average.	Equivalent Orifice.	Cu. Ft. Air per 100 ft. Periphery-speed.
Under 20 sq. ft.	1100 to 1700	1500	60 to 70	3300 to 5100
20 to 30	1300 to 1800	1600	70 to 80	3000 to 4700
30 to 40	1500 to 2500	2100	80 to 90	2800 to 5800
40 to 50	2200 to 3500	2700	90 to 100	
50 to 60	2700 to 4800	3500	100 to 114	5300 to 6300

The influence of the mine on the efficiency of the fan does not appear very clear. Eight fans, with equivalent orifices over 30 square feet,

70%; four, with smaller equivalent mine-orifices, give about 50%; while, on the contrary, six fans, with equivalent orifices of 10 feet, give lower efficiencies, as do ten fans, all drawing from all equivalent orifices.

In that, on the whole, large airways tend to assist somewhat the efficiency.

of the Diameter of the Fan.—This seems to be practically nil, the range of large fans being in their greater width and the lower of the engines.

of the Width of a Fan.—This appears to be small as regards the machine; but the wider fans are, as a rule, exhausting

of Shape of Blades.—This appears, within reasonable limits, to be nil. Thus, six fans with tips of blades curved forward, six with flat blades, and one with blades curved back to a tangent inference, all give very high efficiencies—over 70%.

of the Shape of the Spiral Casing.—This appears to be considerable. The shapes of spiral casing in use fall into two classes, the first a large spiral, beginning at or near the point of cut-off, and the second a casing reaching around three quarters of the circumference to a short spiral reaching to the escape chimney.

The first form of casing appears to give in almost every case the

best results. A spiral belonging to the first class, but very much constricted, gives only medium efficiencies. It seems probable that the proper casing would be one of such form that the air between each blade could constantly and freely discharge into the space between the blades, the whole being swept along to the escape chimney. This is a spiral beginning near the point of cut-off, enlarging by increasing increments to allow for the slowing of the air caused by friction against the casing, and reaching the chimney with an area such as to make its exit with its then existing speed—somewhat less than the free speed of the fan.

of the Shutter.—This certainly appears to be an advantage, as the area can be regulated to suit the varying quantity of air given off. In this way re-entries can be prevented. It is not uncommon for the fans into the chimneys of which bits of paper may be blown, to be drawn into the fan, make the circuit, and are again blown out. This peculiarity has not been noticed with fans provided with

of the Speed at which a Fan is Run.—It is noticeable that the fans giving high efficiency were running at a rather high speed. The best speed seems to be between 5000 and 6000 feet

per minute. It appears to reach a maximum efficiency at somewhere about the 5000 feet and to decrease rapidly in efficiency when this maximum point

is reached. In the report of Mr. Norris's paper, Mr. A. H. Storrs says: From the "curvature" and "cubic contents of fan-blades," as given in the report, it is found that the enclosed fans empty themselves from one half to one third of their capacity, while the open fans are emptied from one and three-quarters to three times. This for fans of both types, on mines covering a range of equivalent orifices. One open fan, on a very large mine, emptied nearly four times, while a closed fan, on a still larger mine, emptied only one and one-half times. For the open fans the "cubic contents" is greater, in proportion to the fan width and equivalent orifice, than for the enclosed type. Notwithstanding this apparently greater capacity of the open fans, they show very low efficiencies.

One of the very large capacity of centrifugal fans to pass air, if run at a high speed, is shown by the fact that a 16-ft. diam. fan, 4 ft. 6 in. in height, running at 5000 revolutions, passed 300,000 cu. ft. per min., and another, of same diameter, slightly wider and with larger intake circles, passed 500,000 cu. ft. per min. In both instances being about 1 1/2 in. in diameter.

Mr. Norris says: The efficiency reported in some cases by Mr. Norris is based on the assumption that the fans have never been able to determine by experiment. My own experiments in the Pennsylvania Mine Inspectors' Reports from 1875 to 1885 show more than 60% to 65%.

DISK FANS.

Experiments made with a Blackman Disk Fan, diam. by Geo. A. Suter, to determine the volumes of air delivered at various conditions, and the power required; with calculations of efficiency and ratio of increase of power to increase of velocity, by G. H. Bass (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. 547):

Rev. per min.	Cu. ft. of Air delivered per min., V .	Horse power, HP .	Water-gauge, in., h .	Ratio of Increase of Speed.	Ratio of Increase of Delivery.	Ratio of Increase of Power.	Exponent x , $HP \propto V^x$.	Exponent y , $h \propto V^y$.
350	35,797	0.65
440	32,575	2.29	1.257	1.262	8.323	5.4
534	41,929	4.43	1.786	1.287	1.843	2.4
612	47,756	7.41	1.146	1.139	1.077	3.5
For series				1.749	1.851	11.140	4.
340	20,372	0.78
453	26,680	1.99	1.339	1.308	2.018	3.55
535	31,619	3.86	1.183	1.187	1.940	3.36
637	36,543	6.47	1.167	1.155	1.676	3.50
For series				1.701	1.794	8.513	3.03
340	9,983	1.12	0.28
430	13,017	3.17	0.47	1.265	1.304	2.637	3.08	1.95
534	17,018	6.07	0.75	1.242	1.307	1.915	2.35	1.74
570	18,649	8.46	0.87	1.068	1.096	1.394	3.03	1.60
For series				1.076	1.704	7.554	3.24	1.81
330	8,339	1.31	0.26
437	10,071	3.27	0.45	1.324	1.199	2.142	0.31	3.06
516	11,157	5.06	0.75	1.181	1.108	1.457	3.66	4.96
For series				1.668	1.329	4.580	6.35	3.72

Nature of the Experiments.—First Series: Drawing air through 48-in. diam. pipe on inlet side of the fan.

Second Series: Forcing air through 30 ft. of 48-in. diam. pipe on outlet side of the fan.

Third Series: Drawing air through 30 ft. of 48-in. pipe on inlet side of the fan—the pipe being obstructed by a diaphragm of cheese cloth.

Fourth Series: Forcing air through 30 ft. of 48-in. pipe on outlet side of the fan being obstructed by a diaphragm of cheese cloth.

Mr. Batcock says concerning these experiments: The first four experiments are evidently the subject of some error, because the efficiency, as to prove on an average that the fan was a source of power sufficient to overcome all losses and help drive the engine besides. The second series is less questionable, but still the efficiency in the first two experiments is less than might be expected. In the third and fourth series the resistance of the cheese cloth in the pipe reduces the efficiency largely, as would be expected. In this case the value has been calculated from the height equivalent water pressure, rather than the actual velocity of the air.

This record of experiments made with the disk fan shows that this fan is not adapted for use where there is any material resistance to the flow of the air. In the centrifugal fan the power used is nearly proportional to the amount of air moved under a given head, while in this fan the power required for the same number of revolutions of the fan increases very rapidly with the resistance, notwithstanding the quantity of air moved is the same time considerably reduced. In fact, from the inspection of the third and fourth series of tests, it would appear that the power required is nearly the same for a given pressure, whether more or less air be drawn. It would seem that the main advantage, if any, of the disk fan over the centrifugal fan for slight resistances consists in the fact that the delivery of air from the disk, while with centrifugal fans intended to move large quantities of air the opening is much smaller.

be seen by columns 8 and 9 of the table that the power used in much more rapidly than the cube of the velocity, as in centrifugal fans. In different experiments do not agree with each other, but a general may be assumed as about the cube root of the eleventh power.

Feet of Air removed by Exhaust Disk-wheel per minute. (Buffalo Forge Co.)

Diameter of Wheel.							
24 Inch.	30 Inch.	36 Inch.	42 Inch.	48 Inch.	54 Inch.	60 Inch.	72 Inch.
Amount of Air in cubic feet per minute.							
				4,245	6,059	8,987	14,036
				6,403	9,154	12,822	22,625
				8,686	12,410	17,467	31,267
1,307	2,096	3,594	5,007	11,098	15,832	22,392	39,166
1,684	3,339	5,550	8,021	13,641	19,408	27,327	48,066
2,014	4,042	6,621	10,233	16,315	23,147	32,565	58,386
2,375	4,908	7,755	11,915	19,119	27,018	37,997	67,985
2,770	5,636	8,930	13,967	22,053	31,112	43,632	76,900
3,197	6,516	10,210	15,489	25,127	35,338	49,467	86,900
3,656	7,446	11,490	17,381	28,325	39,727	55,132	98,000
4,148	8,428	12,816	19,345	31,515	44,377	60,401	110,000
4,671	9,456	14,355	21,375	34,310	48,992	66,992	122,000
5,221	10,536	15,776	23,420	36,940	53,858	73,000	134,000

Efficiency of Disk Fans.—Prof. A. B. W. Kennedy (*Industries, Jan.*) made a series of tests on two disk fans, 2 and 3 ft. diameter, known as *Verity Silent Air-propeller*. The principal results and conclusions are presented below.

In case the efficiency of the fan, that is, the quantity of air delivered per horse-power, increases very rapidly as the speed diminishes, lower speeds are much more economical than higher ones. On the other hand, as the quantity of air delivered per revolution is very nearly constant, the actual useful work done by the fan increases almost directly as the speed. Comparing the large and small fans with about the same speed, the former (running at a much lower speed, of course) is much more economical. Comparing the two fans running at the same speed, the smaller fan is very much the more economical. The delivery per revolution of fan is very nearly directly proportional to the area of the fan's diameter.

The air delivered per minute by the 3-ft. fan is nearly 12.5 R cubic feet (the number of revolutions made by the fan per minute). For the 2-ft. fan the quantity is 5.7 R cubic feet. For either of these or any other fans of which the area is A square feet, the delivery will be about A cubic feet. Of course any change in the pitch of the blades might change these figures.

The H. P. taken up is not far from proportional to the square of the number of revolutions above 100 per minute. Thus for the 3-ft. fan the net

$(R - 100)^2$, while for the 2-ft. fan the net H. P. is $\frac{(R - 100)^2}{1,000,000}$.

The denominators of these two fractions are very nearly proportional to the square of the fan areas or the fourth power of the fan diameter. The net H. P. required to drive a fan of diameter D feet or area A feet, at a speed of R revolutions per minute, will therefore be approximately $\frac{D^4(R - 100)^2}{17,400,000}$ or $\frac{A^2(R - 100)^2}{10,400,000}$.

The fan was noiseless at all speeds. The 3-ft. fan was also noiseless at 450 revolutions per minute.

	Propeller, 2 ft. diam.			Propeller, 3 ft. diam.		
Speed of fan, revolutions per minute.	750	676	577	576	450	375
Net H. P. to drive fan and belt	0.42	0.32	0.237	1.03	0.57	0.37
Cubic feet of air per minute.	4,183	3,830	3,410	7,400	3,800	3,000
Mean velocity of air in 3-ft. flue, feet per minute.	593	543	482	1,046	530	420
Mean velocity of air in flue, same diameter as fan.	1,330	1,220	1,085
Cu. ft. of air per min. per effective H. P.	9,980	11,970	13,000	7,350	10,070	8,100
Motion given to air per rev. of fan, ft.	1.77	1.81	1.88	1.82	1.59	1.31
Cubic feet of air per rev. of fan.	5.58	5.66	6.90	12.8	12.6	12.1

POSITIVE ROTARY BLOWERS. (P. H. & F. M. Roots.)

Size number	1 1/2	1 1/4	1 1/8	1 1/16	3/4	5/8	1/2	3/8	5/16	1/4	3/16	1/8	3/32	1/16	1/32
Cubic feet per revolution.	300	250	225	200	175	150	125	100	75	60	45	30	20	15	10
Revolutions per minute.	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to
Smith fires.	350	300	275	250	225	200	175	150	125	100	75	60	45	30	20
Furnishes blast for Smith fires.	2	6	10	16	24	32	47	70	100	150	225	350	500	750	1,000
Revolutions per minute for cupola, melting iron.
Size of cupola, inches, in- side lining.
Will melt iron per hour, tons
Horse-power required.	1	2	3 1/4	5 1/4	8	11 1/4	17 1/4	25	35	50	75	110	160	225	300

The amount of iron melted is based on 30,000 cubic feet of air per ton of iron. The horse-power is for maximum speed and a pressure of 2 1/2 lb. per sq. in. ordinary cupola pressure. (See also Foundry Practice.)

BLOWING-ENGINES.

Blast-furnace Blowing-engines of the Variable Poppet Valve Cut-off Type. (Philada. Engineering Works.)

Diameter of Steam- cylinder.	Diameter of Blowing- cylinder.	Stroke.	Shop Weights, approx- imate.	Revolu- tions, ordinary speed.	Displace- ment of Piston per minute at ordinary speed.	Maximum Blast-pres- sure for Re- gular Work.
in.	in.	in.	pounds.		cubic feet.	lbs. per sq.
28	66	36	80,000	60	8,100	10
28	66	48	90,000	50	9,500	10
32	72	48	100,000	50	11,308	12
36	72	48	130,000	50	11,308	15
36	84	48	140,000	50	15,392	11
36	84	60	165,000	40	15,392	11
42	84	48	165,000	50	15,392	15
42	96	60	190,000	40	15,392	15
42	96	48	170,000	50	17,700	18
42	96	60	195,000	40	17,700	17
48	96	48	220,000	50	20,000	17
48	96	60	280,000	40	20,000	17

The blowing-engines of the country are usually very wasteful of energy by reason of wire-drawing valve-gear, and especially of slow piston speed. The latter is perhaps the greatest and the least recognized of engine defects. Almost any expense to increase the economy of engines is warranted. (A. L. Holley, Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. iv. p. 10.)

velations of power, capacity, etc., of blowing-engines are the same for air-compressors. They are built without any provision for the air during compression. About 400 feet per minute is the usual speed for recent forms of engines, but with positive air-valves, which are introduced to some extent, this speed may be increased. The efficiency of the engine, that is, the ratio of the I.H.P. of the air cylinder to the steam cylinder, is usually taken at 90 per cent, the losses by leakage, etc., being taken at 10 per cent.

STEAM-JET BLOWER AND EXHAUSTER.

The steam-jet blower and exhauster is made by L. Schutte & Co., Philadelphia, on the principle of the steam-jet ejector. The following is a table of capacities:

Quantity of Air per hour in cubic feet.	Diameter of Pipes in inches.		Size No.	Quantity of Air per hour in cubic feet.	Diameter of Pipes in inches.	
	Steam.	Air.			Steam.	Air.
1,000	$\frac{1}{8}$	1	5	10,000	$\frac{3}{8}$	5
2,000	$\frac{3}{16}$	$1\frac{1}{8}$	6	20,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	6
4,000	$\frac{1}{4}$	2	7	40,000	$\frac{3}{4}$	6
6,000	$\frac{1}{4}$	$2\frac{1}{8}$	8	48,000	$\frac{3}{4}$	7
12,000	$\frac{1}{4}$	3	9	54,000	$\frac{3}{4}$	7
18,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{8}$	10	60,000	$\frac{3}{4}$	8
24,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	4				

impossible vacuum and counter pressure, for which the apparatus is adapted, is up to a rarefaction of 20 inches of mercury, and a counter-pressure up to one sixth of the steam-pressure.

The table of capacities is based on a steam-pressure of about 60 lbs., and a counter-pressure of about 8 lbs. With an increase of steam-pressure or of counter-pressure the capacity will largely increase.

The steam-jet blower is used for boiler-firing, ventilation, and similar purposes where a low counter-pressure or rarefaction meets the require-

ments as given in the following table of capacities are under the action of a steam-pressure of 45 lbs. and a counter-pressure of, say, of water:

Cubic feet of Air delivered per hour.	Diameter of Steam-pipe in inches.	Diameter in inches of—		Size No.	Cubic feet of Air delivered per hour	Diameter of Steam-pipe in inches.		Diameter in inches of—
		Inlet	Disch.			Inlet	Disch.	
10,000	$\frac{3}{8}$	4	8	4	250,000	1	17	14
12,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	4	6	500,000	$1\frac{1}{4}$	24	20
30,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	6	6	8	1,000,000	$1\frac{1}{2}$	32	27
60,000	$\frac{3}{4}$	11	8	10	2,000,000	2	43	36
85,000	1	14	10					

Steam-jet as a Means for Ventilation.—Between 1810 and 1850 the steam-jet was employed to a considerable extent for ventilating collieries, and in 1852 a committee of the House of Commons reported that it was the most powerful and at the same time the cheapest method for the ventilation of mines; but experiments made shortly afterwards proved that this opinion was erroneous, and that furnace ventilation was half as expensive, and in consequence the jet was soon abandoned as a permanent method of ventilation.

For a full account of these experiments see *Colliery Engineer*, Feb. 1890. The steam-jet, however, is sometimes advantageously used as a substitute, for instance, in the case of a fan standing for repairs, or after an explosion, when the furnace may not be kept going, or in the case of the fan having become useless.

HEATING AND VENTILATION.

Ventilation. (A. R. Wolff, *Stevens Indicator*, April, 1890.)—The usual impression that the impure air falls to the bottom of a crowded room is erroneous. There is a constant mingling of the fresh air admitted with the impure air due to the law of diffusion of gases, to difference of temperature, etc. The process of ventilation is one of dilution of the impure air by the fresh, and a room is properly ventilated in the opinion of the hygienists when the dilution is such that the carbonic acid in the air does not exceed from 6 to 8 parts by volume in 10,000. Pure country air contains 4 parts CO_2 in 10,000, and badly-ventilated quarters as high as 80 parts.

An ordinary man exhales 0.6 of a cubic foot of CO_2 per hour. New gas gives out 0.75 of a cubic foot of CO_2 for each cubic foot of gas burned. An ordinary lamp gives out 1 cu. ft. of CO_2 per hour. An ordinary gas stove gives out 0.3 cu. ft. per hour. One ordinary gaslight equals in the effect about $5\frac{1}{4}$ men, an ordinary lamp $1\frac{3}{4}$ men, and an ordinary coal fire 1 man.

To determine the quantity of air to be supplied to the inmates of a lighted room, to dilute the air to a desired standard of purity, we can establish equations as follows:

Let v = cubic feet of fresh air to be supplied per hour;

r = cubic feet of CO_2 in each 10,000 cu. ft. of the entering air;

R = cubic feet of CO_2 which each 10,000 cu. ft. of the air in the room may contain for proper health conditions;

n = number of persons in the room;

.6 = cubic feet of CO_2 exhaled by one man per hour.

Then $\frac{v \times r}{10,000} + .6n$ equals cubic feet of CO_2 communicated to the room during one hour.

This value divided by v and multiplied by 10,000 gives the proportion of CO_2 in 10,000 parts of the air in the room, and this should equal R , the standard of purity desired. Therefore

$$R = \frac{10,000 \left[\frac{v \times r}{10,000} + .6n \right]}{v}, \text{ or } v = \frac{6000n}{R - r} \dots$$

If we place r at 4 and R at 6, $v = \frac{6000}{6 - 4} n = 3000n, \dots$

or the quantity of air to be supplied per person is 3000 cubic feet per hour.

If the original air in the room is of the purity of external air, and the contents of the room is equal to 100 cu. ft. per inmate, only 3000 - 100 = 2900 cu. ft. of fresh air from without will have to be supplied the first hour to keep the air within the standard purity of 6 parts of CO_2 in 10,000. The cubic contents of the room equals 200 cu. ft. per inmate, only 3000 - 200 = 2800 cu. ft. will have to be supplied the first hour to keep the air within standard purity, and so on.

Again, if we only desire to maintain a standard of purity of 8 parts carbonic acid in 10,000, equation (1) gives as the required air-supply per

$$v = \frac{6000}{8 - 4} n = 1500n, \text{ or } 1500 \text{ cu. ft. of fresh air per inmate per hour.}$$

Cubic feet of air containing 4 parts of carbonic acid in 10,000 necessary per person per hour to keep the air in room at the composition of

6	7	8	9	10	15	20	} parts of carbonic acid in 10,000 cubic feet.
8000	2000	1500	1200	1000	645	375	

If the original air in the room is of purity of external atmosphere (of carbonic acid in 10,000), the amount of air to be supplied the first hour for given cubic spaces per inmate, to have given standards of purity exceeded at the end of the hour is obtained from the following table:

Cubic Feet of Space in Room per Individual.	Proportion of Carbonic Acid in 10,000 Parts of the Air, not to be Exceeded at End of Hour.						
	6	7	8	9	10	15	20
	Cubic Feet of Air, of Composition 4 Parts of Carbonic Acid in 10,000, to be Supplied the First Hour.						
100	2900	1900	1400	1100	900	445	275
200	2200	1800	1300	1000	800	345	175
300	2700	1700	1200	900	700	245	75
400	2600	1600	1100	800	600	145	None
500	2500	1500	1000	700	500	15
600	2400	1400	900	600	400	None
700	2300	1300	800	500	300
800	2200	1200	700	400	200
900	2100	1100	600	300	100
1000	2000	1000	500	200	None
1500	1500	500	None	None
2000	1000	None
2500	500

is exceptional that systematic ventilation supplies the 3000 cubic feet of air per hour, which adequate health considerations demand. Large auditoriums in which the cubic space per individual is great, and in which the atmosphere is thoroughly fresh before the rooms are occupied, and the occupancy is of two or three hours' duration, the systematic air supply may be reduced, and 2000 to 2500 cubic feet per inmate per hour is a satisfactory average.

Hospitals where, on account of unhealthy excretions of various kinds, the ventilation must be largest, an air-supply of from 4000 to 6000 cubic feet per inmate per hour should be provided, and this is actually secured in some hospitals. A report dated March 15, 1882, by a commission appointed to examine the public schools of the District of Columbia, says:

"In each class-room not less than 15 square feet of floor-space should be allotted to each pupil. In each class-room the window-space should not be less than one fourth the floor-space, and the distance of desk most remote from the window should not be more than one and a half times the height of the top of the window from the floor. The height of the class room should not exceed 14 feet. The provisions for ventilation should be such as to provide for each person in a class-room not less than 30 cubic feet of fresh air per minute (1800 per hour), which amount must be introduced and thoroughly distributed without creating unpleasant draughts, or causing any part of the room to differ in temperature more than 2° Fahr., or the maximum temperature to exceed 70° Fahr."

When the air enters at or near the floor, it is desirable that the velocity of the air should not exceed 2 feet per second, which means larger sizes of inlet openings and flues than are usually obtainable, and much higher velocities of inlet than two feet per second are the rule in practice. The velocity of current into vent-flues can safely be as high as 6 or even 10 feet per second, without being disagreeably perceptible.

The entrance of fresh air into a room is co-incident with, or dependent on, the removal of an equal amount of air from the room. The ordinary means of removal is the vertical vent-duct, rising to the top of the building. Some reliance for the production of the current in this vent-duct is placed only on the difference of temperature of the air in the room and that of the external atmosphere; sometimes a steam coil is placed within the flue or at its bottom to heat the air within the duct; sometimes steam pipes pass and return, run up the duct performing the same functions; or steam is introduced within the flue, or exhaust fans, driven by steam or electric power, act as exhausters; sometimes the heating of the air in the flue is accomplished by gas-jets.

A draft of such a duct is caused by the difference of weight of the

heated air in the duct, and a column of equal height and cross-section of weight of the external air.

Let d = density, or weight in pounds, of a cubic foot of the external air;
 Let d_1 = density, or weight in pounds, of a cubic foot of the air within the duct.

Let h = vertical height, in feet, of the vent-duct.

$h(d - d_1)$ = the pressure, in pounds per square foot, with which the air is forced into and out of the vent-duct.

This pressure can be expressed in height of a column of the air within the vent-duct, and evidently the height of such column of pressure would be $\frac{h(d - d_1)}{d_1}$.

Or, if t = absolute temperature of external air, and t_1 = absolute temperature of the air in vent-duct in the form, then the pressure equals

$$\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{t}.$$

The theoretical velocity, in feet per second, with which the air travels through the vent-duct under this pressure is

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh(t_1 - t)}{t}} = 8.02 \sqrt{\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{t}}.$$

The actual velocity will be considerably less than this, on account of friction. This friction will vary with the form and cross-section area of the vent duct and its connections, and with the degree of roughness of its interior surface. On this account, as well as to prevent the loss of air through crevices in the wall, tin lining of vent-flues is desirable.

The loss by friction may be estimated at approximately 50%, and the actual velocity of the air as it flows through the vent-duct

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2gh(t_1 - t)}{t}}, \text{ or, approximately, } v = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{t}}.$$

If V = velocity of air in vent-duct, in feet per minute, and the air be at 32° Fahr., since the absolute temperature on Fahrenheit scale is thermometric temperature plus 459.4,

$$V = 240 \sqrt{\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{459.4}},$$

from which has been computed the following table:

Quantity of Air, in Cubic Feet, Discharged per Hour through a Ventilating Duct, of which the Cross-sectional Area is One Square Foot (the External Temperature of Air being 32° Fahr.).

Height of Vent-duct in feet.	Excess of Temperature of Air in Vent-duct above External Air.							
	5°	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°	50°	100°
10	77	108	133	158	171	188	242	342
15	94	133	162	188	210	230	297	418
20	108	153	188	217	242	263	342	485
25	121	171	210	242	271	297	383	541
30	133	188	230	265	297	325	419	595
35	143	203	248	286	320	351	453	640
40	153	217	265	306	342	375	484	683
45	162	230	282	325	363	396	504	707
50	171	242	297	342	383	419	541	747

Multiplying the figures in above table by 60 gives the cubic feet discharged per hour per square foot of cross-section of vent-duct.

cross-sectional area of vent-ducts we can find the total discharge; or, if direct air-removal, we can proportion the cross-sectional area of ducts required.

Actual Cooling of Air for Ventilation. (*Engineering* July 7, 1892.)—A pound of coal used to make steam for a fairly efficient refrigerating-machine can produce an actual cooling effect equal to that produced by the melting of 16 to 46 lbs. of ice, the amount varying with conditions of working. Or, 855 heat-units per lb. of coal converted into ice in the refrigerating plant (at the rate of 3 lbs. coal per horse-power) will abstract 2275 to 6545 heat-units of heat from the refrigerated air. If we allow 3000 cu. ft. of fresh air per hour per person as sufficient for fair ventilation, with the air at an initial temperature of 80° F., its weight per cubic foot will be .0736 lb.; hence the hourly supply per person will be $3000 \times .0736$ lb. = 147.2 lbs. To cool this 10°, the specific heat of air 0.238, will require the abstraction of $147.2 \times 0.238 \times 10 = 350$ heat-units per person per hour.

If the figures given for the refrigerating effect per pound of coal as stated, and the required abstraction of 350 heat-units per person per hour, have a satisfactory cooling effect, the refrigeration obtained from a ton of coal will produce this cooling effect for $2275 \div 350 = 6.5$ hours with the most efficient working, or $6545 \div 350 = 18.7$ hours with the least efficient. With ice at \$5 per ton, Mr. Wolff computes the cost of cooling with ice at \$5 per hour per thousand persons, and concludes that this is too high for any general use. With mechanical refrigeration, however, if we allow 10 hours' cooling per person per pound of coal as a fair practical figure for regular work, we have an expense of only 15 cts. per thousand persons per hour, coal being estimated at \$3 per short ton. This is for fuel and the various items of oil, attendance, interest, and depreciation on the machinery, etc., must be considered in making up the actual total cost of mechanical refrigeration.

VENTILATION—Friction of Air in Underground Pass-

age.—In ventilating a mine or other underground passage the resistance to the air is, according to most writers on the subject, proportional to the area of the frictional surface exposed; that is, to the product *la* of the length of the gangway by its perimeter, to the density of the air in circulation, to the square of its average speed, *v*, and lastly to a coefficient *k*, whose value varies according to the nature of the sides of the gangway and the irregularities of its course.

For the loss of head, neglecting the variation in density as a factor, is $p = \frac{kav^3}{a}$, in which *p* = loss of pressure in pounds per square

foot of rubbing-surface exposed to the air, *v* the velocity of the air in feet per minute, *a* the area of the passage in square feet, and *k* the coefficient of friction. W. Fairley, in *Colliery Engineers*, Oct. and Nov., 1891, gives the following formula for all the quantities involved, using the notation as the above, with these additions: *h* = horse-power of ventilator; *l* = length of air-channel; *u* = perimeter of air-channel; *q* = quantity of air circulating in cubic feet per minute; *n* = units of work, in foot-pounds, applied to circulate the air; *w* = water-gauge in inches. Then,

$$1. \alpha = \frac{kav^3}{p} = \frac{kav^3q}{u} = \frac{kav^3}{pv} = \frac{u}{v}.$$

$$2. h = \frac{u}{33,000} = \frac{qp}{33,000} = \frac{5.2qv}{33,000}.$$

$$3. k = \frac{pa}{av^3} = \frac{u}{av^3} = \frac{p}{av^3 + \alpha} = \frac{5.2v}{av^3 + \alpha}.$$

$$4. l = \frac{s}{\alpha} = \frac{pa}{kav^3}.$$

$$5. o = \frac{\pi}{f} = \frac{pa}{kav^3}.$$

$$6. p = \frac{kav^3}{a} = \frac{u}{q} = 5.2v = \left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{n}{kq}} \right)^3 \frac{u}{a} = \frac{kav^3}{q} = \frac{u}{av}.$$

$$11. v = \frac{u}{pu} = \frac{q}{a} = \sqrt{\frac{u}{ks}} = \sqrt{\frac{qu}{ks}} = \sqrt{\frac{pa}{ks}}$$

$$12. v^2 = \frac{pa}{ks} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{u}{ks}} \right)^2$$

$$13. v^3 = \frac{u}{ks} = \frac{qu}{ks} = \frac{vpa}{ks}$$

$$14. w = \frac{p}{5.2} = \frac{kst^2}{5.2d}$$

To find the quantity of air with a given horse-power and engine:

$$q = \frac{h \times 33,000 \times e}{p}$$

The value of k , the coefficient of friction, as stated, varies with the nature of the sides of the gangway. Widely divergent values have been given by different authorities (see *Colliery Engineer*, Nov., 1891, p. 100), the generally accepted one until recently being probably that of .000000217, which is the pressure per square foot in decimals on each square foot of rubbing-surface and a velocity of one foot per second. Mr. Fairley, in his "Theory and Practice of Ventilating Coal Mines," gives a value less than half of Atkinson's, or .0000001; and recent experiments of Murgue show that even this value is high under most conditions. The results are given in his paper on Experimental Investigations of the Head of Air currents in Underground Workings, Trans. Am. Soc. Min. Eng., vol. xxiii, 63. His coefficients are given in the following table, based on twelve experiments:

		Coefficient of friction
		Head in feet
		French
Rock gangways.	Straight, normal section0000217
	Straight, normal section000014
	Straight, large section00104
	Straight, normal section00123
Brick-lined	Straight, normal section00030
	Straight, normal section00030

h in square feet of equivalent orifice.

$$\frac{Q}{w} = \frac{Q}{2.7 \sqrt{w}}; \quad Q = \frac{A \times \sqrt{w}}{0.37}; \quad w = 0.1369 \times \left(\frac{Q}{A}\right)^2.$$

Column or the Head of Air Due to Differences of Temperature, etc. (Fairley.)

Height of column in feet;

Temperature of upcast;

Weight of one cubic foot of the flowing air;

Temperature of downcast;

Height of downcast.

$$\frac{T - t}{T \times 459} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{5.2 \times w}{f}; \quad p = f \times M; \quad w = \frac{f \times M}{5.2} = \frac{p}{5.2}.$$

Diameter of a round airway to pass the same amount of air as a square airway of the same length and power remaining the same:

D = diameter of round airway; A = area of square airway; O = perimeter of square airway. Then $D^2 = \sqrt[5]{\frac{A^2 \times 3.1416}{.7854 \times O}}$

$$\text{airway. Then } D^2 = \sqrt[5]{\frac{A^2 \times 3.1416}{.7854 \times O}}$$

are employed to ventilate a mine, each of which when worked produces a certain quantity, which may be indicated by A and B the quantity of air that will pass when the two fans are worked together by B^2 . (For mine-ventilating fans, see page 521.)

Efficiency of Fans and Heated Chimneys for

W. P. Frowbridge, Trans. A. S. M. E. vii, 531, gives a theory of the relative amounts of heat expended to remove a given quantity of pure air by a fan and by a chimney. Assuming the total efficiency to be only 1.5, which is made up of an efficiency of 1/10 for the fan itself, and 8/10 for efficiency as regards friction, the expenditure of heat to drive it of only 1/38 of the amount required to produce the same ventilation by a chimney 100 ft. high the fan will be 7.6 times more efficient.

For moderate ventilation of rooms or buildings where the air is not very stale and spontaneous ventilation is not

etc., is calculated as follows:

S = amount of transmitting surface in square feet;

t = temperature F. inside, t_o = temperature outside;

K = a coefficient representing, for various materials composed of, the loss by transmission per square foot of surface, in thermal units per hour, for each degree of difference of temperature on the two sides of the material;

Q = total heat transmission = $SK(t - t_o)$.

This quantity of heat is also the amount that must be added to the room in order to make good the loss by transmission, but in addition the additional heat to be conveyed on account of the changes of temperature by the German Government in the design of the heating of public buildings, and generally used in Germany for all buildings, have been converted into American units by Mr. Wolff, and they agree well with good American practice:

VALUE OF K FOR EACH SQUARE FOOT OF BRICK WALL

Thickness of brick wall.	4"	8"	12"	16"	20"	24"	28"	32"
--------------------------	----	----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

K	0.68	0.46	0.33	0.26	0.23	0.20	0.174	0.15
-----	------	------	------	------	------	------	-------	------

1 sq. ft., wooden-beam construction, planked over or ceiled,	as flooring
--	-------------

1 sq. ft., fireproof construction, floored over,	as flooring
--	-------------

1 sq. ft., single window	as ceiling
--------------------------	------------

1 sq. ft., single skylight	as ceiling
----------------------------	------------

1 sq. ft., double window	as ceiling
--------------------------	------------

1 sq. ft., double skylight	as ceiling
----------------------------	------------

1 sq. ft., door	as ceiling
-----------------	------------

These coefficients are to be increased respectively as follows: 10% when the building is heated during the daytime only, and the location of the building is not an exposed one; 30% when heated during the daytime only, and the location of the building is exposed; 50% when the building is heated during the winter months only, with long intervals (say days or weeks) of non-heating.

The value of the radiating surface is about as follows: For cast-iron radiating surfaces, in American radiators (of the

heated to 69°, except a double skylight in ceiling, 14 × 24 ft., outside temperature of 0°. Store-room beyond east wall at 12 ft. in wall. Corridor beyond south wall heated to 69°. 12. in wall. Cellar below, temperature 36°. The table shows the calculation of heat transmission:

of Transmitting Surface.	Thickness of Wall in inches.	Calculation of Area of Transmitting Surface.	Square feet of Surface.	$K(t - t_o)$.	Thermal Units.
wall.....	36"	$63 \times 22 = 448$	938	9	8,442
ndows (single).....		$4 \times 8 \times 14$	448	72	32,256
wall (store-room).....	36"	$42 \times 22 = 72$	852	4	3,408
		6×12	72	18	1,368
wall (corridor).....	24"	$45 \times 23 = 72$	918	2	1,836
		6×12	72	5	360
wall (corridor).....	36"	$17 \times 22 = 72$	802	1	302
		6×12	72	5	360
		$32 \times 42 = 336$	1,008	10	10,080
skylight.....		14×24	336	43	14,448
		62×42	2,604	4	10,416
Contingency allowances, north outside wall, 10%.....					82,470
" " " north outside windows, 10%.....					814
" " " location and intermittent day or night use, 30% ...					3,228
" " " thermal units					87,346
					20,304
					118,550

so that the lecture-room must be heated to 69 degrees Fahr. when unoccupied, so as to be at this temperature when first occupied, there will be required, ventilation not being considered, and low-pressure steam radiators being the heating media, about 455 sq. ft. of radiating-surface. (This gives a ratio of about 100 sq. ft. of room for each sq. ft. of heating-surface.)

so that there are 160 persons in the lecture-room, and we provide 160 cubic feet of fresh air per person per hour, we will supply 160 × 160 = 25,600 cubic feet of air per hour (i.e., $\frac{400,000}{16,000}$ = over eight changes of air per hour).

air from 0° Fahr. to 69° Fahr. will require $400,000 \times 0.0189 \times 69$ thermal units per hour (0.0189 being the product of a weight of 1 lb. of air by the specific heat of air). Accordingly there must be provided 1304 sq. ft. of indirect surface, to heat the air required for zero weather. If the room were to be warmed entirely indirectly by the air supplied to room (including the heat to be conveyed by transmission through walls, etc.), there would have to be a fresh-air supply $321,640 + 118,550 = 440,190$ heat-units. This is the provision of an amount of indirect heating-surface of the order of $440,190 \div 400 = 1,100$ sq. ft., and the fresh air entering the room have to be at a temperature of about 64° Fahr., viz., $69^\circ = 64^\circ$ or $69 \div 15 = 84^\circ$ Fahr.

calculations do not, however, take into account that 160 persons in the lecture-room give out $160 \times 400 = 64,000$ thermal units per hour; 50 electric lights give out $50 \times 1600 = 80,000$ thermal units per hour; 50 gaslights, $50 \times 4800 = 240,000$ thermal units per hour. The heat given out by the people and the gas-lighting would diminish considerably the amount of heat required. Practically, it appears that the heat generated by the people, 64,000 heat-units, and by 50 electric lights, 80,000 heat-units, a total of 144,000 heat-units, more than covers the amount of heat lost by transmission through walls, etc. Moreover, that if the 50 gaslights give out 240,000 thermal units per hour, the air supplied for ventilation must be below 69° Fahr., or the room will be heated to an excessive temperature. If 400,000 cubic feet of fresh air per hour

are supplied, and 240,000 thermal units per hour generated by them be abstracted, it means that the air must, under these conditions

$\frac{240,000}{210,000} = \text{about } 32^\circ \text{ less than } 84^\circ, \text{ or at about } 52^\circ \text{ Fahrenheit.}$
 more, the additional vitiation due to gaslighting would necessitate a larger supply of fresh air than when the vitiation of the atmosphere by people alone is considered, one gaslight vitiating the air as much as ten men.

Various Rules for Computing Radiating-surface.—The following rules are compiled from various sources. They are of the nature of "rule-of-thumb" rules than those given by Mr. Woodcock, but they may be useful for comparison.

Divide the cubic feet of space of the room to be heated, the square feet of wall surface, and the square feet of the glass surface by the figures given under these headings in the following table, and add the results together; the result will be the square feet of radiating-surface required. (F. Schumann.)

SPACE, WALL AND GLASS SURFACE WHICH ONE SQUARE FOOT OF SURFACE WILL HEAT.

Air Change.	Steam-pressure in pounds	Space in cubic feet.	Exposure of Rooms.				
			All Sides.		Northwest.		South.
			Wall Surface, sq. ft.	Glass Surface, sq. ft.	Wall Surface, sq. ft.	Glass Surface, sq. ft.	Wall Surface, sq. ft.
Once per hour.	1	180	13.8	7	15.67	8.05	16.56
	3	210	15.0	7.7	17.35	8.85	18.08
	5	235	16.5	8.5	18.97	9.77	19.80
Twice per hour.	1	75	11.1	5.7	12.76	6.55	13.32
	3	82	12.1	6.2	13.91	7.13	14.58
	5	90	13.0	6.7	14.92	7.60	15.60

EMISSION OF HEAT-UNITS PER SQUARE FOOT PER HOUR FROM CAST-IRON RADIATORS. TEMP. OF AIR IN ROOM, 70° F. (F. Schumann.)

Mean Temperature of Heated Pipe, Radiator, etc.	By Contact.		By Radiation.	By Conduction.
	Air quiet.	Air moving.		
Hot water..... 140°	55.51	92.52	59.63	115.14
" " " " " 150°	65.45	109.18	69.69	133.11
" " " " " 160°	75.08	126.13	80.19	151.47
" " " " " 170°	85.18	143.30	91.12	170.80
" " " " " 180°	96.03	161.55	102.15	190.43
" " " " " 190°	107.00	179.83	114.45	209.55
" " " " " 200°	119.13	198.55	127.00	228.13
" " " " " or steam, 210°	130.49	217.48	139.06	247.40
Steam..... 220°	142.30	237.00	155.27	267.47
" " " " " 230°	153.95	256.58	169.56	287.51
" " " " " 240°	165.90	276.83	184.54	307.68
" " " " " 250°	178.00	296.05	200.18	327.19
" " " " " 260°	189.90	316.50	214.38	346.26
" " " " " 270°	202.70	337.48	233.42	366.14
" " " " " 280°	215.30	358.85	251.21	386.51
" " " " " 290°	228.15	380.91	267.73	406.29
" " " " " 300°	240.85	401.41	279.32	426.50

THE SURFACE REQUIRED FOR DIFFERENT KINDS OF BUILDINGS. (From the Dubuque Steam Supply Co., External Air 0° F. Chas. A. Mfg. Co.)

Cubic ft. of Room heated by 1 sq. ft. of Surface.		Cubic ft. of Room heated by 1 sq. ft. of Surface.	
Direct System.	Indirect System.	Direct System.	Indirect System.
Wholesale.....	50	Banks, offices, drug-stores	70
retail.....	125	Large hotels.....	125
Total.....	100	Churches.....	200
	80		150

Chas. A. Mfg. Co.'s catalogue gives the following: One square foot of surface will heat from 40 to 100 cu. ft. of space to 75° in — 10° latitudes. It is intended to meet conditions of exposed or corner rooms of buildings, and those less so, as intermediate ones of a block. As a general rule, 1 sq. ft. of surface will heat 70 cu. ft. of air in outer or front rooms and 100 in inner rooms. In large stores in cities with buildings on each side 100 is ample.

APPROXIMATE PROPORTIONS OF RADIATING-SURFACES.

One square foot radiating-surface will heat:

	In dwellings, schoolrooms, offices, etc.	In hall, stores, lofts, factories, etc.	In churches, large auditoriums, etc.
Per radiation...	60 to 80 ft.	75 to 100 ft.	150 to 200 ft.
Per foot radiation.	40 to 60 "	50 to 70 "	100 to 140 "

Buildings exposed to prevailing north or west winds should have an addition made to the heating-surface on their exposed sides. The following rule is given in the catalogue of the Babcock & Wilcox Co., and is recommended by the Nason Mfg. Co.:

The heating-surface may be calculated by the rule: Add together the square glass in the windows, the number of cubic feet of air required to be heated per minute, and one twentieth the surface of external wall and multiply this sum by the difference between the required temperature of the room and that of the external air at its lowest point, and divide the result by the difference in temperature between the steam in the pipes and the required temperature of the room. The quotient is the required heating-surface in square feet.

Head Steam-pipes. (A. R. Wolff, *Stevens Indicator*, 1887.)—In overhead system of steam-heating is employed, in which system radiating pipes, usually 1½ in. in diam., are placed in rows overhead, supported upon horizontal racks, the pipes running horizontally, and side by side around the whole interior of the building, from 2 to 3 ft. from the floor and from 2 to 4 ft. from the ceiling, the amount of 1½ in. pipe required according to Mr. C. J. H. Woodbury, for heating mills (for which system is deservedly much in vogue), is about 1 ft. in length for 10 cu. ft. of space. Of course a great range of difference exists, the special character of the operating machinery in the mill, both in the amount of air circulated by the machinery, and also the aid to the room by the friction of the journals.

Foot Heating-surface.—J. H. Kinealy, in *Heating and Ventilation*, May 15, 1891, gives the following formula, deduced from results of experiments by C. B. Richards, W. J. Baldwin, J. H. Mills, and others, upon heaters of various kinds, supplied with varying amounts of air per square foot of surface:

$$T_2 = \frac{35.04}{T_2 - T_1 - 0.369} ; T_2 = (T_0 - T_1) \left(0.809 + \frac{35.04}{N} \right) + T_1.$$

T_0 = cubic feet of air, reduced to 70° F., supplied to the heater persquare foot of heating-surface per hour;
 T_1 = temperature of the steam or water in the heater;
 T_2 = temperature of the air when it enters the heater;
 N = temperature of the air when it leaves the heater.

The formula is based upon an average of experiments made with indirect heaters, the results obtained by the use of the formula in cases be slightly too small and in others slightly too

although the error will in no case be great. No single formula ought to be expected to apply equally well to all dispositions of heating surface and direct heaters, as the efficiency of such heater can be varied between wide limits by the construction and arrangement of the surface.

In indirect heating, the efficiency of the radiating surface will increase and the temperature of the air will diminish, when the quantity of heat caused to pass through the coil increases. Thus 1 sq. ft. radiating surface with steam at 212°, has been found to heat 100 cu. ft. of air per hour from zero to 150°, or 800 cu. ft. from zero to 100° in the same time. The best results are attained by using indirect radiation to supply the necessary ventilation, and direct radiation for the balance of the heat. (Steam.)

In indirect steam-heating the least flue area should be 1 to 1½ sq. ft. to every square foot of heating-surface, provided there are no long horizontal reaches in the duct, with little rise. The register should have two-thirds area of the duct to allow for the fretwork. For hot water heating flues to 50% more heating-surface and flue area should be given than for pressure steam. (*Engineering Record*, May 26, 1894.)

Boiler Heating-surface Required. (A. R. Wolff, *Street Locomotor*, 1887.)—When the direct system is used to heat buildings in which the street floor is a store, and the upper floors are devoted to sales and show-rooms and to light manufacturing, and in which the fronts are of stone, iron, and the sides and the rear of building of brick—a safe rule to follow is to supply 1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface for each 700 cu. ft., and 1 sq. ft. of radiating-surface for each 100 cu. ft. of contents of building.

For heating interior shops and factories, 1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface should be supplied for each 475 cu. ft. of contents of building; and the allowance should also be made for heating exposed wooden dwellings. Heating foundries and wooden shops, 1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface should be provided for each 400 cu. ft. of contents; and for structures which glass enters very largely in the construction—such as conservatories, exhibition buildings, and the like—1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface should be provided for each 275 cu. ft. of contents of building.

When the indirect system is employed, the radiator-surface and the capacity to be provided will each have to be, on an average, about 25% than where direct radiation is used. This percentage also marks approximately the increased fuel consumption in the indirect system.

Steam (Babcock & Wilcox Co.) has the following: 1 sq. ft. of boiler will supply from 7 to 10 sq. ft. of radiating-surface, depending upon the boiler and the efficiency of its surface, as well as that of the radiating-surface. Small boilers for house use should be much larger proportion than large plants. Each horse-power of boiler will supply from 100 to 150 ft. of 1-in. steam pipe, or 80 to 120 sq. ft. of radiating surface. Guide in determining the radiating-surface required, is the following: 1 sq. ft. of radiating-surface will supply 1 horse-power factor for rough calculations. Under ordinary conditions, 1 sq. ft. of radiating-surface will supply 1 horse-power will heat, approximately, 18—

Brick dwellings, in blocks, as in cities	15,000	to	20,000 cu.
" stores " "	10,000	"	15,000 "
" dwellings, exposed all round	10,000	"	15,000 "
" mills, shops, factories, etc.	7,000	"	10,000 "
Wooden dwellings, exposed	7,000	"	10,000 "
Foundries and wooden shops	6,000	"	10,000 "
Exhibition buildings, largely glass, etc.	4,000	"	15,000 "

Proportion of Grate-surface to Radiator-surface.

(J. R. Willett, *Heating and Ventilation*, Feb. 1894.)

Radiator-surf., sq. ft.	100	200	400	600	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800
Grate-surface, sq. in.	120	208	362	501	630	754	872	986	1100	1211

Steam-consumption in Car-heating.

C., M. & ST. PAUL RAILWAY TESTS. (*Engineering*, June 27, 1900, p. 7)

Inside Temperature.	Inside Temperature.	Water of Condensation per Car per Hr.
70	70	75 lbs.
70	70	85
70	70	100

Internal Diameters of Steam Supply-mains, with Total Resistance equal to 2 inches of Water-column.*

atm. Pressure 10 lbs. per square inch above atm., Temperature 239° F.

Formula, $d = 0.5374 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2}{h}}$; where d = internal diameter in inches;

Q = cubic feet of steam per minute per 100 sq. ft. of radiating surface;

h = length of mains in feet; h = 159.3 feet head of steam to produce flow.

Internal Diameters in inches for Lengths of Mains from 1 ft. to 600 ft.

1 ft.	10 ft.	20 ft.	40 ft.	60 ft.	80 ft.	100 ft.	200 ft.	300 ft.	400 ft.	600 ft.
inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.
0.075	0.119	0.136	0.157	0.170	0.180	0.182	0.216	0.234	0.248	0.270
0.19	0.30	0.34	0.39	0.43	0.45	0.47	0.54	0.59	0.62	0.68
0.25	0.38	0.45	0.52	0.56	0.60	0.62	0.72	0.78	0.82	0.89
0.32	0.52	0.60	0.69	0.74	0.79	0.82	0.95	1.03	1.09	1.18
0.39	0.61	0.71	0.81	0.87	0.93	0.97	1.11	1.21	1.28	1.39
0.43	0.68	0.79	0.90	0.98	1.04	1.09	1.25	1.35	1.43	1.55
0.47	0.75	0.86	0.99	1.07	1.14	1.19	1.36	1.48	1.57	1.70
0.52	0.79	1.14	1.30	1.41	1.50	1.57	1.80	1.95	2.07	2.24
0.73	1.16	1.34	1.53	1.66	1.76	1.84	2.12	2.30	2.43	2.64
0.83	1.30	1.50	1.72	1.86	1.98	2.07	2.37	2.57	2.73	2.96
0.90	1.43	1.64	1.88	2.04	2.16	2.25	2.60	2.81	2.98	3.23
0.97	1.53	1.76	2.03	2.20	2.35	2.45	2.79	3.03	3.21	3.46
1.09	1.72	1.98	2.27	2.46	2.61	2.73	3.13	3.40	3.60	3.90
1.12	1.68	2.16	2.48	2.69	2.85	2.98	3.43	3.71	3.94	4.27
1.35	2.04	2.33	2.67	2.90	3.07	3.21	3.68	4.00	4.28	4.59
1.38	2.15	2.47	2.84	3.09	3.26	3.41	3.92	4.25	4.50	4.84
1.43	2.27	2.61	3.00	3.25	3.44	3.60	4.13	4.49	4.75	5.15
1.50	2.38	2.74	3.14	3.41	3.61	3.78	4.34	4.70	4.98	5.40
1.57	2.48	2.85	3.25	3.53	3.73	3.93	4.52	4.90	5.19	5.63
1.64	2.52	3.30	3.65	4.18	4.43	4.63	5.32	5.77	6.11	6.63
2.07	3.23	3.76	4.32	4.69	4.96	5.19	5.96	6.47	6.83	7.44

From Robert Briggs's paper on American Practice of Warming Buildings (Proc. Inst. C. E., 1892, vol. lxxii).

For other resistances and pressures above atmosphere multiply by the

active factors below:

For col. 6 in. 12 in. 24 in. | Press. ab. atm. 0.1ba. 3 lbs. 30 lbs. 60 lbs.

Multiply by 0.8027 0.6088 0.6084 | Multiply by 1.023 1.015 0.973 0.948

Registers and Cold-air Ducts for Indirect Steam Heating.

The *Locomotive* gives the following table of openings for registers and air ducts, which has been found to give satisfactory results. The cold-ducts should have $1\frac{1}{2}$ sq. in. area for each square foot of radiator surface, never less than $3\frac{1}{4}$ the sectional area of the hot air ducts. The hot air ducts should have 2 sq. in. of sectional area to each square foot of radiator surface on the first floor, and from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches on the second floor.

Radiating Surface in Stacks.	Cold-air Supply, First Floor.		Size Register.	Cold-air Supply, 2d Floor.
square feet	45 square inches =	60 square inches =	8 by 12	4 by 10
10	60	80	8 by 10	4 by 14
20	75	100	10 by 14	5 by 15
30	90	120	12 by 15	6 by 15
40	108	144	12 by 19	6 by 18
50	120	160	12 by 23	8 by 15
60	135	180	14 by 21	9 by 15
70	150	200	16 by 20	12 by 12

These in the table approximate to the rules given, and it will be found that they will allow an easy flow of air and a full distribution throughout the room to be heated.

Physical Properties of Steam and Condensed Water under Conditions of Ordinary Practice in Warming Steam. (Briggs.)

A	Steam pressure above atm. per square inch total.....	lbs.	0	3	10	30
		lbs.	14.7	17.7	24.7	44.7
B	Temperature of steam.....	Fahr.	212°	229°	239°	274°
C	Temperature of air.....	Fahr.	60°	60°	60°	60°
D	Difference = B - C.....	Fahr.	152°	169°	179°	214°
E	Heat given out per minute per 100 sq. ft. of radiating-surface = D × 3	units	456	486	537	642
F	Latent heat of steam.....	Fahr.	905°	958°	940°	921°
G	Volume of 1 lb. weight of steam	cu. ft.	26.4	22.1	16.2	9.24
H	Weight of 1 cubic foot of steam	lb.	0.0390	0.0452	0.0618	0.102
J	Volume Q of steam per minute to give out E units = E × G ÷ F.	cu. ft.	12.43	11.21	9.30	6.44
K	Weight of 1 cubic foot of condensed water at temperature B.	lbs.	59.64	59.51	59.03	58.00
L	Volume of condensed water to return to boiler per minute = J × H ÷ K.	cu. ft.	0.0079	0.0085	0.0096	0.0102
M	Head of steam equivalent to 12 inches water-column = K ÷ H.	feet	1569	1317	955.5	586.7
STEAM-SUPPLY MAINS.						
N	Head h of steam, equivalent to assumed 2 inches water-column for producing steam flow Q, = M ÷ 6.	feet	261.5	219.5	159.3	97.8
P	Internal diameter d of tube* for flow Q when l = 1 foot.	inch	0.424	0.461	0.474	0.460
R	Do. do. when l = 100 feet.	inch	1.217	1.207	1.190	1.136
S	Ratio of values of d.	ratio	1.023	1.018	1.000	0.972
WATER-RETURN MAINS.						
T	Head h assumed at 1/2-inch water-column for producing full-bore water-flow Q.	feet	0.0417	0.0417	0.0417	0.0417
U	Internal diameter d of tube* for flow Q when l = 1 foot.	inch	0.147	0.151	0.154	0.157
V	Do. do. when l = 100 feet.	inch	0.3924	0.379	0.366	0.353
W	Ratio of values of d....	ratio	0.926	0.952	1.000	1.026

* P, R, U, V are each determined from the formula $d = 0.5774 \sqrt{Q}$.

Size of Steam Pipes for Steam Heating. (See also *Table of Steam in Pipes*.)—Sizes of vertical main pipes. Direct radiation. (Willmet, *Heating and Ventilation*, Feb., 1894.)

Diameter of pipe, inches. 1 1½ 2 2½ 3 3½ 4 5
Sq. ft. of radiator surface 40 70 110 220 360 560 810 1110 1500

A horizontal branch pipe for a given extent of radiator surface should be at least as large as a vertical pipe for the same surface.

The Nason Mfg. Co. gives the following:

Diameter of pipe, in. 1½ 2 2½ 3 3½ 4 5
Radiator surface sq. ft. (maximum) 125 200 300 400 500 600 700

When return and air faces are very much above the boiler the latter may be as large as given above, under very favorable conditions.

a 4-inch pipe may supply from 2000 to 2500 sq. ft. of surface, a 6-inch for 3000 sq. ft., and a 10-inch pipe for 15,000 to 20,000 sq. ft., if the run from boiler is not too great. Less than 1½-inch pipe should be run horizontally in a main unless for a single radiator connection. By the Babcock & Wilcox Co., says: Where the condensed water is to be returned to the boiler, or where low pressure of steam is used, the diameters leading from the boiler to the radiating surface should be equal to one tenth the square root of the radiating surface, minus 1 in square feet. Thus a 1-inch pipe will supply 100 square feet of itself included. Return-pipes should be at least ¾ inch in diameter, never less than one half the diameter of the main—longer returns of larger pipe. A thorough drainage of steam-pipes will effectually all crackling and pounding noises therein.

Wolff's Practice.—Mr. Wolff gives the following figures showing his practice (1897) in proportioning mains and returns. They are based on a limited loss of pressure of 2% for a length of 100 ft. of pipe, not in allowance for bends and valves (see p. 678). For longer runs divide the units given in the table by 0.1. Length in ft. Besides giving the units the table also indicates the amount of direct radiating surface of steam-pipes can supply, on the basis of an emission of 250 thermal units per hour for each square foot of direct radiating surface.

Size of Pipes for Steam Heating.

2 lbs. Pressure				5 lbs. Pressure			
Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating surface, Sq. Ft.	Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating surface, Sq. Ft.	Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating surface, Sq. Ft.	Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating surface, Sq. Ft.
9	86	15	60	5	34	090	6200
18	72	30	120	6	34½	1500	10000
30	130	50	200	7	4	2250	15000
70	280	120	480	8	4	3200	21600
132	528	230	890	9	4½	4450	30000
225	900	375	1500	10	5	5800	39000
330	1320	550	2200	12	6	9250	62000
480	1920	800	3200	14	7	13500	92000
690	2760	1150	4600	16	8	19000	130000

Heating a Greenhouse by Steam.—Wm. J. Baldwin answers a question in the *American Machinist* as below: With five pounds steam, how many square feet or inches of heating surface is necessary to maintain a night heat of 55° to 65°, and sides of a greenhouse at from 15° to 20° below zero; also, what boiler surface is necessary which is the best for the purpose to use—3" pipe or 1½" pipe?

Reliable authorities agree that 1.25 to 1.50 cubic feet of air in an space will be cooled per minute per sq. ft. of glass as many degrees thermal temperature of the house exceeds that of the air outside. At + 65° and - 20° there will be a difference of 85°, or, say, one cubic foot cooled 137.5° F. for each sq. ft. of glass for the most extreme case mentioned. Multiply this by the number of square feet of glass by 60, and we have the number of cubic feet of air cooled 1° per minute the building or house. Divide the number thus found by 48, and the units of heat required, approximately. Divide again by 253, and give the number of pounds of steam that must be condensed from air and temperature of five pounds above atmosphere to water at 60° temperature in an hour to maintain the heat. Each square foot of pipe will condense from ¼ to nearly ½ lb. of steam per hour, if the coils are exposed or well or poorly arranged, for which the average of ½ lb. may be taken. According to this, it will require 3 sq. ft. of heating surface per lb. of steam to be condensed. Proportion the heating surface of the boiler to have about one fifth the actual radiating surface, if the boiler is to keep steam over night, and proportion the grate to burn not more than six pounds of coal per sq. ft. of grate per hour. With very slow combustion, such as takes place in base-burning boilers, the grate may be increased for four to five pounds of coal per hour. It is cheaper to use 1½" pipe than of 3", and there is nothing to be gained by using coils if the coils are very long. The pipes in a greenhouse should

under or in front of the benches, with every chance for a good draft of air. "Header" coils are better than "return-bend" coils for this purpose.

Mr. Baldwin's rule may be given the following form: Let H = heat transferred per hour, T = temperature inside the greenhouse, t = temperature outside, S = sq. ft. of glass surface; then $H = 1.5(S(T - t)) = 1.875S(T - t)$. Mr. Wolff's coefficient K for single skylights is $H = 1.18S(T - t)$.

Heating a Greenhouse by Hot Water.—W. M. Mack, Richardson & Boynton Co., in a lecture before the Master Plumbers' Association, N. Y., 1889, says: "I find that while greenhouses were heated by 4-inch and 3-inch cast-iron pipe, on account of the large water which they contained, and the supposition that they gave better radiation and a more even temperature, florists of long experience have tried 4-inch and 3-inch cast-iron pipe, and also 2-inch wrought-iron pipe for a number of years in heating their greenhouses by hot water, and who have also tried steam-heat, tell me that they get better results, greater economy, and are able to maintain a more even temperature in wrought-iron pipe and hot water than by any other system I have used. They attribute this result principally to the fact that this system contains less water and on this account the heat can be raised and lowered quicker than by any other arrangement of pipes, and a more uniform temperature maintained than by steam or any other system."

HOT-WATER HEATING.

(Nason Mfg. Co.)

There are two distinct forms or modifications of hot-water apparatus depending upon the temperature of the water.

In the first or open-tank system the water is never above 212° F., and rarely above 200°. This method always gives satisfaction, as the surface is sufficiently liberal, but in making it so its cost is considerably greater than that for a steam-heating apparatus.

In the second method, sometimes called (erroneously) high-pressure water heating, or the closed-system apparatus, the tank is closed, and provided with a safety-valve set at 10 lbs. It is practically as safe as a steam system.

Law of Velocity of Flow.—The motive power of the flow in a hot-water apparatus is the difference between the specific gravities of the ascending and the descending pipes. This effective pressure is small, and is equal to about one grain for each foot in height for a 1° difference between the pipes; thus, with a height of 12' in a pipe, and a difference between the temperatures of the up and down pipes of 1°, the difference in their specific gravities is equal to 8.16 grains on a cubic inch of the section of return-pipe, and the velocity of the circulation is proportioned to these differences in temperature and height.

To Calculate Velocity of Flow.—Thus, with a height of 12' in a pipe equal to 10' and a difference in temperatures of the flow and return pipes of 8°, the difference in their specific gravities will equal $8 \times 8.16 = 65.28$ grains, or $\times 7000 = .0166$ lbs., or $\times 2.31$ (feet of water in one pound) = .0383 ft. the law of falling bodies the velocity will be equal to $8 \times 32.2 = 257.6$ ft. per second, or $\times 60 = 78.7$ ft. per minute. In this calculation the effect of friction is entirely omitted. Considerable deduction must be made from the theoretical velocity. Even in apparatus where length of pipe is not great, and pipes of larger areas and with few bends or angles, a large deduction must be made from the theoretical velocity, while in a complex apparatus with small head, the velocity is so much reduced by friction that sometimes as much as from 50% to 90% must be deducted to obtain the true rate of circulation.

Main flow-pipes from the heater, from which branches may be taken, should be preferred to the practice of taking off nearly as many pipes from the heater as there are radiators to supply.

It is not necessary that the main flow and return pipes should have the capacity of all their branches. The hottest water will seek the highest level, while gravity will cause an even distribution of the heated water to the surface is inversely proportioned.

It is not necessary to reduce the size of the vertical mains as they rise, but to size for each floor. In hot water, the pipes must be increased in size for each floor.

of the pipes consequent on having their temperatures in-
 on tank is required to keep the apparatus filled with water,
 expands 1/24 of its bulk on being heated from 40° to 212°, and
 must have capacity to hold certainly this increased bulk. It is
 that the supply cistern be placed on level with or above the
 of the apparatus, in order to receive the air which collects in
 radiators, and capable of holding at least 1/20 of the water
 apparatus.

Climate Proportions of Radiating-surfaces to Cubic Capacities of Space to be Heated.

Foot of Ra- diator will supply—	In Dwellings, School-rooms, Offices, etc.	In Halls, Stores, Lofts, Facto- ries, etc.	In Churches, Large Auditor- iums, etc.
ature di- rator radi-	50 to 70 cu. ft.	65 to 90 cu. ft.	130 to 180 cu. ft.
ature di- rator radi-	30 to 50 " "	35 to 65 " "	70 to 130 " "
ature in- water ra-	30 to 60 " "	35 to 75 " "	70 to 160 " "
ature in- water ra-	20 to 40 " "	25 to 50 " "	50 to 100 " "

er of Main and Branch Pipes and square feet of coil
 will supply, in a low-pressure hot-water apparatus (212°) for
 direct radiation, when coils are at different altitudes for direct
 in the lower story for indirect radiation:

Direct Radiation. Height of Coil above Bottom of Boiler, in feet.

10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.
50	52	55	58	61	63	66	68	71	73
80	92	98	104	110	116	122	128	134	140
110	124	132	140	148	156	164	172	180	188
140	156	164	172	180	188	196	204	212	220
170	188	196	204	212	220	228	236	244	252
200	218	226	234	242	250	258	266	274	282
230	248	256	264	272	280	288	296	304	312
260	278	286	294	302	310	318	326	334	342
290	308	316	324	332	340	348	356	364	372
320	338	346	354	362	370	378	386	394	402
350	368	376	384	392	400	408	416	424	432
380	398	406	414	422	430	438	446	454	462
410	428	436	444	452	460	468	476	484	492
440	458	466	474	482	490	498	506	514	522
470	488	496	504	512	520	528	536	544	552
500	518	526	534	542	550	558	566	574	582
530	548	556	564	572	580	588	596	604	612
560	578	586	594	602	610	618	626	634	642
590	608	616	624	632	640	648	656	664	672
620	638	646	654	662	670	678	686	694	702
650	668	676	684	692	700	708	716	724	732
680	698	706	714	722	730	738	746	754	762
710	728	736	744	752	760	768	776	784	792
740	758	766	774	782	790	798	806	814	822
770	788	796	804	812	820	828	836	844	852
800	818	826	834	842	850	858	866	874	882
830	848	856	864	872	880	888	896	904	912
860	878	886	894	902	910	918	926	934	942
890	908	916	924	932	940	948	956	964	972
920	938	946	954	962	970	978	986	994	1002
950	968	976	984	992	1000	1008	1016	1024	1032
980	998	1006	1014	1022	1030	1038	1046	1054	1062
1010	1028	1036	1044	1052	1060	1068	1076	1084	1092
1040	1058	1066	1074	1082	1090	1098	1106	1114	1122
1070	1088	1096	1104	1112	1120	1128	1136	1144	1152
1100	1118	1126	1134	1142	1150	1158	1166	1174	1182
1130	1148	1156	1164	1172	1180	1188	1196	1204	1212
1160	1178	1186	1194	1202	1210	1218	1226	1234	1242
1190	1208	1216	1224	1232	1240	1248	1256	1264	1272
1220	1238	1246	1254	1262	1270	1278	1286	1294	1302
1250	1268	1276	1284	1292	1300	1308	1316	1324	1332
1280	1298	1306	1314	1322	1330	1338	1346	1354	1362
1310	1328	1336	1344	1352	1360	1368	1376	1384	1392
1340	1358	1366	1374	1382	1390	1398	1406	1414	1422
1370	1388	1396	1404	1412	1420	1428	1436	1444	1452
1400	1418	1426	1434	1442	1450	1458	1466	1474	1482
1430	1448	1456	1464	1472	1480	1488	1496	1504	1512
1460	1478	1486	1494	1502	1510	1518	1526	1534	1542
1490	1508	1516	1524	1532	1540	1548	1556	1564	1572
1520	1538	1546	1554	1562	1570	1578	1586	1594	1602
1550	1568	1576	1584	1592	1600	1608	1616	1624	1632
1580	1598	1606	1614	1622	1630	1638	1646	1654	1662
1610	1628	1636	1644	1652	1660	1668	1676	1684	1692
1640	1658	1666	1674	1682	1690	1698	1706	1714	1722
1670	1688	1696	1704	1712	1720	1728	1736	1744	1752
1700	1718	1726	1734	1742	1750	1758	1766	1774	1782
1730	1748	1756	1764	1772	1780	1788	1796	1804	1812
1760	1778	1786	1794	1802	1810	1818	1826	1834	1842
1790	1808	1816	1824	1832	1840	1848	1856	1864	1872
1820	1838	1846	1854	1862	1870	1878	1886	1894	1902
1850	1868	1876	1884	1892	1900	1908	1916	1924	1932
1880	1898	1906	1914	1922	1930	1938	1946	1954	1962
1910	1928	1936	1944	1952	1960	1968	1976	1984	1992
1940	1958	1966	1974	1982	1990	1998	2006	2014	2022
1970	1988	1996	2004	2012	2020	2028	2036	2044	2052
2000	2018	2026	2034	2042	2050	2058	2066	2074	2082
2030	2048	2056	2064	2072	2080	2088	2096	2104	2112
2060	2078	2086	2094	2102	2110	2118	2126	2134	2142
2090	2108	2116	2124	2132	2140	2148	2156	2164	2172
2120	2138	2146	2154	2162	2170	2178	2186	2194	2202
2150	2168	2176	2184	2192	2200	2208	2216	2224	2232
2180	2198	2206	2214	2222	2230	2238	2246	2254	2262
2210	2228	2236	2244	2252	2260	2268	2276	2284	2292
2240	2258	2266	2274	2282	2290	2298	2306	2314	2322
2270	2288	2296	2304	2312	2320	2328	2336	2344	2352
2300	2318	2326	2334	2342	2350	2358	2366	2374	2382
2330	2348	2356	2364	2372	2380	2388	2396	2404	2412
2360	2378	2386	2394	2402	2410	2418	2426	2434	2442
2390	2408	2416	2424	2432	2440	2448	2456	2464	2472
2420	2438	2446	2454	2462	2470	2478	2486	2494	2502
2450	2468	2476	2484	2492	2500	2508	2516	2524	2532
2480	2498	2506	2514	2522	2530	2538	2546	2554	2562
2510	2528	2536	2544	2552	2560	2568	2576	2584	2592
2540	2558	2566	2574	2582	2590	2598	2606	2614	2622
2570	2588	2596	2604	2612	2620	2628	2636	2644	2652
2600	2618	2626	2634	2642	2650	2658	2666	2674	2682
2630	2648	2656	2664	2672	2680	2688	2696	2704	2712
2660	2678	2686	2694	2702	2710	2718	2726	2734	2742
2690	2708	2716	2724	2732	2740	2748	2756	2764	2772
2720	2738	2746	2754	2762	2770	2778	2786	2794	2802
2750	2768	2776	2784	2792	2800	2808	2816	2824	2832
2780	2798	2806	2814	2822	2830	2838	2846	2854	2862
2810	2828	2836	2844	2852	2860	2868	2876	2884	2892
2840	2858	2866	2874	2882	2890	2898	2906	2914	2922
2870	2888	2896	2904	2912	2920	2928	2936	2944	2952
2900	2918	2926	2934	2942	2950	2958	2966	2974	2982
2930	2948	2956	2964	2972	2980	2988	2996	3004	3012
2960	2978	2986	2994	3002	3010	3018	3026	3034	3042
2990	3008	3016	3024	3032	3040	3048	3056	3064	3072
3020	3038	3046	3054	3062	3070	3078	3086	3094	3102
3050	3068	3076	3084	3092	3100	3108	3116	3124	3132
3080	3098	3106	3114	3122	3130	3138	3146	3154	3162
3110	3128	3136	3144	3152	3160	3168	3176	3184	3192
3140	3158	3166	3174	3182	3190	3198	3206	3214	3222
3170	3188	3196	3204	3212	3220	3228	3236	3244	3252
3200	3218	3226	3234	3242	3250	3258	3266	3274	3282
3230	3248	3256	3264	3272	3280	3288	3296	3304	3312
3260	3278	3286	3294	3302	3310	3318	3326	3334	3342
3290	3308	3316	3324	3332	3340	3348	3356	3364	3372
3320	3338	3346	3354	3362	3370	3378	3386	3394	3402
3350	3368	3376	3384	3392	3400	3408	3416	3424	3432
3380	3398	3406	3414	3422	3430	3438	3446	3454	3462
3410	3428	3436	3444	3452	3460	3468	3476	3484	3492
3440	3458	3466	3474	3482	3490	3498	3506	3514	3522
3470	3488	3496	3504	3512	3520	3528	3536	3544	3552
3500	3518	3526	3534	3542	3550	3558	3566	3574	3582
3530	3548	3556	3564	3572	3580	3588	3596	3604	3612
3560	3578	3586	3594	3602	3610	3618	3626	3634	3642
3590	3608	3616	3624	3632	3640	3648	3656	3664	3672
3620	3638	3646	3654	3662	3670	3678	3686	3694	3702
3650	3668	3676	3684	3692	3700	3708	3716	3724	3732
3680	3698	3706	3714	3722	3730	3738	3746	3754	3762
3710	3728	3736	3744	3752	3760	3768	3776	3784	3792
3740	3758	3766	3774	3782	3790	3798	3806	3814	3822
3770	3788	3796	3804	3812	3820	3828	3836	3844	3852
3800	3818	3826	3834	3842	3850	3858	3866	3874	3882
3830	3848	3856	3864	3872	3880	3888	3896	3904	3912
3860	3878	3886	3894	3902	3910	3918	3926	3934	3942
3890	3908	3916	3924	3932	3940	3948	3956	3964	3972
3920	3938	3946	3954	3962	3970	3978	3986	3994	4002
3950	3968	3976	3984	3992	4000	4008	4016	4024	4032
3980	3998	4006	4014	4022	4030	4038	4046	4054	4062
4010	4028	4036	4044	4052	4060	4068	4076	4084	4092
4040	4058	4066	4074						

BLOWER SYSTEM OF HEATING AND VENTILATING.

provides for the use of a fan or blower which takes its supply from the outside of the building to be heated, forces it over a radiator either centrally or divided up into a number of independent ducts or flues leading to the various rooms, and then into the several ducts or flues leading to the various rooms. The movement of the warmed air is positive, and the delivery of the air at various points of supply is certain and entirely independent of the conditions. For engines, fans, and steam-coils used with the system, see page 519.

Tests with Radiators of 60 sq. ft. of Surface.

Dec., 1893.—After having determined the volume and temperature of the warm air passing through the flues and radiators from a fan was applied to each flue, forcing in air, and new sets of tests were made. The results showed that more than two and one-half times as much air was warmed with the fans in use, and the falling off in the efficiency of this greatly increased air volume was only about 12 per cent. The circulation of steam in the radiators with the forced-air circulation was 46 per cent greater than with natural air draught. One of the best figures obtained is as follows:

	Natural Draught	Forced- air in Flue. Circulation.
Volume of air per minute	457.5	1237
Weight of steam per minute in ounces	11.7	19.6
Pressure in radiator, pounds.....	9	9
Temperature of air after leaving radiator	142°	124°
" " before passing through radiator.....	61°	61°
" " radiating surface in square feet.....	60	60
" " in both cases	12 x 18 inches.	

Probably an error in the determination of the volume of air in the draught appears from the following calculation. (W. K.) Assume that the air is condensed from 9 lbs. pressure and cooling to the temperature at which the water may have been discharged from the radiator at 212° F., or 62.5 h. u. per ounce; that the air weighed .076 lb. per cubic foot, and that its specific heat is .238. We have

	Natural Draught.	Forced- Draught.
Heat by steam, ounces x 62.5	= 731	1225 H.U.
Weight of air, cu. ft. x .076 x diff. of temp. x .238 =	673	1390 "

of forced draught the air received 14 per cent more heat than the draught, which is impossible. Taking the heat given up by the steam as the measure of the work done by the radiator, the temperature of the steam at 237°, and the average temperature of the air in the case of draught at 102° and in the other case at 99°, we have for the temperature difference in the two cases 135° and 141° respectively; dividing the heat-units by the difference of temperature, we find that each square foot of radiating surface gives off 11.4 heat-units per hour per degree of difference of temperature, or 130 heat-units per square foot of surface in the case of natural draught, and 8.5 heat-units in the case of forced draught, or 141° = 1224 heat-units per square foot of surface.

At the Homeopathic Hospital in Philadelphia, 2000 feet of pipe radiate 250,000 cubic feet of space, ventilating as well; this is the equivalent of one foot of pipe surface for about 250 cubic feet of space, or one square foot for 1000 cubic feet. The fan is located in a separate building 100 feet from the hospital, and the air, after being heated, is conveyed through an underground brick duct with a loss of 10 degrees in cold weather. (H. I. Snell, Trans. A. S. M. E. ix, 106.)

Building to 70° F. Inside when the Outside is Zero.—It is customary in some contracts for heating that the apparatus will heat the interior of the building to 70° F.

As it may not be practicable to obtain zero weather for a test, it may be difficult to prove the performance of the apparatus. Mr. Macgovern, in *Engineering Record*, Feb. 3, 1894, gives a method of showing that a test may be made in weather of a blower, and that the heat of the interior is raised above 70° F. The temperature of the rooms the lower is the efficiency of the blower, and the efficiency depends upon the difference between the

temperature inside of the radiator and the temperature of the room concludes that a heating apparatus sufficient to heat a given building in zero weather with a given pressure of steam will be found to heat the same building, steam-pressure constant, to 110° at 60° , 95° at 50° , 80° at 40° , and 74° at 32° , outside temperature. The accuracy of these figures, however, has not been tested by experiment.

The following solution of the question is proposed by the author. The results are quite different from those of Mr. Macgovern, but, like them, require experimental confirmation.

Let S = sq. ft. of surface of the steam or hot-water radiator;

W = sq. ft. of surface of exposed walls, windows, etc.;

T_0 = temp. of the steam or hot water, T_1 = temp. of inside of radiator or room, T_2 = temp. of outside of building or room;

a = heat-units transmitted per sq. ft. of surface of radiator per degree of difference of temperature;

b = average heat-units transmitted per sq. ft. of walls per degree of difference of temperature, including allowance for ventilation.

It is assumed that within the range of temperatures considered the law of cooling holds good, viz., that it is proportional to the difference of temperature between the two sides of the radiating-surface.

Then $aS(T_0 - T_1) = bW(T_1 - T_2)$. Let $\frac{bW}{aS} = C$; then

$$T_0 - T_1 = C(T_1 - T_2); \quad T_1 = \frac{T_0 + CT_2}{1 + C}; \quad C = \frac{T_0 - T_1}{T_1 - T_2}.$$

$$\text{If } T_1 = 70, \text{ and } T_2 = 0, C = \frac{T_0 - 70}{70}.$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Let } T_0 = 140^{\circ}, & 213.5^{\circ}, & 308^{\circ}; \\ \text{Then } C = 1, & 2.05, & 3.4. \end{array}$$

From these we derive the following:

Temperature of Steam or Hot Water, T_0 .	Outside Temperatures, T_2 .				
	-20°	-10°	0°	10°	20°
	Inside Temperatures, T_1 .				
140°	80	65	70	75	80
213.5	66.6	63.3	70	76.7	83.4
308	64.5	62.3	70	77.7	85.5

Heating by Electricity.—If the electric currents are generated by a dynamo driven by a steam-engine, electric heating will prove very valuable, since the steam-engine wastes in the exhaust-steam and by other losses about 90% of the heat-units supplied to it. In direct steam heating, with good boiler and properly covered supply-pipes, we can utilize about 10% of the total heat value of the fuel. One pound of coal, with a heating value of 13,000 heat-units, would supply to the radiators about 1,300 heat-units. In electric heating, suppose we have a first-class condensing engine developing 1 H.P. for every 2 lbs. of coal burned per hour. This would be equivalent to 1,280,000 ft.-lbs. $\div 778 = 1645$ heat-units per hour, or heat-units for 1 lb. of coal. The friction of the engine and of the dynamo, the loss by electric leakage, and by heat radiation from the connecting wires, might reduce the heat-units delivered as electric current to the electric radiator, and these converted into heat to 50% of this, or only 822 heat-units, or less than one twelfth of that delivered to the steam-radiator in direct steam-heating. Electric heating, therefore, will prove uneconomical unless the electric current is derived from water or wind power, which otherwise be wasted. (See Electrical Engineering.)

WATER.

Expansion of Water.—The following table gives the relative volume of water at different temperatures, compared with its volume at 4° C. according to Kopp, as corrected by Porter.

Fahr.	Volume.	Cent.	Fahr.	Volume.	Cent.	Fahr.	Volume.
39.1°	1.00000	35°	95°	1.00586	50°	158°	1.02241
41	1.00001	40	104	1.00797	75	167	1.03518
50	1.00025	45	113	1.00967	90	176	1.04872
59	1.00063	50	122	1.01188	85	185	1.06210
68	1.00171	55	131	1.01421	90	194	1.07570
77	1.00286	60	140	1.01678	95	203	1.08943
86	1.00425	65	149	1.01951	100	212	1.04393

Weight of 1 cu. ft. at 39.1° F. = 62.4245 lb. + 1.04392 = 63.838, weight of 1 cu. at 212° F.

Weight of Water at Different Temperatures.—The weight of water at maximum density, 39.1°, is generally taken at the figure given Rankine, 62.425 lbs. per cubic foot. Some authorities give as low as 62.3.

The figure 62.5 commonly given is approximate. The highest authoritative figure is 62.425. At 62° F. the figures range from 62.391 to 62.360. Figure 62.355 is generally accepted as the most accurate.

62° F. figures given by different writers range from 62.379 to 62.413. Porter gives the latter figure, and Hamilton Smith, Jr., (from Rosetti), gives

Weight of Water at Temperatures above 212° F.—Porter (in "Steam-engine Indicator," p. 52) says that nothing is known of the expansion of water above 212°. Applying formulae derived from experiments made at temperatures below 212°, however, the weight and volume above 212° may be calculated, but in the absence of experimental data we are not certain that the formulae hold good at higher temperatures. In his "Engine and Boiler Trials," gives a table from which we give the following (neglecting the third decimal place given by him):

Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temperature, deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temperature, deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temperature, deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temperature, deg. F.
59.71	280	57.90	350	55.32	420	52.86	490
59.64	290	57.59	360	55.16	430	52.47	500
59.37	300	57.26	370	54.79	440	52.07	510
59.10	310	56.93	380	54.41	450	51.66	520
58.84	320	56.58	390	54.03	460	51.26	530
58.58	330	56.24	400	53.64	470	50.85	540
58.34	340	55.88	410	53.26	480	50.44	550

Porter on Heat gives the following:

Temperature F.	312°	350°	380°	350°	400°	450°	500°
Weight per cubic foot....	59.82	58.85	57.22	55.91	54.34	52.70	51.02

212° figures given by different writers (see Trans. A. S. M. E., & from 59.56 to 59.845, averaging about 59.77.

Weight of Water per Cubic Foot, from 32° to 212°
units per pound, reckoned above 32° F.: The following table, interpolating the table given by Clark as calculated from Rood's with corrections for apparent errors, was published by the *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vi. 90. (For heat units above 212° see *Steng*)

Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.	Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.	Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.	Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.
32	62.42	0.	78	62.35	46.03	128	61.68	20.10	176	61.67	22.17
33	62.43	1.	79	62.34	47.03	131	61.67	22.17	179	61.65	23.17
34	62.43	2.	80	62.33	48.04	135	61.65	23.17	183	61.63	24.17
35	62.43	3.	81	62.33	49.04	140	61.61	25.18	187	61.60	26.18
36	62.43	4.	82	62.31	50.04	147	61.58	27.19	191	61.56	28.19
37	62.43	5.	83	62.30	51.04	152	61.54	29.20	195	61.52	30.20
38	62.43	6.	84	62.19	52.04	159	61.51	31.21	200	61.47	33.22
39	62.43	7.	85	62.18	53.05	166	61.45	33.23	204	61.43	35.23
40	62.43	8.	86	62.17	54.05	173	61.41	35.24	208	61.40	36.24
41	62.43	9.	87	62.16	55.05	182	61.37	37.25	212	61.36	38.25
42	62.43	10.	88	62.15	56.05	190	61.33	39.26			
43	62.43	11.	89	62.14	57.05	198	61.30	41.27			
44	62.43	12.	90	62.13	58.06	206	61.26	43.28			
45	62.43	13.	91	62.12	59.06	214	61.23	45.29			
46	62.43	14.	92	62.11	60.06	222	61.19	47.30			
47	62.43	15.	93	62.10	61.06	230	61.16	49.31			
48	62.41	16.	94	62.09	62.06	238	61.12	51.32			
49	62.41	17.	95	62.08	63.07	246	61.09	53.33			
50	62.41	18.	96	62.07	64.07	254	61.05	55.34			
51	62.41	19.	97	62.06	65.07	262	61.02	57.35			
52	62.40	20.	98	62.05	66.07	270	60.98	59.36			
53	62.40	21.01	99	62.03	67.08	278	60.94	61.37			
54	62.40	22.01	100	62.02	68.08	286	60.90	63.38			
55	62.39	23.01	101	62.01	69.08	294	60.86	65.39			
56	62.39	24.01	102	62.00	70.09	302	60.82	67.40			
57	62.39	25.01	103	61.99	71.09	310	60.78	69.41			
58	62.38	26.01	104	61.97	72.09	318	60.74	71.42			
59	62.38	27.01	105	61.96	73.10	326	60.70	73.43			
60	62.37	28.01	106	61.95	74.10	334	60.66	75.44			
61	62.37	29.01	107	61.93	75.10	342	60.62	77.45			
62	62.36	30.01	108	61.92	76.10	350	60.58	79.46			
63	62.36	31.01	109	61.91	77.11	358	60.54	81.47			
64	62.35	32.01	110	61.89	78.11	366	60.50	83.48			
65	62.34	33.01	111	61.88	79.11	374	60.46	85.49			
66	62.34	34.02	112	61.86	80.12	382	60.42	87.50			
67	62.33	35.02	113	61.85	81.12	390	60.38	89.51			
68	62.33	36.02	114	61.84	82.13	398	60.34	91.52			
69	62.32	37.02	115	61.83	83.13	406	60.30	93.53			
70	62.31	38.02	116	61.80	84.13	414	60.26	95.54			
71	62.31	39.02	117	61.78	85.14	422	60.22	97.55			
72	62.30	40.02	118	61.77	86.14	430	60.18	99.56			
73	62.29	41.02	119	61.75	87.15	438	60.14	101.57			
74	62.28	42.03	120	61.74	88.15	446	60.10	103.58			
75	62.28	43.03	121	61.72	89.15	454	60.06	105.59			
76	62.27	44.03	122	61.70	90.16	462	60.02	107.60			
77	62.26	45.03									

Comparison of Heads of Water in Feet with Pressure in Various Units.

One foot of water at 39° F. = 2.306 lbs. on the square foot
 " " " = 0.433 lbs. on the square inch
 " " " = 0.025 atmosphere
 " " " = 0.883 inch of mercury
 " " " = 11.35 feet of air at 32° F.

on the square foot, at 32° F.	=	0.01602	foot of water;
on the square inch	=	2.307	feet of water;
sphere of 29.922 inches of mercury	=	83.8	" " "
of mercury at 32° F.	=	1.133	" " "
of air at 32 deg., and one atmosphere	..	=	0.001293	" " "
of average sea-water	=	1.026	foot of pure water;
of water at 62° F.	=	62.355	lbs. per sq. foot;
" " 62° F.	=	0.43302	lbs. per sq. inch;
of water at 62° F.	=	0.036085	" " "
head of water on the square inch at 62° F.	=	2.3094	feet of water.

Pressure in Pounds per Square Inch for Different Heads of Water.

1 foot head = 0.433 lb. per square inch, $4.33 \times 141 = 62.352$ lbs. per foot.

Feet.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.330	0.433	0.866	1.299	1.732	2.165	2.598	3.031	3.464	3.897	
8.660	4.763	5.196	5.629	6.062	6.495	6.928	7.361	7.794	8.227	
12.990	9.095	9.528	9.960	10.393	10.825	11.258	11.691	12.124	12.557	
17.320	13.428	13.856	14.289	14.722	15.155	15.588	16.021	16.454	16.887	
21.650	17.753	18.186	18.619	19.052	19.485	19.918	20.351	20.784	21.217	
25.980	22.083	22.516	22.949	23.382	23.815	24.248	24.681	25.114	25.547	
30.310	26.413	26.846	27.279	27.712	28.145	28.578	29.011	29.444	29.877	
34.640	30.743	31.176	31.609	32.042	32.475	32.908	33.341	33.774	34.207	
38.970	35.073	35.506	35.939	36.372	36.805	37.238	37.671	38.104	38.537	
43.300	39.403	39.836	40.269	40.702	41.135	41.568	42.001	42.434	42.867	

Feet of Water, Corresponding to Pressures in Pounds per Square Inch.

per square inch = 2.30947 feet head, 1 atmosphere = 14.7 lbs. per sq. inch = 34.24 ft. head.

lbs.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23.0947	2.309	4.619	6.928	9.238	11.547	13.857	16.166	18.476	20.785	
46.1894	25.404	27.714	30.023	32.333	34.642	36.952	39.261	41.570	43.880	
69.2841	48.809	50.808	52.807	54.806	56.805	58.804	60.803	62.802	64.801	
92.3788	71.604	73.903	76.203	78.502	80.801	83.100	85.400	87.699	89.998	
115.4735	94.408	96.908	99.307	101.706	104.105	106.504	108.903	111.302	113.701	
138.5682	117.213	119.612	122.011	124.410	126.809	129.208	131.607	134.006	136.405	
161.6629	140.008	142.407	144.806	147.205	149.604	152.003	154.402	156.801	159.200	
184.7576	162.803	165.202	167.601	170.000	172.399	174.798	177.197	179.596	181.995	
207.8523	185.603	188.002	190.401	192.800	195.199	197.598	199.997	202.396	204.795	

Pressure of Water due to its Weight.—The pressure of still water on the square foot against the sides of any pipe, channel, or of any shape whatever is due solely to the "head," or height of the surface of the water above the point at which the pressure is considered, and is equal to 4.3302 lb. per square inch for every foot of head, or 62.355 lbs. per square foot for every foot of head at 62° F.). The pressure per square inch is equal in all directions, downwards, upwards, sideways, and is independent of the shape or size of the containing vessel.

The pressure against a vertical surface, as a retaining-wall, at any point is proportional to the head above that point, increasing from 0 at the top to a maximum at the bottom. The total pressure against a surface of a unit's breadth increases as the area of a right-angled triangle

whose perpendicular represents the height of the strip and who represents the pressure on a unit of surface at the bottom, that increases as the square of the depth. The sum of all the horizontal pressures is represented by the area of the triangle, and the resultant of the equal to this sum exerted at a point one third of the height from the base. (The centre of gravity of the area of a triangle is one third of its height.) The horizontal pressure is the same if the surface is inclined to the vertical.

(For an elaboration of these principles see Trautwine's Pocket-book, the chapter on Hydrostatics in any work on Physics. For dams, retaining walls, etc., see Trautwine.)

The amount of pressure on the interior walls of a pipe has no appreciable effect upon the amount of flow.

Buoyancy.—When a body is immersed in a liquid, whether it sinks or floats, it is buoyed up by a force equal to the weight of the bulk of the liquid displaced by the body. The weight of a floating body is equal to the weight of the bulk of the liquid that it displaces. The upward pressure or buoyancy of the liquid may be regarded as exerted at the centre of gravity of the displaced water, which is called the centre of pressure or of buoyancy. A vertical line drawn through it is called the axis of buoyancy or of flotation. In a floating body at rest a line joining the centre of gravity and the centre of buoyancy is vertical, and is called the axis of equilibrium. If an external force causes the axis of equilibrium to lean, if a vertical line drawn upward from the centre of buoyancy to this axis, the point where it cuts the axis is called the *metacentre*. If the metacentre is above the centre of gravity the distance between them is called the *metacentric height*. If the body is then said to be in stable equilibrium, tending to return to its original position when the external force is removed.

Boiling-point.—Water boils at 212° F. (100° C.) at mean atmospheric pressure at the sea-level, 14.696 lbs. per square inch. The temperature at which water boils at any given pressure is the same as the temperature at which saturated steam at the same pressure. For boiling-point of water at any pressure than 14.696 lbs. per square inch, see table of the Properties of Saturated Steam.

The Boiling-point of Water may be Raised.—When water is entirely freed of air, which may be accomplished by freezing and then boiling, the cohesion of its atoms is greatly increased, so that its boiling-point may be raised over 50° above the ordinary boiling-point before ebullition takes place. It was found by Faraday that when such air-free water is heated, the rupture of the liquid was like an explosion. When water is saturated with a film of oil, its boiling temperature may be raised considerably above its normal standard. This has been applied as a theoretical explanation of the instance of boiler-explosions.

The freezing-point also may be lowered. If the water is perfectly free of air, it may be cooled to 10° C., or 18° Fahrenheit below the normal freezing point. (See Smith, Jr., on Hydraulics, p. 13.) The density of water at 14° F. is 62.43 lbs. per cubic foot; at 32° F. being 1, and at 32°, 999.87.

Freezing-point.—Water freezes at 32° F. at the ordinary atmospheric pressure, and ice melts at the same temperature. In the melting of ice into water at 32° F. about 142 heat-units are absorbed, or latent heat; and in freezing 1 lb. of water into ice a like quantity of heat is given out to the surrounding medium.

Sea-water freezes at 27° F. The ice is fresh. (Trautwine.)

Ice and Snow. (From Clark.)—1 cubic foot of ice at 32° F. weighs 57.50 lbs.; 1 pound of ice at 32° F. has a volume of .0174 cu. ft. = 3.33 cu. in.

Relative volume of ice to water at 32° F., 1.0855, the expansion on melting being 8.55%. Specific gravity of ice = 0.922, at 32° F. being 1.

At high pressures the melting-point of ice is lower than 32° F. The rate of .0133° F. for each additional atmosphere of pressure.

The specific heat of ice is .504, that of water being 1.

1 cubic foot of fresh snow, according to humidity of atmosphere, weighs 12 lbs. 1 cubic foot of snow moistened and compacted by rain weighs 50 lbs. (Trautwine.)

Specific Heat of Water. (From Clark's Steam-engine.)—The specific heat of water at any temperature t in centigrade is given by the formula $c = 1 + 0.00004 t^2$, c being the specific heat at the freezing-point being 1.

British Thermal Units per pound, above 32° F.	Specific Heat at the given temperature.	Mean Specific Heat between 32° F. and the given Temp.	Temperatures.		British Thermal Units per pound, above 32° F.	Specific Heat at the given temperature.	Mean Specific Heat between 32° F. and the given Temp.
			Cent.	Fahr.			
0.000	1.0000		120°	248°	217.449	1.0177	1.0067
18.004	1.0005	1.0002	130	266	235.791	1.0204	1.0076
36.008	1.0012	1.0005	140	284	254.187	1.0232	1.0087
54.017	1.0020	1.0009	150	302	272.628	1.0262	1.0097
72.026	1.0030	1.0018	160	320	291.132	1.0295	1.0109
90.157	1.0042	1.0017	170	338	309.690	1.0329	1.0121
108.247	1.0056	1.0023	180	356	328.320	1.0364	1.0133
126.378	1.0072	1.0030	190	374	347.004	1.0401	1.0146
144.508	1.0089	1.0035	200	392	365.740	1.0440	1.0160
162.686	1.0109	1.0042	210	410	384.528	1.0481	1.0174
180.930	1.0130	1.0050	220	428	403.468	1.0524	1.0189
199.152	1.0153	1.0058	230	446	422.457	1.0568	1.0204

Compressibility of Water.—Water is very slightly compressible. Its compressibility is from .000040 to .000051 for one atmosphere, decreasing as the temperature rises. For each foot of pressure distilled water will be reduced in volume .0000015 to .0000013. Water is so incompressible that a depth of a mile a cubic foot of water will weigh only about one ounce more than at the surface.

THE IMPURITIES OF WATER.

E. Hunt and G. H. Clapp, Traus. A. I. M. E. xvii, 338.)

Analyses are made to determine (1) its purity for making steam; (2) its hardness, or the facility with which it will "form a lather," necessary for washing; or (3) its adaptation for manufacturing purposes.

At the meeting of the Chemical Section of the A. A. S. it was determined that all water analyses in parts per thousand, hundred-thousand,

or million grains per Imperial (British) gallonous into parts per 100,000, distilled water. To convert parts per 100,000 into grains per U. S. gallon, multiply by .583.

The common commercial analysis of water is made to determine its suitability for making steam. Water containing more than 5 parts per 100,000 of sulphuric or nitric acid is liable to cause serious corrosion, not only of the boiler itself, but of the pipes, cylinders, pistons, and valves, through which the steam comes in contact.

The residue in water used for making steam causes the interior linings to become coated, and often produces a dangerous hard scale, which prevents the cooling action of the water from protecting the boiler from burning.

When magnesium bicarbonates in water lose their excess of carbonic dioxide, and often, especially when the water contains sulphuric acid, with the other solid residues constantly being formed by the action of the acid, a very hard and insoluble scale. A larger amount than 100 parts per 100,000 of total solid residue will ordinarily cause troublesome incrustation, should condemn the water for use in steam-boilers, unless a remedy can be obtained.

The following is a tabulated form of the causes of trouble with water for making steam, and the proposed remedies, given by Prof. L. M. Norton.

CAUSES OF INCRUSTATION.

1. Presence of suspended matter.

2. Presence of deposited salts from concentration.

3. Presence of carbonates of lime and magnesia, by boiling off the carbonic dioxide, holds them in solution.

4. Deposition of sulphates of lime, because sulphate of lime is soluble in cold water, less soluble in hot water, insoluble above 212°.

5. Deposition of magnesia, because magnesium salts decompose at temperature.

6. Deposition of lime soap, iron soap, etc., formed by saponification of grease.

MEANS FOR PREVENTING INCrustATION.

1. Filtration.
2. Blowing off.
3. Use of internal collecting apparatus or devices for direct circulation.
4. Heating feed-water.
5. Chemical or other treatment of water in boiler.
6. Introduction of zinc into boiler.
7. Chemical treatment of water outside of boiler.

TABULAR VIEW.

Troublesome Substance.	Trouble.	Remedy or Prevention.
Sediment, mud, clay, etc.	Incrustation.	Filtration; blowing off.
Readily soluble salts.	"	Heating feed-water.
Bicarbonates of lime, magnesia, iron.	"	Caustic soda, magnesia, etc.
Sulphate of lime.	"	Addition of barium chloride.
Chloride and sulphate of magnesium.	Corrosion.	Addition of caustic soda, etc.
Carbonate of soda in large amounts.	Priming.	Addition of lime, etc.
Acid (in mine waters).	Corrosion.	Alkali.
Dissolved carbonic acid and oxygen.	"	Heating feed-water; caustic soda; lime, etc.
Grease (from condensed water).	"	Slacked lime; carbonate of soda; substitute for water.
Organic matter (sewage).	Priming.	Precipitate with ferric chloride.
Organic matter.	Corrosion.	Ditto.

The mineral matters causing the most troublesome boiler-scales are carbonates and sulphates of lime and magnesia, oxides of iron and silica. The analyses of some of the most common and the boiler-scales are given in the following table:

Analyses of Boiler-scale. (Chandler.)

		Sulphate of Lime.	Magnesia.	Silica.	Peroxide of Iron.	Water.
N. Y. C. & H. R. Ry.,	No. 1	71.07	9.19	0.65	0.08	1.14
"	No. 2	71.37	...	1.76
"	No. 3	62.80	18.95	2.60	0.72	1.14
"	No. 4	53.05	...	4.72
"	No. 5	46.83	...	7.93
"	No. 6	30.40	31.17	7.55	1.09	0.08
"	No. 7	4.95	2.61	2.07	1.03	0.08
"	No. 8	0.88	2.84	0.05	0.35	0.08
"	No. 9	4.81	...	3.32
"	No. 10	30.07	...	6.24

In Parts per 100,000 of Water giving Bad Results in Steam-boilers. (A. E. Hunt.)

	Bicarbonate of Lime deposited on Boiling		Bicarbonate of Magnesia deposited on Boiling		Total Lime.	Total Magnesia.	Sulphuric Acid.	Chloride.	Iron.	Organic Matter.	Alumina.	Chloride of Sodium.
Water.	110	25	119	39	890	590	780	30	840	18.10		
	151	38	1.90	48	360	900	88	21	75	10	80	38
River.	190	21	161	33	210	38	70					
"	82	70	94	81	210	210	90					
"	82	70	61	1	04	28	1.00	34				
near Oil-works	30	50	41	68	600	42	23					

stances have been added with the idea of causing chemical action to prevent boiler-scale. As a general rule, these do more good, for a boiler is one of the worst possible places in which to permit reaction, where it nearly always causes more or less the metal, and is liable to cause dangerous explosions.

There is water containing large amounts of total solid residue is used, a heavy petroleum oil, from tar or wax, which is not by acids or alkalis, not having sufficient wax in it to cause it, and which has a vaporizing point at nearly 600° F., will give results in preventing boiler-scale. Its action is to form a thin cover the boiler linings, protecting them largely from the action of water and greasing the sediment which is formed, thus preventing formation of scale and keeping the solid residue from the bottom of the water in such a plastic suspended condition that it can be blown off from the boiler by the process of "blowing off." If the blowing off sufficiently often, this sediment forms into a "putty" facilitate cleaning the boilers. Any boiler using bad water should be cleaned every twelve hours.

Hardness of Water.—The hardness of water, or its opposite quality, the ease with which it will form a lather with soap, depends rather upon the presence of compounds of lime and magnesia. Soaps consist, chemically, of oleate, stearate, and palmitate, of soda, usually soda and potash. The more lime and magnesia in a water, the more soap a given volume of the water will decompose, insoluble oleate, palmitate, and stearate of lime and magnesia, and the more soap must be added to a gallon of water in order that a satisfactory quantity of soap may remain in solution to form the lather.

Hardness of samples of water is generally expressed in terms of standard soap-measures consumed by a gallon of water in forming lather.

Standard soap-measure is the quantity required to precipitate one ounce of lime.

It is only reckoned that one gallon of pure distilled water takes one ounce to produce a lather. Therefore one is deducted from the number of soap-measures found to be necessary to use to produce a gallon of water, in reporting the number of soap-measures of hardness of the water sample. In actually making tests for hardness, a "miniature gallon," or seventy cubic centimetres, is used, the inconvenient larger amount. The standard measure is made by dissolving ten grammes of pure castile soap containing 60 per cent in a litre of weak alcohol of about 35 per cent alcohol. This solution containing exactly sufficient soap in one cubic centimetre to precipitate one milligramme of carbonate of lime. The standard soap solution is reduced to terms of the amount of water taken.

It is charged with a bicarbonate of lime, magnesia, or iron.

it will, on the excess of the carbonic acid being expelled, deposit a considerable quantity of the lime, magnesia, or iron, and consequently the water will be softer. The hardness of the water after this deposit of lime on long boiling, is called the *permanent hardness* and the difference between this and the total hardness is called *temporary hardness*.

Lime salts in water react immediately on soap-solutions, precipitating oleate, palmitate, or stearate of lime at once. Magnesia salts, on the contrary, require some considerable time for reaction. They are therefore more powerful hardeners: one equivalent of magnesia salts contains much more soap as one and one-half equivalents of lime.

The presence of soda and potash salts softens rather than hardens. Each grain of carbonate of lime per gallon of water causes an expenditure for soap of about 2 ounces per 100 gallons of water. (*News*, Jan. 31, 1885.)

Purifying Feed-water for Steam-boilers.—To effect purification of water before and after being fed into a boiler, a device is manufactured by the Albany Steam Trap Company, Albany, N. Y., which removes the impurities by the process of a continuous circulation of the water through the boiler, and back into the boiler. The scale and impurities that are held in suspension are thus brought in contact with the filtering agent contained in the filter, and are "arrested" by the filtering agent contained in the filter, and are removed at a temperature limited only by that contained in the boiler.

It is sometimes desirable, in the removal of the sulphates and carbonates from the feed-water, to heat the water up to nearly the same temperature as it is in the boiler, and then to filter the same before feeding it into the boiler. The operation in a general way is: The water is first forced through a usual exhaust-heater by the feed-pump, and there it is heated by the exhaust from the engine, say to 200°, and at this temperature it enters a reheater. The reheater consists of a vertical, cylindrical shell containing a series of water pans or shelves, and so arranged that as the water enters it is delivered into the top pan, and then overflows into the second, and so down the series to the bottom, and during its transit deposits the forming material. The circulating-pump takes the water from the bottom of the reheater and forces it through the filter on its way into the boiler.

Mr. W. B. Cogswell, of the Solvay Process Co.'s Soda Works in Schenectady, N. Y., thus describes the system of purification of boiler feed-water at these works (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xlii, 235):

For purifying, we use a weak soda liquor, containing about 12 to 15 lbs. Na_2CO_3 per litre. Say 1½ to 2 M³ (or 397 to 580 gals.) of this liquor is added to the precipitating tank. Hot water about 60° C. is then turned into the tank, the reaction of the precipitation goes on while the tank is filling, and requires about 15 minutes. When the tank is full the water is filtered through the Hyatt (4) 5 feet diameter, and the Jewell (1), 10 feet diameter, for 30 minutes. Forty tanks treated per 24 hours.

Charge of water purified at once.....	30 M ³ , 9,275 gals.
Soda in purifying reagent	15 kgs. Na_2CO_3
Soda used per 1,000 gallons.....	3.5 lbs.

A sample is taken from each boiler every other day and tested for Baumé, soda and salt. If the deg. B. is more than 2, that boiler is to be reduced to below 2 deg. B.

The following are some analyses given by Mr. Cogswell:

	Lake Water, grams per litre.	Mud from Hyatt Filter.	Scale from Boiler- tube
Calcium sulphate.....	.261	3.70	51.84
Calcium chloride.....	.186		
Calcium carbonate.....	.001	63.37	19.75
Magnesium carbonate.....	.015	1.11	25.21
Magnesium chloride.....	.087		
Salt, NaCl.....	.63		.14
Silica.....		15.17	1.29
Iron and aluminium oxide.....		3.75	1.39
Total.....	1.270	87.10	98.74

Hard Water for Locomotive Use.—A water-softening apparatus at Fossil, in Western Wyoming, on the Union Pacific, is described in *Eng'g News*, June 9, 1892. It is the invention of J. H. P. Smith, of Kansas City. The general plan adopted is to first disengage the impurities in a closed tank, and then connect this to the supply main. The water will be forced into the main tank, the supply-pipe being cut off. A thorough mixture of the solution with the water is obtained by the bottom of the tank is opened from time to time to the precipitate. The pipe leading to the tender is arranged to draw from near the surface.

A tank 24 feet in diameter and 16 feet high will contain about 48,600 gal. of water. About three hours should be allowed for this amount of water to pass through the tank to insure thorough precipitation, giving a consumption of about 15,000 gallons per hour. Should more be required, auxiliary settling-tanks should be provided.

In addition to precipitate the scale-forming impurities are soda ash and quicklime, varying in proportions according to the relative amounts of sulphates and carbonates in the water to be treated. When soda ash is added to produce just enough sodium sulphate in the remaining lime and magnesia sulphate and produce its corresponding magnesia salt, thereby to get rid of the lime, which produces foaming, if allowed to accumulate.

HYDRAULICS—FLOW OF WATER.

Flow of Water through Orifices and Pipes.—For rectangular or circular orifices, with the head measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir.

$$Q = C \sqrt{2gH} \times a, \quad (1)$$

where Q = discharge in cubic feet per second; C = coefficient of discharge; a = area of orifice in square feet.

$$Q = C \sqrt{2gH} \times LH, \quad (2)$$

where L = length of orifice in feet; H = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir; C = coefficient of discharge.

$$Q = cL\sqrt{2g} \times (\sqrt{H_0^3} - \sqrt{H_1^3}), \quad (3)$$

where c = coefficient of discharge; L = length of orifice in feet; H_0 = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir; H_1 = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the receiving reservoir.

$$Q = c \sqrt{2g} \times Lh, \quad (4)$$

where Q = discharge in cubic feet per second; C = coefficient of discharge; a = area of orifice in square feet; L = length of orifice in feet; H = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir; H_0 = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir; H_1 = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the receiving reservoir; c = correct coefficient for (3).

The coefficients c and C are given below.

$C = 0.62$; H = head in feet measured from centre of orifice to surface of water; H_0 = head measured from bottom of orifice; H_1 = head from top of orifice; $h = H$, corrected for velocity of approach; $h = H \left(1 + \frac{V_0^2}{2g} \right)$; a = area in square feet; L = length in feet.

Water from Orifices.—The theoretical velocity of water flowing from an orifice is the same as the velocity of a falling body which has fallen through a height equal to the head of water, $= \sqrt{2gH}$. The actual velocity of the water flowing from the orifice is substantially the theoretical, but the velocity at the plane of the orifice is less.

The coefficient C has the nearly constant value of about 0.62. The coefficient c has the nearly constant value of about 0.75. The coefficient C is therefore about 0.75 times the approximate coefficient = .62, and c the

cient, the ratio $\frac{C}{c}$ varies with different ratios of the head to the of the vertical orifice, or to $\frac{H}{D}$. Hamilton Smith, Jr., gives the following

For $\frac{H}{D} = .5$.875	.1	1.5	2.	2.5	3.
$\frac{C}{c} =$.9604	.9849	.9918	.9965	.9980	.9987

For vertical rectangular orifices of ratio of head to width W :

For $\frac{H}{W} = .5$.8	.8	.1	1.5	2.	3.	4.	5.
$\frac{C}{c} =$.9428	.9657	.9823	.9890	.9953	.9974	.9986	.9993

For $H = D$ or $H = W$ over 8, $C = c$, practically.

Weisbach gives the following values of c for circular orifices in a thin $H =$ measured head from centre of orifice.

D ft.	H ft.					
	.066	.131	.262	2.0	3.0	45.
.033	.711	.665	.637	.628	.641	.632
.066			.629	.621		
.100			.622	.614		
.13			.614	.607		

For an orifice of $D = .033$ ft. and a well-rounded mouthpiece H = effective head in feet,

$H = .066$	1.64	11.5	56	335
$c = .989$.967	.973	.994	.994

Hamilton Smith, Jr., found that for great heads, 312 ft. to 336 ft., with varying mouthpieces, c has a value of about one, and for small orifices in thin plates, with full contraction, $c =$ about .60. Some of Smith's experimental values of c for orifices in thin plates discharging air are as follows. All dimensions in feet.

Circular, in steel, $D = .020$,	$H = .730$	2.43	3.19		
	$c = .6495$.6298	.6304		
Circular, in brass, $D = .020$,	$H = .185$.596	1.74	2.77	3.57
	$c = .6525$.6265	.6113	.6010	.6000
Circular, in brass, $D = .100$,	$H = .129$.457	.900	1.73	2.40
	$c = .6337$.6153	.6006	.6042	.6000
Circular, in iron, $D = .100$,	$H = .180$	1.81	2.81	4.79	
	$c = .6061$.6041	.6033	.6036	
Square, in brass, $.05 \times .05$,	$H = .813$.877	1.79	2.84	3.70
	$c = .6410$.6238	.6157	.6127	.6110
Square, in brass, $.10 \times .10$,	$H = .181$.639	1.71	2.73	3.74
	$c = .6292$.6139	.6064	.6076	.6000
Rectangular, in brass, $L = .300, W = .050$...	$H = .294$.917	1.82	2.83	3.73
	$c = .6474$.6290	.6203	.6190	.6170

For the rectangular orifice, L , the length, is horizontal.

Mr. Smith, as the result of the collation of much experimental data, other as well as his own, gives tables of the values of c for vertical orifices with full contraction, with a free discharge into the air, with the mouth of the plate, in which the orifice is pierced, plane, and with sharp corners, so that the escaping vein only touches these inner edges. The tables are tabulated below. The coefficient c is to be used in the formulae (1) and (2) for formulae (1) and (2) use the coefficient C found from $\frac{C}{c}$ above.

Values of Coefficient c for Vertical Orifices with Sharp Edges, Full Contraction, and Free Discharge into Air. (Hamilton Smith, Jr.)

Square Orifices. Length of the Side of the Square, in feet.

.02	.03	.04	.05	.07	.10	.12	.15	.20	.30	.60	.80	1.0
.600	.645	.643	.637	.628	.621	.616	.611	.605	.601	.598	.596	
.648	.636	.628	.622	.618	.613	.610	.608	.605	.603	.601	.600	.599
.692	.622	.616	.612	.609	.607	.606	.605	.605	.605	.604	.603	.603
.693	.616	.612	.609	.607	.605	.605	.605	.604	.604	.603	.602	.602
.616	.611	.608	.606	.605	.604	.604	.603	.603	.603	.602	.602	.601
.606	.605	.604	.603	.602	.602	.602	.602	.602	.601	.601	.601	.600
.599	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598

Circular Orifices. Diameters, in feet.

.02	.03	.04	.05	.07	.10	.12	.15	.20	.30	.60	.80	1.0
.655	.640	.630	.624	.618	.613	.609	.605	.601	.596	.593	.590	
.644	.631	.623	.617	.612	.608	.605	.603	.600	.598	.595	.593	.591
.632	.621	.614	.610	.607	.604	.601	.600	.599	.599	.597	.596	.595
.623	.614	.609	.605	.603	.602	.600	.599	.599	.598	.597	.597	.596
.618	.611	.607	.604	.602	.600	.599	.599	.598	.598	.597	.596	.596
.611	.606	.603	.601	.600	.598	.598	.597	.597	.597	.596	.596	.595
.601	.600	.599	.598	.597	.596	.596	.596	.596	.596	.596	.595	.594
.596	.596	.595	.595	.594	.594	.594	.594	.594	.594	.594	.593	.593
.593	.593	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.591

HYDRAULIC FORMULÆ.—FLOW OF WATER IN OPEN AND CLOSED CHANNELS.

Flow of Water in Pipes. The quantity of water discharged from a pipe depends on the "head," that is, the vertical distance between the level surface of still water in the chamber at the entrance end of the pipe and the level of the centre of the discharge end of the pipe; upon the length of the pipe, upon the character of its interior surface, its smoothness, and upon the number and sharpness of the bends; but is independent of the position of the pipe, as horizontal, or inclined upwards or downwards.

The head, instead of being an actual distance between levels, may be caused by pressure, as by a pump, in which case the head is calculated as a fluid distance corresponding to the pressure 1 lb. per sq. in. = 2.309 ft., or 1 ft. head = .433 lb. per sq. in.

The total head operating to cause flow is divided into three parts: 1. The *entry-head*, which is the height through which a body must fall *in vacuo* to acquire the velocity with which the water flows into the pipe = $v^2 = 2g$, in which v is the velocity in ft. per sec. and $2g = 64.32$; 2. the *entry-head*, that is, the head required to overcome the resistance to entrance to the pipe. With sharp-edged entrance the entry-head = about $\frac{1}{2}$ the velocity-head; with smooth-edged entrance the entry-head is inappreciable; 3. the *friction-head*, due to the frictional resistance to flow within the pipe.

In ordinary cases of pipes of considerable length the sum of the entry and friction heads required scarcely exceeds 1 foot. In the case of long pipes the friction head is the sum of the velocity and entry heads is generally so small that it may be neglected.

General Formula for Flow of Water in Pipes or Conduits.

Mean velocity in ft. per sec. = $c \sqrt{\frac{\text{head in ft.}}{\text{friction coefficient}}}$

Do, for pipes running full = $c \sqrt{\frac{\text{head in ft.}}{\text{friction coefficient}}}$

where c is a coefficient determined by experiment.

The mean hydraulic radius = $\frac{\text{Area of wet cross-section}}{\text{wet perimeter.}}$

In pipes running full, or exactly half full, and in semicircular opennels running full it is equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ diameter.

The slope = the head (or pressure expressed as a head, in feet)

+ length of pipe measured in a straight line from end to end.

In open channels the slope is the actual slope of the surface, or the unit of length, or the sine of the angle of the slope with the horizon.

If r = mean hydraulic radius, s = slope = head ÷ length, v = velocity per second all dimensions in feet, $v = c \sqrt{r} \sqrt{s} = c \sqrt{rs}$.

Quantity of Water Discharged.—If Q = discharge in cubic feet per second and a = area of channel, $Q = av = ac \sqrt{rs}$.

$c \sqrt{rs}$ is approximately proportional to the discharge. It is a maximum, corresponding to $19/20$ of the diameter, and the flow of a conduit full is about 5 per cent greater than that of one completely filled.

Table giving Fall in Feet per Mile, the Distance on a Slope corresponding to a Fall of 1 Ft., and also the Value of s and \sqrt{s} for Use in the Formula $v = c \sqrt{rs}$.

$s = H \div L$ = sine of angle of slope = fall of water-surface (H), in distance (L), divided by that distance.

Fall in Feet per Mi.	Slope, 1 Foot in	Sine of Slope, s .	\sqrt{s} .	Fall in Feet per Mi.	Slope, 1 Foot in	Sine of Slope, s .	\sqrt{s} .
0.25	21120	.0000473	.006881	17	310.6	.0032197	.0567
.30	17600	.0000568	.007528	18	293.8	.0035169	.0593
.40	13200	.0000758	.008704	19	277.9	.0038265	.0620
.50	10560	.0000947	.009731	20	264	.0041389	.0646
.60	8800	.0001136	.010660	22	240	.0047667	.0687
.702	7520	.0001330	.011532	24	220	.0054455	.0732
.804	6560	.0001524	.012347	26	203.1	.0061742	.0776
.904	5840	.0001712	.013095	28	188.6	.0069529	.0820
1.	5280	.0001894	.013762	30	176	.0077816	.0864
1.25	4224	.0002307	.015386	35.20	150	.0096667	.0983
1.5	3520	.0002841	.016954	40	132	.0118778	.1089
1.75	3017	.0003314	.018205	44	120	.0143553	.1199
2	2640	.0003788	.019463	48	110	.0170009	.1304
2.25	2347	.0004261	.020641	52.8	100	.0198166	.1407
2.5	2112	.0004735	.021760	60	88	.0238236	.1526
2.75	1920	.0005208	.022822	66	80	.0280303	.1645
3.	1760	.0005682	.023837	70.4	75	.0324370	.1764
3.25	1625	.0006154	.024807	80	66	.0370437	.1883
3.5	1508	.0006631	.025751	88	60	.0418504	.2002
3.75	1408	.0007102	.026670	96	55	.0468571	.2121
4	1320	.0007576	.027524	105.6	50	.0520638	.2240
5	1056	.0009470	.030773	120	44	.0574705	.2359
6	880	.0011364	.033771	132	40	.0630772	.2478
7	754.3	.0013257	.036616	160	33	.0738839	.2697
8	660	.0015152	.039385	220	24	.0946906	.3080
9	586.6	.0017044	.042096	264	20	.1154973	.3363
10	528	.0018940	.044749	330	16	.1463040	.3812
11	448.6	.0020833	.047353	400	12	.1871107	.4321
12	440	.0022727	.047673	528	10	.2379174	.4870
13	406.1	.0024621	.049002	660	8	.2987241	.5419
14	377.1	.0026515	.051403	840	6	.3595308	.6068
15	352	.0028409	.053804	1056	5	.4403375	.6717
16	330	.0030303	.056205	1320	4	.5211442	.7266

of \sqrt{r} for Circular Pipes, Sewers, and Conduits of different Diameters.

hydraulic depth = $\frac{\text{area}}{\text{perimeter}} = \frac{1}{4}$ diam. for circular pipes run-
or exactly half full.

\sqrt{r} in Feet.	Diam., ft. in.	\sqrt{r} in Feet.	Diam., ft. in.	\sqrt{r} in Feet.	Diam., ft. in.	\sqrt{r} in Feet.
1.082	2	.707	4 6	1.061	9	1.500
1.083	2 1	.722	4 7	1.070	10 3	1.521
1.125	2 2	.736	4 8	1.080	9 6	1.541
1.144	2 3	.750	4 9	1.089	9 9	1.561
1.161	2 4	.764	4 10	1.099	10	1.581
1.177	2 5	.777	4 11	1.109	10 1	1.601
1.191	2 6	.790	5	1.118	10 5	1.620
1.204	2 7	.804	5 1	1.127	10 9	1.639
1.225	2 8	.817	5 2	1.137	11	1.658
1.251	2 9	.829	5 3	1.146	11 3	1.677
1.260	2 10	.842	5 4	1.155	11 6	1.696
1.283	2 11	.854	5 5	1.164	11 9	1.714
1.354	3	.866	5 6	1.173	12	1.732
1.382	3 1	.878	5 7	1.181	12 3	1.750
1.406	3 2	.890	5 8	1.190	12 6	1.768
1.433	3 3	.901	5 9	1.199	12 9	1.785
1.450	3 4	.913	5 10	1.208	13	1.803
1.479	3 5	.924	5 11	1.216	13 3	1.820
1.500	3 6	.935	6	1.225	13 6	1.837
1.520	3 7	.946	6 1	1.235	14	1.871
1.540	3 8	.957	6 2	1.245	14 6	1.904
1.569	3 9	.968	6 3	1.250	15	1.936
1.577	3 10	.970	7	1.253	15 6	1.968
1.595	3 11	.990	7 1	1.256	16	2.
1.612	4	1.	7 6	1.269	16 6	2.031
1.629	4 1	1.010	7 9	1.292	17	2.061
1.646	4 2	1.021	8	1.314	17 6	2.091
1.661	4 3	1.031	8 1	1.330	18	2.121
1.677	4 4	1.041	8 6	1.358	19	2.189
1.692	4 5	1.051	8 9	1.379	20	2.258

of the Coefficient c . (Chiefly condensed from P. J. Flynn
[Water].)—Almost all the old hydraulic formulæ for finding the
velocity in open and closed channels have constant coefficients, and are
correct for only a small range of channels. They have often been
found to give incorrect results with disastrous effects. Ganguillet and Küt-
ter, after investigating the American, French, and other experiments,
have as the result of their labors the formula now generally known
as Kutter's formula. There are so many varying conditions affecting the
coefficient, that all hydraulic formulæ are only approximations to the
result.

If the surface-slope measurement is good, Kutter's formula will give
results not exceeding 1% error, provided the roughness coefficient of the
channel is known for the site. For small open channels D'Arcy's and
Manning's formulæ, and for cast-iron pipes D'Arcy's formulæ, are generally
found to be approximately correct.

Kutter's Formula for measures in feet is

$$v = \left\{ \frac{1.487 + 41.6 + \frac{.00081}{s}}{1 + \left(41.6 + \frac{.00081}{s} \right) \times \frac{n}{\sqrt{r}}} \right\} \times \sqrt{rs},$$

v = mean velocity in feet per second; r = $\frac{a}{p}$ = hydraulic radius

depth in feet = area of cross-section in square feet divided by wet area in lineal feet; s = fall of water-surface (h) in any distance by that distance, $= \frac{h}{l}$, = sine of slope; n = the coefficient of roughness depending on the nature of the lining or surface of the channel. The first term of the right-hand side of the equation equal c , we have the formula, $v = c \sqrt{rs} = c \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$.

Values of n in Kutter's Formula.—The accuracy of the formula depends, in a great measure, on the proper selection of the coefficient of roughness n . Experience is required in order to give the right value of this coefficient, and to this end great assistance can be obtained, by this selection, by consulting and comparing the results obtained by experiments on the flow of water already made in different channels.

In some cases it would be well to provide for the contingency of deterioration of channel, by selecting a high value of n , as for example, where a dense growth of weeds is likely to occur in small channels, where channels are likely not to be kept in a state of good repair.

The following table, giving the value of n for different materials piled from Kutter, Jackson, and Hering, and this value of n applied each instance, to the surfaces of other materials equally rough.

VALUE OF n IN KUTTER'S FORMULA FOR DIFFERENT CHANNELS.

$n = .009$, well-planed timber, in perfect order and alignment; perhaps .01 would be suitable.

$n = .010$, plaster in pure cement; planed timber; glazed, enamelled stoneware and iron pipes; glazed surfaces of every sort in perfect order.

$n = .011$, plaster in cement with one third sand, in good condition; iron, cement, and terra cotta pipes, well joined, and in best order.

$n = .012$, unplanned timber, when perfectly continuous on the flumes.

$n = .013$, ashlar and well-laid brickwork; ordinary metal; cast stoneware pipe in good condition, but not new; cement and terra cotta not well jointed nor in perfect order; plaster and planed wood in good or inferior condition; and, generally, the materials mentioned when in imperfect or inferior condition.

$n = .015$, second class or rough-faced brickwork; well-dressed iron and slightly tuberculated iron; cement and terra cotta pipes, perfect joints and in bad order; and canvas lining on wooden flumes.

$n = .017$, brickwork, ashlar, and stoneware in an inferior condition; tuberculated iron pipes; rubble in cement or plaster in good order; well rammed, $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{8}$ inch diameter; and, generally, the materials mentioned with $n = .013$ when in bad order and condition.

$n = .020$, rubble in cement in an inferior condition; coarse rubble set in a normal condition; coarse rubble set dry; ruined brick masonry; coarse gravel well rammed, from 1 to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch diameter, with beds and banks of very firm, regular gravel, carefully rammed in defective places; rough rubble with bed partially cement and mud; rectangular wooden troughs with battens on the sides 6 inches apart; trammed earth in perfect order.

$n = .025$, canals in earth above the average in order and regimen; $n = .035$, canals and rivers in earth of tolerably uniform cross slope and direction, in moderately good order and regimen, and free from stones and weeds.

$n = .075$, canals and rivers in earth below the average in order and regimen.

$n = .030$, canals and rivers in earth in rather bad order and regimen, stones and weeds occasionally, and obstructed by detritus.

$n = .035$, suitable for rivers and canals with earthen beds in bad regimen, and having stones and weeds in great quantity.

$n = .05$, torrents encumbered with detritus.

Kutter's formula has the advantage of being easily adapted to the surface of the pipe exposed to the flow of water, by a change of value of n . For cast iron pipes it is usual to use $n = .013$ to provide for future deterioration of the surface.

Reducing Kutter's formula to the form $v = c \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$, and taking coefficient of roughness in the formula = .009, .012, and .013, and the data in the following values of the coefficient c for different roughness.

of c in Formula $v = c \sqrt{r s}$ for Metal Pipes and Moderately Smooth Conduits Generally.

By KUTTER'S FORMULA. ($s = .001$ or greater.)

r .	$n = .011$	$n = .012$	$n = .013$	Diameter.	$n = .011$	$n = .012$	$n = .013$
	$c =$	$c =$	$c =$	ft.	$c =$	$c =$	$c =$
	47.1	7	152.7	130.9	127.9
	61.5	8	155.4	141.0	130.4
	77.4	9	157.7	144.1	132.7
	87.4	77.5	88.4	10	159.7	146	134.5
	105.7	91.6	85.3	11	161.5	147.8	136.2
	116.1	104.3	94.4	12	163	149.3	137.7
	123.6	111.3	101.1	14	165.8	152	140.4
	143.5	130.8	110.1	16	168	154.2	142.1
	140.4	127.4	116.5	18	169.9	156.1	144.4
	145.4	132.3	121.1	20	171.8	157.7	146
	149.4	136.1	124.8				

For pipes the hydraulic mean depth r equals $\frac{1}{4}$ of the diameter. For Kutter's formula the value of c , the coefficient of discharge, is for all slopes greater than 1 in 1000; that is, within these limits constant. We further find that up to a slope of 1 in 2500 the value of c for practical purposes, constant, and even up to a slope of 1 in 5000 the value of c is very little. This is exemplified in the

Table for Different Values of r and s in Kutter's Formula, with $n = .013$.

$$v = c \sqrt{r \times s}.$$

Slopes.

in 1000	1 in 2500	1 in 3333.3	1 in 5000	1 in 10,000
93.6	91.5	90.4	88.4	86.3
116.5	115.2	114.4	113.2	109.7
142.6	142.8	143.0	143.1	143.8

Reliability of the values of the coefficient of Kutter's formula for slopes less than 6 in. diameter is considered doubtful. (See note under page 564.)

of c for Earthen Channels, by Kutter's Formula, for Use in Formula $v = c \sqrt{rs}$.

Coefficient of Roughness, $n = .0225$.					Coefficient of Roughness, $n = .035$.				
r in feet.					r in feet.				
0.4	1.0	1.8	2.5	4.0	0.4	1.0	1.8	2.5	4.0
c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c
87.7	92.5	80.3	89.2	90.9	19.7	37.0	51.6	59.3	69.2
85.5	92.3	80.3	89.3	100.2	19.6	37.0	51.0	59.4	69.1
85.2	92.1	80.3	89.5	100.6	19.4	37.4	51.0	59.5	69.4
84.0	91.7	80.3	89.8	101.4	19.1	37.1	51.0	59.7	70.1
83.	91.2	80.3	90.1	102.2	18.8	36.9	51.0	59.9	71.0
82.	90.5	80.3	90.7	103.7	18.8	36.4	51.0	60.4	72.2
81.6	89.4	80.3	91.5	106.0	17.6	35.8	51.0	60.9	73.9
80.6	88.5	80.3	92.3	107.9	17.1	35.3	51.0	60.5	75.4
79.5	86.7	80.2	93.9	112.2	16.2	34.3	51.0	60.	76.
77.4	85.7	80.2	94.3	115.0	15.6	33.8	51.0		

Mr. Molesworth, in the 2d edition of his "Pocket-book of Engineering," gives a modification of Kutter's formula as follows: For cast-iron pipes, $v = c \sqrt{rs}$, in which

$$c = \frac{181 + \frac{.00281}{n}}{1 + \frac{.028}{\sqrt{d}} \left(41.6 + \frac{.00281}{s} \right)}$$

in which d = diameter of the pipe in feet.

(This formula was given incorrectly in Molesworth's 2d edition.)

Molesworth's Formula.— $v = \sqrt{kr_s}$, in which the value of k is as follows:

Nature of Channel.	Values of k for Velocities	
	Less than 4 ft. per sec.	More than 4 ft. per sec.
Brickwork	8800	8500
Earth	7800	8200
Shingle	5800	5600
Rough, with boulders	5300	4700

In very large channels, rivers, etc., the description of the channel and the result so slightly that it may be practically neglected, and k assumed from 5500 to 9000.

Flynn's Formula.—Mr. Flynn obtains the following expression for the value of Kutter's coefficient for a slope of .001 and a value of n as follows:

$$c = \frac{188.72}{1 + \left(44.41 \times \frac{.013}{\sqrt{r}} \right)}$$

The following table shows the close agreement of the values of c obtained from Kutter's, Molesworth's, and Flynn's formulae:

Diameter.	Slope.	Kutter.	Molesworth.
6 inches	1 in 40	71.50	71.48
6 inches	1 in 1000	69.50	69.79
4 feet	1 in 400	117.	117.
4 feet	1 in 1000	110.5	116.55
8 feet	1 in 700	130.5	130.68
8 feet	1 in 3600	129.8	129.63

Mr. Flynn gives another simplified form of Kutter's formula for different values of n as follows:

$$v = \left(\frac{K}{1 + \left(44.41 \times \frac{n}{\sqrt{r}} \right)} \right) \sqrt{rs}.$$

In the following table the value of K is given for the several values of n .

n	K	n	K	n	K	n	K	n
.009	245.63	.012	196.33	.015	165.14	.018	145.03	.021
.010	235.51	.013	188.72	.016	157.6	.019	139.75	.022
.011	229.05	.014	187.77	.017	150.94	.020	134.96	.023

If in the application of Mr. Flynn's formula given above, instead of n as given in the table, we substitute for n , K , and \sqrt{r} their values in the formula of Kutter's formula.

when $n = .011$, and $d = 3$ feet, we have

$$v = \frac{309.05}{1 + \left(44.41 \times \frac{.011}{.886} \right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

Formula:

Even surfaces, fine plastered sides and bed, planed planks, etc.,

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .0000045 \left(10.16 + \frac{1}{r} \right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

Surfaces such as cut-stone, brickwork, unplanned planking, mortar,

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .000013 \left(4.354 + \frac{1}{r} \right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

Uneven surfaces, such as rubble masonry:

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .00006 \left(1.219 + \frac{1}{r} \right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

Surfaces, such as earth:

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .00035 \left(0.2438 + \frac{1}{r} \right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

Use of Bazin's formula, known as D'Arcy's Bazin's:

$$v = r \sqrt{\frac{1000s}{.08534r + 0.35}}.$$

In channels of less than 20 feet bed Bazin's formula for earthen channels in good order gives very fair results, but Kutter's formula is preferable in almost all countries where its accuracy has been investigated. Table on p. 561 shows the value of c in Kutter's formula, for a wide range of channels in earth, that will cover anything likely to occur in the practice of an engineer.

Formula for clean iron pipes under pressure is

$$v = \left\{ \frac{rs}{.00007736 + \frac{.00000162}{r}} \right\}^{\frac{1}{4}}$$

A modification of D'Arcy's formula is

$$v = \left(\frac{155256d}{12d + 1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \times \sqrt{rs}$$

where d = diameter in feet.

Formula, as given by J. B. Francis, C.E., for old cast-iron pipe, deposit and under pressure, is

$$v = \left(\frac{144d^2s}{.0082(12d + 1)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

A modification of D'Arcy's formula for old cast-iron pipe is

$$v = \left(\frac{70243.9d}{12d + 1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

For Pipes Less than 5 inches in Diameter, coefficients in the formula $v = c \sqrt{rs}$, from the formula of D'Arey, Kutter and Fanning.

Diam. in inches.	D'Arey, for Clean Pipes.	Kutter, for $n = .011$ $s = .001$	Fanning, for Clean Iron Pipes	Diam. in inches	D'Arey, for Clean Pipes.	Kutter for $n = .011$ $s = .001$
$\frac{3}{8}$	59.4	32.		$1\frac{1}{4}$	90.7	58.8
$\frac{1}{2}$	65.7	36.1		$1\frac{1}{2}$	92.9	61.5
$\frac{3}{4}$	71.5	42.6		$2\frac{1}{8}$	96.1	66.
1	80.4	47.4	80.4	$2\frac{1}{2}$	98.3	70.1
$1\frac{1}{4}$	84.8	51.9		3	101.7	77.4
$1\frac{3}{4}$	88.1	55.4	88.	4	103.8	82.9

Mr. Flynn, in giving the above table, says that the facts show that coefficients diminish from a diameter of 5 inches to smaller diameters, is a safer plan to adopt coefficients varying with the diameter than a constant coefficient. No opinion is advanced as to what coefficients should be used with Kutter's formula for small diameters. The facts are stated, giving the results of well-known authors.

Older Formulae.—The following are a few of the many formulae for the flow of water in pipes given by earlier writers. As they have coefficients, they are not considered as reliable as the newer formulae.

$$\text{Prony, } v = 97 \sqrt{rs} - .08;$$

$$\text{Eytelwein, } v = 50 \sqrt{\frac{dh}{l + 50d}} \quad \text{or} \quad v = 108 \sqrt{rs} - 0.13,$$

$$\text{Hawksley, } v = 48 \sqrt{\frac{dh}{l + 54d}}; \quad \text{Neville, } v = 140 \sqrt{rs} - 11$$

In these formulae d = diameter in feet; h = head of water in feet; l = length of pipe in feet; s = sine of slope = $\frac{h}{l}$; v = mean hydraulic velocity in feet per second.

$$r = \frac{\text{area} + \text{wet perimeter}}{4} \quad \text{for circular pipes.}$$

Mr. Santo Crump (*Eng'g*, August 4, 1883) states that observations in brick sewers show that the actual discharge is 33% greater than calculated by Eytelwein's formula. He thinks Kutter's formula and as to D'Arey's for brick sewers, the usual coefficient of roughness is former, viz., .013, being too low for large sewers and far too small for small sewers.

D'Arey's formula for brickwork is

$$v = \frac{\sqrt{2g}}{m} \sqrt{rs}; \quad m = a \left(1 + \frac{B}{r} \right); \quad a = .0037285; \quad B = .229663$$

VELOCITY OF WATER IN OPEN CHANNELS.

Irrigation Canals.—The minimum mean velocity required to prevent the deposit of silt or the growth of aquatic plants is in Northern California taken at 1½ feet per second. It is stated that in America a higher velocity is required for this purpose, and it varies from 2 to 3½ feet per second. The maximum allowable velocity will vary with the nature of the soil or bed. A sandy bed will be disturbed if the velocity exceeds 4 feet per second. A good loam with not too much sand will bear a velocity of 5 feet per second. The Cuyahoga Canal in Ohio, over a gravel bed, has a velocity of about 5 feet per second. (Flynn's "Irrigation Canals.")

Mean Surface and Bottom Velocities.—According to the formula of Bazin

$$v_s = 0.85 v_b - 25.4 \sqrt{rs}; \quad v_b = v_s + 10.87 \sqrt{rs}.$$

$10.87 \sqrt{rs}$, in which v = mean velocity in feet per second, v_b = surface velocity in feet per second, v_b = bottom velocity and r = hydraulic mean depth in feet = area of cross-section divided by wetted perimeter in feet, s = sine of slope. Velocity, or that of the particles in contact with the bed, is less than the mean velocity as the greatest velocity is the mean.

As that in ordinary cases the velocities may be taken as bearing nearly the proportions of 3, 4, and 5. In very slow currents nearly as 2, 3, and 4.

Bottom and Mean Velocities.—Ganguillet & Kutter give a table of safe bottom and mean velocity in channels, calculated on $v = v_b + 10.87 \sqrt{rs}$:

Material of Channel.	Safe Bottom Velocity v_b , in feet per second.	Mean Velocity v , in feet per second.
Gravel	0.340	0.328
"	0.499	0.656
"	1.000	1.312
"	1.998	2.635
"	2.999	3.948
Flint	4.003	5.579
Soft slate	4.988	6.564
"	5.006	8.304
"	10.000	18.137

Kutter state that they are unable for want of observations for these figures are trustworthy. They consider them to be proportionately small than too large, and therefore recommend modestly.

ing at a high velocity and carrying large quantities of silt is very channels, even when constructed of the best masonry.

Resistance of Soils to Erosion by Water.—W. A. Burr, *Eng'g* 1894, gives a diagram showing the resistance of various soils to eroding water.

to show that a velocity greater than 1.1 feet per second will while pure clay will stand a velocity of 7.35 feet per second. the proportion of clay carried by any soil, the higher the per- cent. Mr. Burr states that experiments have shown that the line of power of soils to resist erosion is parabolic. From his di- agnosing figures are selected representing different classes of

and resists erosion by flow of	1.1 feet per second.
soil, 15% clay	1.2 "
do., 40% clay	1.8 "
soil, 65% clay	3.0 "
do., 85% clay	4.8 "
pure clay, 95% clay	6.2 "
"	7.35 "

Power and Transporting Power of Water.—Prof. J. H. "Elements of Geology," states:

The power of water, or its power of overcoming cohesion, varies as the velocity of the current.

Transporting power of a current varies as the sixth power of the ve- locity. If the velocity therefore be increased ten times, the transport- ing power is increased 1,000,000 times. A current running three feet per second, or two miles per hour, will bear fragments of stones of the size of a egg, or about three ounces weight. A current of ten miles an hour will carry fragments of one and a half tons, and a torrent of twenty miles an hour will carry fragments of 100 tons.

The transporting power of water must not be confounded with its erosive power. The resistance to be overcome in the one case is weight, in the other case it is cohesion. The former varies as the square of the velocity, the latter as the sixth power.

The power of removal of slightly cohering material, the resistance

mixture of these two resistances, and the power of removing may vary at some rate between v^2 and v^4 .

Baldwin Latham has found that in order to prevent deposits of matter in small sewers or drains, such as those from 6 inches to 9 inches in diameter, a mean velocity of not less than 3 feet per second should be maintained. In sewers from 12 to 24 inches diameter should have a velocity of not less than 2½ feet per second, and in sewers of larger dimensions in no case should the velocity be less than 3 feet per second.

The specific gravity of the materials has a marked effect upon the velocities necessary to move them. T. E. Blackwell found that a sp. gr. of 1.85 was moved by a current of from 1.25 to 1.50 ft. per second, while stones of a sp. gr. of 2.32 to 3.00 required a velocity of 2.50 to 3.00 ft. per second.

Chailly gives the following formula for finding the velocity required to move rounded stones or shingle:

$$v = 5.67 \sqrt{ag},$$

in which v = velocity of water in feet per second, a = average diameter of the body to be moved, g = its specific gravity.

Geo. V. Wisner, *Eng'g News*, Jan 10, 1895, doubts the general statements made by many authorities concerning the rate of flow, and the size of particles which different velocities will move.

The scouring action of any river, for any given rate of current, is an inverse function of the depth. The fact that some engineers have a given velocity of current on some stream of unknown depth, and sand or gravel has no bearing whatever on what may be expected. The velocity of the same velocity in streams of greater depths. In channels 1 ft. deep a mean velocity of 3 to 5 ft. per second may produce rapid scour, while in depths of 18 ft. and upwards current velocities of 8 ft. per second often have no effect whatever on the channel bed.

Grade of Sewers.—The following empirical formula is given by the master's "Cleaning and Sewerage of Cities," for the minimum grade of sewer of clear diameter equal to d inches, and either circular or rectangular section:

$$\text{Minimum grade, in per cent.} = \frac{100}{6d + 50}.$$

As the lowest limit of grades which can be flushed, 0.1 to 0.2 per cent. may be assumed for sewers which are sometimes dry, while 0.3 per cent. may be assumed for the trunk sewers in large cities. The sewers should be laid as low as possible.

Relation of Diameter of Pipe to Quantity Discharged

In many cases which arise in practice the information sought is the diameter necessary to supply a given quantity of water under a given head. The diameter is commonly taken to vary as the two-fifth power of the discharge. This is almost certainly too large. Hagen's formula, or

Unwin's coefficients, gives $c = \left(\frac{Q}{\left(\frac{h}{l} \right)^{1/2}} \right)^{.387}$, where c = .839 when

Q is in feet and cubic feet per second.

Mr. Thripp has proposed a formula which makes d vary as the .35 power of the discharge, and the formula of M. Vallot, a French engineer, makes d vary as the .375 power of the discharge. (*Engineering*.)

FLOW OF WATER—EXPERIMENTS AND THEORY

The Flow of Water through New Cast-iron Pipe

recently measured by S. Bent Russell, of the St. Louis Mo. Water Works. The pipe was 12 inches in diameter, 1691 feet long, and laid on a grade from end to end. Under an average total head of 1.75 feet the flow was 43,300 cubic feet in seven hours; under an average head of 1.5 feet the flow was the same; under an average total head of 1.4 feet the flow was 46,700 cubic feet in 5 hours and 35 minutes. Making allowance for head due to entrance and to curves, it was found that the velocity of flow in the pipe was from .88 to .93. (*Eng'g Record*, April 1, 1895.)

Water in a 20-inch Pipe 75,000 Feet Long

Experimental data with calculations by different methods.

OF WATER—EXPERIMENTS AND TABLES. 567

B. Brush, Trans. A. S. C. E., 1888. The pipe experimented supplying the city of Hoboken, N. J.

MAINTAINED BY THE HACKENSACK WATER COMPANY, FROM 1883-1887, THROUGH A 30-IN. CAST IRON MAIN 75,000 FEET LONG.

ft. per sq. in. at pumping-station:

head in feet:

U. S. gallons in 24 hours, 1 = 1000:

ity in main in feet per second:

consumed in delivering each million gals. at given velocities:

Discharge by D'Arcy's formula:

in Smooth Cast-iron Water-pipes from 1 Foot
to 8 Feet in Diameter, on Hydraulic Grades of 0.5
to 8 Feet per Mile; with Corresponding Values
F = c + 1.48. (D. M. Greene, in *Eng'g News*, Feb. 24, 1894.)

Hydraulic Grade; Feet per Mile = h.

h = 0.5 = 0.0000047	1.0 0.0001804	1.5 0.0002841	2.0 0.0003788	3.0 0.0005682	4.0 0.0007576
V = 0.4542	0.8673	0.8356	0.8003	1.2377	1.4402
V = 92.7	97.0	99.1	100.7	103.0	104.7
V = 0.7359	1.0798	1.3516	1.5856	1.9857	2.3924
V = 106.3	110.9	113.4	115.2	117.9	119.7
V = 0.9733	1.4206	1.7906	2.1017	2.6306	3.0860
V = 115.5	119.9	122.6	124.4	127.5	129.5
V = 1.1883	1.7456	2.1861	2.5645	3.2116	3.7676
V = 122.1	126.8	129.7	131.8	134.7	137.3
V = 1.3872	2.0379	2.5321	3.0000	3.7493	4.3983
V = 127.5	132.4	135.5	137.6	140.7	142.9
V = 1.5742	2.3120	2.9961	3.3973	4.2548	4.9913
V = 132.1	137.8	140.3	142.5	145.8	148.1
V = 1.7519	2.5736	3.2230	3.7809	4.7350	5.5546
V = 135.9	141.4	146.0	146.8	150.2	152.5
V = 1.9216	2.8234	3.5328	4.1473	5.1045	6.0366
V = 139.7	145.1	148.4	150.7	154.1	156.5
V = 2.0854	3.0638	3.8308	4.5010	5.6368	6.6125
V = 142.9	148.4	151.7	154.2	157.6	160.1

ies in this table have been calculated by Mr. Greene's modification of Chezy formula, which modification is found to give results by from 1.25 to - 2.45 per cent (average 0.9 per cent) from very assured flows in pipes from 16 to 48 inches in diameter, on grades of 1 to 10 236 feet per mile, and in which the velocities ranged from 195 feet per second. The only assumption made is that the formula for F gives correct results in conduits from 4 feet to 9 feet, as it is known to do in conduits less than 4 feet in diameter. See on Flow of Water in long tubes are to be found in *Eng'g News*: G. B. Pearsons, Sept. 23, 1890; E. Sherman Gould, Feb. 16, 1891, and 23, 1892; J. L. Fitzgerald, Sept. 6 and 13, 1890; Jas. Duane & T. Fanning, July 14, 1893; A. N. Talbot, Aug. 11, 1894.

Flow of Water in Circular Pipes, Given Slope, Based on Kutter's Formula, etc.

Discharge in Gallons per Second

Diameter inches	Slope or Head Difference				
	1 in 60	1 in 70	1 in 100	1 in 150	1 in 200
6 in	4.56	3.44	2.88	2.28	1.88
8 in	7.04	5.76	4.80	3.84	3.12
10 in	1.17	8.80	7.44	5.76	4.68
12 in	1.50	1.20	1.00	7.92	6.48
14 in	9.85	1.52	1.26	10.08	8.16
16 in	1.40	1.84	1.52	12.24	9.92
18 in	6.64	2.04	1.68	14.40	11.68
20 in	4.62	2.24	1.84	16.56	13.44
22 in	6.88	2.44	2.00	18.72	15.20
24 in	9.00	2.64	2.16	20.88	16.96
26 in	1.10	2.84	2.32	23.04	18.72
28 in	1.30	3.04	2.48	25.20	20.48
30 in	1.50	3.24	2.64	27.36	22.24
32 in	1.70	3.44	2.80	29.52	24.00
34 in	1.90	3.64	2.96	31.68	25.76
36 in	2.10	3.84	3.12	33.84	27.52
38 in	2.30	4.04	3.28	36.00	29.28
40 in	2.50	4.24	3.44	38.16	31.04
42 in	2.70	4.44	3.60	40.32	32.80
44 in	2.90	4.64	3.76	42.48	34.56
46 in	3.10	4.84	3.92	44.64	36.32
48 in	3.30	5.04	4.08	46.80	38.08
50 in	3.50	5.24	4.24	48.96	39.84
52 in	3.70	5.44	4.40	51.12	41.60
54 in	3.90	5.64	4.56	53.28	43.36
56 in	4.10	5.84	4.72	55.44	45.12
58 in	4.30	6.04	4.88	57.60	46.88
60 in	4.50	6.24	5.04	59.76	48.64
62 in	4.70	6.44	5.20	61.92	50.40
64 in	4.90	6.64	5.36	64.08	52.16
66 in	5.10	6.84	5.52	66.24	53.92
68 in	5.30	7.04	5.68	68.40	55.68
70 in	5.50	7.24	5.84	70.56	57.44
72 in	5.70	7.44	6.00	72.72	59.20
74 in	5.90	7.64	6.16	74.88	60.96
76 in	6.10	7.84	6.32	77.04	62.72
78 in	6.30	8.04	6.48	79.20	64.48
80 in	6.50	8.24	6.64	81.36	66.24
82 in	6.70	8.44	6.80	83.52	68.00
84 in	6.90	8.64	6.96	85.68	69.76
86 in	7.10	8.84	7.12	87.84	71.52
88 in	7.30	9.04	7.28	89.99	73.28
90 in	7.50	9.24	7.44	92.16	75.04
92 in	7.70	9.44	7.60	94.32	76.80
94 in	7.90	9.64	7.76	96.48	78.56
96 in	8.10	9.84	7.92	98.64	80.32
98 in	8.30	10.04	8.08	100.80	82.08
100 in	8.50	10.24	8.24	102.96	83.84
102 in	8.70	10.44	8.40	105.12	85.60
104 in	8.90	10.64	8.56	107.28	87.36
106 in	9.10	10.84	8.72	109.44	89.12
108 in	9.30	11.04	8.88	111.60	90.88
110 in	9.50	11.24	9.04	113.76	92.64
112 in	9.70	11.44	9.20	115.92	94.40
114 in	9.90	11.64	9.36	118.08	96.16
116 in	10.10	11.84	9.52	120.24	97.92
118 in	10.30	12.04	9.68	122.40	99.68
120 in	10.50	12.24	9.84	124.56	101.44
122 in	10.70	12.44	10.00	126.72	103.20
124 in	10.90	12.64	10.16	128.88	104.96
126 in	11.10	12.84	10.32	131.04	106.72
128 in	11.30	13.04	10.48	133.20	108.48
130 in	11.50	13.24	10.64	135.36	110.24
132 in	11.70	13.44	10.80	137.52	112.00
134 in	11.90	13.64	10.96	139.68	113.76
136 in	12.10	13.84	11.12	141.84	115.52
138 in	12.30	14.04	11.28	144.00	117.28
140 in	12.50	14.24	11.44	146.16	119.04
142 in	12.70	14.44	11.60	148.32	120.80
144 in	12.90	14.64	11.76	150.48	122.56
146 in	13.10	14.84	11.92	152.64	124.32
148 in	13.30	15.04	12.08	154.80	126.08
150 in	13.50	15.24	12.24	156.96	127.84
152 in	13.70	15.44	12.40	159.12	129.60
154 in	13.90	15.64	12.56	161.28	131.36
156 in	14.10	15.84	12.72	163.44	133.12
158 in	14.30	16.04	12.88	165.60	134.88
160 in	14.50	16.24	13.04	167.76	136.64
162 in	14.70	16.44	13.20	169.92	138.40
164 in	14.90	16.64	13.36	172.08	140.16
166 in	15.10	16.84	13.52	174.24	141.92
168 in	15.30	17.04	13.68	176.40	143.68
170 in	15.50	17.24	13.84	178.56	145.44
172 in	15.70	17.44	14.00	180.72	147.20
174 in	15.90	17.64	14.16	182.88	148.96
176 in	16.10	17.84	14.32	185.04	150.72
178 in	16.30	18.04	14.48	187.20	152.48
180 in	16.50	18.24	14.64	189.36	154.24
182 in	16.70	18.44	14.80	191.52	156.00
184 in	16.90	18.64	14.96	193.68	157.76
186 in	17.10	18.84	15.12	195.84	159.52
188 in	17.30	19.04	15.28	198.00	161.28
190 in	17.50	19.24	15.44	200.16	163.04
192 in	17.70	19.44	15.60	202.32	164.80
194 in	17.90	19.64	15.76	204.48	166.56
196 in	18.10	19.84	15.92	206.64	168.32
198 in	18.30	20.04	16.08	208.80	170.08
200 in	18.50	20.24	16.24	210.96	171.84
202 in	18.70	20.44	16.40	213.12	173.60
204 in	18.90	20.64	16.56	215.28	175.36
206 in	19.10	20.84	16.72	217.44	177.12
208 in	19.30	21.04	16.88	219.60	178.88
210 in	19.50	21.24	17.04	221.76	180.64
212 in	19.70	21.44	17.20	223.92	182.40
214 in	19.90	21.64	17.36	226.08	184.16
216 in	20.10	21.84	17.52	228.24	185.92
218 in	20.30	22.04	17.68	230.40	187.68
220 in	20.50	22.24	17.84	232.56	189.44
222 in	20.70	22.44	18.00	234.72	191.20
224 in	20.90	22.64	18.16	236.88	192.96
226 in	21.10	22.84	18.32	239.04	194.72
228 in	21.30	23.04	18.48	241.20	196.48
230 in	21.50	23.24	18.64	243.36	198.24
232 in	21.70	23.44	18.80	245.52	200.00
234 in	21.90	23.64	18.96	247.68	201.76
236 in	22.10	23.84	19.12	249.84	203.52
238 in	22.30	24.04	19.28	252.00	205.28
240 in	22.50	24.24	19.44	254.16	207.04
242 in	22.70	24.44	19.60	256.32	208.80
244 in	22.90	24.64	19.76	258.48	210.56
246 in	23.10	24.84	19.92	260.64	212.32
248 in	23.30	25.04	20.08	262.80	214.08
250 in	23.50	25.24	20.24	264.96	215.84
252 in	23.70	25.44	20.40	267.12	217.60
254 in	23.90	25.64	20.56	269.28	219.36
256 in	24.10	25.84	20.72	271.44	221.12
258 in	24.30	26.04	20.88	273.60	222.88
260 in	24.50	26.24	21.04	275.76	224.64
262 in	24.70	26.44	21.20	277.92	226.40
264 in	24.90	26.64	21.36	280.08	228.16
266 in	25.10	26.84	21.52	282.24	229.92
268 in	25.30	27.04	21.68	284.40	231.68
270 in	25.50	27.24	21.84	286.56	233.44
272 in	25.70	27.44	22.00	288.72	235.20
274 in	25.90	27.64	22.16	290.88	236.96
276 in	26.10	27.84	22.32	293.04	238.72
278 in	26.30	28.04	22.48	295.20	240.48
280 in	26.50	28.24	22.64	297.36	242.24
282 in	26.70	28.44	22.80	299.52	244.00
284 in	26.90	28.64	22.96	301.68	245.76
286 in	27.10	28.84	23.12	303.84	247.52
288 in	27.30	29.04	23.28	306.00	249.28
290 in	27.50	29.24	23.44	308.16	251.04
292 in	27.70	29.44	23.60	310.32	252.80
294 in	27.90	29.64	23.76	312.48	254.56
296 in	28.10	29.84	23.92	314.64	256.32
298 in	28.30	30.04	24.08	316.80	258.08
300 in	28.50	30.24	24.24	318.96	259.84

For 1.8 gallons multiply the figures in the table by 7.4
For a given diameter the quantity of flow varies as the
square of the slope. From this principle the flow for other

in the table may be found. Thus, what is the flow for a pipe 8 feet in diameter, slope 1 in 125? From the table take $Q = 207.3$ for slope 1 in 2000. Then slope 1 in 125 is to 1 in 2000 as 16 to 1, and the square root of this is 4 to 1. Therefore the flow required is $207.3 \times 4 = 829.2$ cu. ft.

Circular Pipes, Conduits, etc., Flowing Full.

Values of the factor $ac \sqrt{r}$ in the formula $Q = ac \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$ corresponding to different values of the coefficient of roughness, n . (Based on Kutter's formula.)

Value of $ac \sqrt{r}$.					
$n = .010$.	$n = .011$.	$n = .012$.	$n = .013$.	$n = .015$.	$n = .017$.
0.900	6.0627	5.3800	4.8216	3.9404	3.329
21.25	18.742	16.708	15.029	12.121	10.50
46.93	41.487	37.149	33.467	27.403	23.60
80.05	76.347	68.44	61.867	51.000	43.93
141.2	125.60	112.70	102.14	83.406	72.90
214.1	190.79	171.66	155.08	130.58	111.8
307.6	274.50	247.33	224.63	184.77	161
421.9	377.07	340.10	309.23	250.47	223.9
559.6	500.78	452.07	411.27	347.28	299.3
722.4	647.18	584.90	532.76	451.23	388.8
911.8	817.50	739.59	674.06	570.90	493.3
1128.2	1013.1	917.41	836.60	709.56	613.9
1374.7	1234.4	1118.6	1021.1	866.91	750.8
1652.1	1481.2	1345.9	1229.7	1045	906
1962.8	1764.3	1600.9	1463.9	1245.2	1080.7
2302.1	2113.3	2193	2007	1711.4	1487.3
2674	2410.8	2204.6	2550	2372.7	1977
3077.8	2741.9	2742.7	2429	2934.8	2557.2
3511.5	3106.3	2713.9	2722	3702.3	3232.5
3975.2	3504.9	2825.9	2839	4588.3	4010
4468.1	3944.3	2987	3110	5591.6	4893
4996	4418.3	3204.3	3414	6717	5884.2
5556	4944	3483	3742	7978.3	6995.3
6148	5524	3832	4080	9377.9	8226.3
6774	6160	4247	4467	10917	9580.7
7432	6854	4734	4909	12594	11061
8122	7608	5284	5409	14426	12678
8844	8434	5912	5966	16412	14444
9598	9344	6625	6584	18555	16381
10382	10343	7419	7269	20876	18505
11196	11427	8294	8031	23382	20864
12040	12599	9258	8881	26092	23489
12914	13868	10317	9824	28933	26361
13818	15234	11474	10863	31917	29485
14752	16700	12731	11999	35053	32865
15716	18266	14091	13235	38353	36517
16710	19944	15558	14573	41817	40479
17734	21736	17136	16015	45447	44769
18788	23644	18829	17563	49253	49407
19872	25680	20641	19219	53245	54407
20986	27846	22578	20986	57425	59769
22130	30144	24645	22867	61795	65507
23304	32576	26847	24867	66357	71639
24508	35144	29189	26991	71113	78177
25742	37850	31676	29243	76067	85223
27006	40696	34314	31627	81223	92787
28290	43684	37109	34147	86593	100879
29604	46816	40056	36807	92179	109519
30948	50094	43161	39613	97985	118709
32322	53520	46431	42571	104013	128459
33726	57096	49864	45687	110267	138779
35160	60824	53469	48967	116751	149669
36624	64706	57244	52417	123469	161129
38118	68744	61189	56043	130427	173169
39642	72940	65304	59851	137629	185799
41196	77296	69589	63839	145079	199029
42780	81816	74044	67999	152783	212859
44394	86494	78669	72337	160747	227299
46038	91336	83464	76849	168975	242359
47712	96344	88429	81531	177473	258029
49416	101520	93564	86381	186247	274309
51150	106864	98869	91397	195293	291209
52914	112376	104344	96577	204617	308729
54708	118056	110000	101919	214227	326969
56532	123904	115836	107421	224131	345929
58386	129920	121852	113081	234337	365609
60270	136104	128049	118897	244853	386009
62184	142456	134427	124867	255679	407139
64128	148976	140987	130989	266815	428999
66102	155664	147729	137261	278261	451589
68106	162520	154653	143681	290017	474909
70140	169544	161769	150247	302083	498959
72204	176736	169067	156957	314459	523739
74298	184096	176549	163809	327145	549249
76422	191624	184217	170799	340141	575489
78576	199320	192069	177927	353447	602459
80760	207184	200105	185191	367063	630159
82974	215216	208325	192589	380989	658589
85218	223416	216729	199999	395225	687749
87492	231784	225309	207519	409771	717649
89796	240320	234057	215147	424627	748289
92130	248924	242973	222881	439793	779669
94494	257696	252057	230719	455269	811789
96888	266636	261309	238661	471055	844649
99312	275744	270729	246707	487151	878259
101766	284920	280317	254857	503557	912619
104240	294264	290073	263111	520273	947739
106734	303776	299997	271467	537299	983619
109248	313456	309989	279923	554635	1020259
111782	323296	319999	288479	572281	1057659
114336	333296	329999	297135	590237	1095819
116910	343456	339999	305891	608503	1134739
119504	353776	349999	314747	627079	1174419
122118	364256	359999	323703	645965	1214759
124752	374896	369999	332759	665161	1255769
127406	385696	379999	341915	684667	1297449
130080	396656	389999	351171	704483	1339789
132774	407776	399999	360527	724609	1382789
135488	418956	409999	369983	744945	1426449
138222	430296	419999	379539	765491	1470769
140976	441796	429999	389195	786247	1515749
143750	453456	439999	398951	807213	1561389
146544	465276	449999	408807	828389	1607689
149358	477256	459999	418763	849775	1654649
152192	489396	469999	428819	871371	1702269
155046	501696	479999	438975	893177	1750549
157920	514156	489999	449231	915193	1800489
160814	526776	499999	459587	937419	1851089
163728	539556	509999	469943	959855	1902349
166662	552496	519999	480399	982501	1954269
169616	565596	529999	490955	1005357	2006849
172590	578856	539999	501611	1028423	2060089
175584	592276	549999	512367	1051699	2114009
178598	605856	559999	523223	1075185	2168609
181632	619496	569999	534179	1098881	2223889
184686	633296	579999	545235	1122787	2279849
187760	647256	589999	556391	1146903	2336489
190854	661376	599999	567647	1171229	2393809
193968	675656	609999	578993	1195765	2451809
197102	690096	619999	590439	1220511	2510489
200256	704696	629999	601985	1245467	2569849
203430	719456	639999	613631	1270633	2629889
206624	734376	649999	625377	1295999	2690609
209838	749456	659999	637223	1321575	2752009
213072	764696	669999	649169	1347361	2814089
216326	780096	679999	661215	1373357	2876849
219590	795656	689999	673361	1400563	2940289
222874	811376	699999	685607	1427979	3004409
226178	827256	709999	697953	1455605	3069209
229502	843296	719999	710399	1483441	3134689
232846	859496	729999	722945	1511487	3200849
236210	875856	739999	735591	1539743	3267689
239594	892376	749999	748337	1568209	3335209
243008	909056	759999	761183	1596885	3403409
246442	925896	769999	774129	1625771	3472289
249896	942896	779999	787175	1654867	3541849
253370	959956	789999	800321	1684173	3612089
256864	977176	799999	813567	1713689	3682909
260378	994556	809999	826913	1743415	3754309
263912	1012096	819999	840359	1773351	3826389
267466	1029796	829999	853905	1803497	3899149
271040	1047656	839999	867551	1833853	3972589
274634	1065676	849999	881297	1864419	4046709
278248	1083856	859999	895143	1895195	4121509
281882	1102196	869999	909089	1926181	4196989
285536	1120696	879999	923135	1957377	4273149
289210	1139356	889999	937281	1988683	4349989
292904	1158176	899999	951527	2020199	4427509
296618	1177156	909999	965873	2051925	4505709
300352	1196296	919999	980319	2083861	4584589
304106	1215596	929999	994865	2115997	4664149
307880	1235056	939999	1009511	2148343	4744389
311674	1254676	949999	1024257	2180899	4825309
315488	1274456	959999	1039103	2213665	4906909
319322	1294396	969999	1054049	2246641	4989189
323176	1314496	979999	1069095	2279827	5072149
327050	1334756	989999	1084241	2313223	5155789
330944	1355176	999999	1099487	2346829	5240109
334858	1375756		1114833	2380645	5325109
338792	1396496		1130279	2414671	5410789
342746	1417396		1145825	2448907	5497149
346720	1438456		1161471	2483353	5584189
350714	1459676		1177217	2518009	5671909
354728	1481056		1193063	2552875	5760309
358762	1502596		1208999	2587951	5849389
362816	1524296		1225035	2623237	5939149
366890	1546156		1241171	2658733	6029589
370984	1568176		1257407	2694439	6120709
375098	1590356		1273743	2730355	6212509
379232	1612696		12		

Q = discharge in cubic feet per second, a = area in square feet, v = velocity in feet per second, r = mean hydraulic depth, k = diam. for pipes round full, s = sine of slope.

(For values of k see page 558.)

Size of Pipe.		Clean Cast-iron Pipes.		Value of c by Kutter's Formula, when $n = .013$.	Old Cast-iron Pipes Lined with Paper.	
d = diam. in ft. in.	a = area in square feet.	For Velocity, $c \sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac \sqrt{r}$.		For Velocity, $c \sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac \sqrt{r}$.
3/8	.00077	5.251	.00409		3.532	.00261
7/8	.00136	6.702	.00914		4.507	.00714
1 1/8	.00307	9.309	.02855		6.261	.02014
1 1/4	.00545	11.61	.06334		7.811	.03714
1 1/2	.00852	13.68	.11659		9.255	.06214
1 3/4	.01227	15.56	.19115		10.48	.09514
2	.01670	17.32	.29936		11.65	.13514
2 1/4	.02182	18.88	.41857		12.75	.18114
2 1/2	.02841	21.94	.57486		14.76	.24314
3	.0361	24.63	.74060		16.56	.32114
3 1/2	.0453	26.87	1.0080		19.75	.43614
4	.056	29.54	1.3610		22.58	.58814
4 1/2	.068	31.23	1.7068	4.822	25.07	.77814
5	.081	40.05	10.852		27.34	.99614
5 1/2	.0949	48.75	15.270		29.43	1.24214
6	.1196	46.73	20.632	15.11	31.42	1.51614
6 1/2	.145	46.45	26.952		33.26	1.81814
7	.1660	52.16	34.428		34.99	2.14814
7 1/2	.188	54.65	42.918	33.50	36.75	2.50614
8	1.000	59.34	53.433		38.51	2.89014
8 1/2	1.396	64.07	68.586		40.28	3.29914
9	1.767	67.75	119.72	102.14	42.07	3.73414
9 1/2	2.182	71.71	156.46		43.87	4.19514
10	2.640	75.32	198.83		45.67	4.68214
10 1/2	3.142	78.80	247.57	224.63	47.48	5.19514
11	3.687	82.15	302.90		49.28	5.73414
11 1/2	4.276	85.30	363.14		51.08	6.29814
12	4.909	88.30	429.92	411.87	52.87	6.88714
12 1/2	5.585	91.51	511.10		54.66	7.50114
13	6.305	94.40	595.17		56.44	8.14014
13 1/2	7.068	97.17	680.76	674.09	58.22	8.80414
14	7.875	99.83	768.94		60.00	9.49314
14 1/2	8.736	102.6	859.7		61.77	10.20714
15	9.621	105.1	1011.2	1021.1	63.54	10.94614
15 1/2	10.559	107.6	1138.5		65.30	11.71014
16	11.541	110.2	1271.4		67.06	12.50014
16 1/2	12.566	112.6	1414.7	1463.9	68.82	13.31514
17	14.146	116.1	1647.6		70.57	14.15614
17 1/2	15.904	119.6	1901.9	2007	72.32	15.02314
18	17.721	122.8	2176.1		74.06	15.91614
18 1/2	19.606	126.1	2476.4	2659	75.80	16.83614
19	21.648	129.3	2799.7		77.54	17.78214
19 1/2	23.758	132.4	3146.8	3429	79.28	18.75414
20	25.967	135.4	3516		81.01	19.75214
20 1/2	28.274	138.4	3912.3	4322	82.75	20.77614
21	30.683	141.1	4328.1		84.48	21.82614
21 1/2	33.196	144.6	4767.5	5339	86.21	22.90214
22	35.817	148.0	5231.0		87.94	24.00414
22 1/2	38.549	151.3	5719.7	6410	89.67	25.13214
23	41.396	154.9	6234.7		91.39	26.28614
23 1/2	44.353	157.7	6777.5	7469	93.11	27.46614
24	47.425	160.8	7349.1		94.83	28.67214
24 1/2	50.607	163.9	7950.4	8529	96.54	29.90414
25	53.905	166.9	8582.5		98.25	31.16214
25 1/2	57.325	169.9	9246.4	9599	100.00	32.44614
26	60.864	172.9	9942.1		101.71	33.75614
26 1/2	64.529	175.9	10679.6	10679	103.42	35.09214
27	68.317	178.9	11459.9		105.13	36.45414
27 1/2	72.226	181.9	12283.0	11709	106.84	37.84214
28	76.254	184.9	13149.9		108.55	39.25614
28 1/2	80.400	187.9	14060.6		110.26	40.69614
29	84.662	190.9	15016.1		111.97	42.16214
29 1/2	89.039	193.9	16017.4	12709	113.68	43.65414
30	93.530	196.9	17064.5		115.39	45.17214
30 1/2	98.134	199.9	18157.4		117.10	46.71614
31	102.851	202.9	19296.1		118.81	48.28614
31 1/2	107.680	205.9	20480.6		120.52	49.88214
32	112.621	208.9	21711.9		122.23	51.50414
32 1/2	117.674	211.9	22990.0		123.94	53.15214
33	122.839	214.9	24315.9		125.65	54.82614
33 1/2	128.115	217.9	25689.6		127.36	56.52614
34	133.502	220.9	27111.1		129.07	58.25214
34 1/2	138.999	223.9	28580.4		130.78	59.99414
35	144.606	226.9	30097.5		132.49	61.76214
35 1/2	150.323	229.9	31662.4		134.20	63.55614
36	156.150	232.9	33275.1		135.91	65.37614
36 1/2	162.087	235.9	34935.6		137.62	67.22214
37	168.134	238.9	36643.9		139.33	69.09414
37 1/2	174.291	241.9	38399.0		141.04	70.99214
38	180.558	244.9	40201.9		142.75	72.91614
38 1/2	186.935	247.9	42052.6		144.46	74.86614
39	193.422	250.9	43951.1		146.17	76.84214
39 1/2	200.019	253.9	45897.4		147.88	78.84414
40	206.726	256.9	47891.5		149.59	80.87214
40 1/2	213.543	259.9	49933.4		151.30	82.92614
41	220.470	262.9	52023.1		153.01	85.00614
41 1/2	227.507	265.9	54160.6		154.72	87.11214
42	234.654	268.9	56345.9		156.43	89.24414
42 1/2	241.911	271.9	58579.0		158.14	91.39214
43	249.278	274.9	60860.9		159.85	93.56614
43 1/2	256.755	277.9	63191.6		161.56	95.76614
44	264.342	280.9	65571.1		163.27	97.99214
44 1/2	272.039	283.9	67999.4		164.98	100.24414
45	279.846	286.9	70476.5		166.69	102.52214
45 1/2	287.763	289.9	72992.4		168.40	104.82614
46	295.790	292.9	75547.1		170.11	107.15614
46 1/2	303.927	295.9	78140.6		171.82	109.50214
47	312.174	298.9	80772.9		173.53	111.87414
47 1/2	320.531	301.9	83444.0		175.24	114.27214
48	329.000	304.9	86154.9		176.95	116.69614
48 1/2	337.579	307.9	88905.6		178.66	119.14614
49	346.268	310.9	91697.1		180.37	121.62214
49 1/2	355.067	313.9	94529.4		182.08	124.12414
50	363.976	316.9	97402.5		183.79	126.65214
50 1/2	372.995	319.9	100316.4		185.50	129.20614
51	382.124	322.9	103271.1		187.21	131.78614
51 1/2	391.363	325.9	106266.6		188.92	134.39214
52	400.712	328.9	109302.9		190.63	137.02414
52 1/2	410.171	331.9	112379.0		192.34	139.68214
53	419.740	334.9	115495.9		194.05	142.36614
53 1/2	429.419	337.9	118653.4		195.76	145.07614
54	439.208	340.9	121851.5		197.47	147.81214
54 1/2	449.007	343.9	125090.0		199.18	150.57414
55	458.916	346.9	128368.9		200.89	153.36214
55 1/2	468.935	349.9	131688.4		202.60	156.17614
56	479.064	352.9	135048.5		204.31	159.01614
56 1/2	489.303	355.9	138449.0		206.02	161.88214
57	499.652	358.9	141890.9		207.73	164.77414
57 1/2	510.111	361.9	145373.4		209.44	167.69214
58	520.680	364.9	148896.5		211.15	170.63614
58 1/2	531.359	367.9	152460.0		212.86	173.60614
59	542.148	370.9	156063.9		214.57	176.60214
59 1/2	553.047	373.9	159708.4		216.28	179.62414
60	564.056	376.9	163393.5		217.99	182.67214
60 1/2	575.175	379.9	167119.0		219.70	185.74614
61	586.404	382.9	170884.9		221.41	188.84614
61 1/2	597.743	385.9	174691.4		223.12	191.97214
62	609.192	388.9	178538.5		224.83	195.12414
62 1/2	620.751	391.9	182426.0		226.54	198.30214
63	632.420	394.9	186353.9		228.25	201.50614
63 1/2	644.199	397.9	190322.4		229.96	204.73614
64	656.088	400.9	194331.5		231.67	208.00214
64 1/2	668.087	403.9	198381.0		233.38	211.29414
65	680.196	406.9	202471.9		235.09	214.61214
65 1/2	692.415	409.9	206603.4		236.80	217.95614
66	704.744	412.9	210775.5		238.51	221.32614
66 1/2	717.183	415.9	214988.0		240.22	224.72214
67	729.732	418.9	219240.9		241.93	228.14414
67 1/2	742.391	421.9	223534.4		243.64	231.59214
68	755.160	424.9	227868.5		245.35	235.06614
68 1/2	768.039	427.9	232243.0		247.06	238.56614
69	781.028	430.9	236657.9		248.77	242.09214
69 1/2	794.127	433.9	241113.4		250.48	245.63414
70	807.336	436.9	245609.5		252.19	249.19214
70 1/2	820.655	439.9	250146.0		253.90	252.77614
71	834.084	442.9	254722.9		255.61	256.38614
71 1/2	847.623	445.9	259340.4		257.32	260.02214
72	861.272	448.9	264008.5		259.03	263.68414
72 1/2	875.031	451.9	268727.0		260.74	267.37214
73	888.890	454.9	273486.9		262.45	271.08614
73 1/2	902.859	457.9	278288.4		264.16	274.82614
74	916.938	460.9	283130.5		265.87	278.59214
74 1/2	931.127	463.9	288013.0		267.58	282.38414
75	945.426	466.9	292936.9		269.29	286.20214
75 1/2	960.035	469.9	297902.4		271.00	290.04614
76	974.754	472.9	302909.5		272.71	29

Area in square feet.	Clean Cast-iron Pipes.		Value of $ac \sqrt{r}$ by Kutter's Formula, when $n = .013$	Old Cast-iron Pipes Lined with Deposit.	
	For Velocity, $c \sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac \sqrt{r}$.		For Velocity, $c \sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac \sqrt{r}$.
100	183.6	15893	18990	123.4	10690
103	187.9	17855	21404	126.3	12010
106	192.2	19866	24139	129.3	13429
108	196.3	22004	26981	132	14945
110	200.4	24268	30011	134.8	16545
112	204.4	26754	33231	137.5	18232
115	208.3	29418	36752	140.1	20050
118	212.2	32261	40492	142.7	21971
120	216.0	35260	44392	145.2	23946
125	219.6	38407	48413	147.7	26103
130	223.3	41725	52754	150.1	28335
135	226.9	45221	57343	152.6	30686
140	230.4	48973	62152	155	33144
145	233.9	52982	67140	157.3	35707
150	237.3	57254	72309	159.6	38389
155	240.7	61799	77782	161.9	41189
160	244.1	66544	83559	164.1	44166
165	247.3	71500	89559	166.4	47333

Water in Circular Pipes from $\frac{3}{8}$ inch to 12 inches Diameter.

Arce's formula for clean cast-iron pipes. $Q = ac \sqrt{r} \sqrt{s}$.

Slope, or Head Divided by Length of Pipe.								
1 in 10.	1 in 20.	1 in 40.	1 in 60.	1 in 80.	1 in 100.	1 in 150.	1 in 200.	
Quantity in			cubic feet per second.					
.00127	.00090	.00064	.00052	.00045	.00040	.00033	.00028	
.00280	.00204	.00145	.00118	.00102	.00091	.00075	.00065	
.00494	.00358	.00251	.00200	.00169	.00146	.00120	.00102	
.00663	.00476	.00330	.00261	.00216	.00186	.00151	.00128	
.00806	.00579	.00402	.00321	.00264	.00224	.00182	.00154	
.00944	.00677	.00471	.00378	.00311	.00264	.00214	.00181	
.01077	.00770	.00534	.00429	.00351	.00296	.00238	.00199	
.01204	.00857	.00591	.00474	.00391	.00328	.00262	.00217	
.01325	.00939	.00645	.00516	.00426	.00356	.00282	.00231	
.01441	.01016	.00691	.00553	.00457	.00380	.00300	.00243	
.01552	.01088	.00744	.00594	.00492	.00408	.00322	.00260	
.01658	.01155	.00796	.00635	.00527	.00438	.00346	.00280	
.01759	.01218	.00843	.00672	.00558	.00464	.00366	.00296	
.01855	.01277	.00886	.00706	.00587	.00488	.00384	.00311	
.01946	.01332	.00925	.00736	.00612	.00512	.00404	.00327	
.02032	.01384	.00961	.00763	.00635	.00531	.00418	.00338	
.02114	.01433	.00994	.00788	.00655	.00548	.00430	.00346	
.02191	.01479	.01024	.00811	.00673	.00563	.00441	.00358	
.02264	.01522	.01052	.00832	.00691	.00576	.00451	.00368	
.02332	.01562	.01078	.00851	.00707	.00588	.00460	.00376	
.02395	.01600	.01102	.00868	.00721	.00599	.00468	.00384	
.02453	.01636	.01124	.00883	.00734	.00609	.00476	.00391	
.02507	.01670	.01145	.00897	.00746	.00618	.00483	.00398	
.02557	.01702	.01164	.00910	.00757	.00626	.00490	.00404	
.02603	.01732	.01182	.00922	.00767	.00634	.00496	.00410	
.02645	.01760	.01199	.00934	.00776	.00641	.00502	.00416	
.02683	.01787	.01215	.00945	.00785	.00648	.00508	.00421	
.02718	.01813	.01230	.00955	.00793	.00654	.00513	.00426	
.02750	.01838	.01244	.00964	.00801	.00660	.00518	.00431	
.02778	.01861	.01257	.00973	.00808	.00665	.00522	.00435	
.02803	.01883	.01269	.00981	.00814	.00670	.00526	.00439	
.02825	.01904	.01280	.00988	.00819	.00674	.00529	.00442	
.02844	.01924	.01291	.00994	.00823	.00678	.00532	.00445	
.02860	.01943	.01301	.00999	.00827	.00681	.00535	.00448	
.02874	.01961	.01311	.01003	.00830	.00684	.00538	.00450	
.02886	.01978	.01320	.01007	.00833	.00687	.00540	.00452	
.02896	.01994	.01329	.01010	.00836	.00689	.00542	.00454	
.02905	.02009	.01337	.01013	.00838	.00691	.00544	.00456	
.02913	.02023	.01345	.01015	.00840	.00693	.00546	.00457	
.02919	.02036	.01352	.01017	.00842	.00695	.00548	.00459	
.02924	.02048	.01359	.01019	.00844	.00696	.00549	.00460	
.02928	.02059	.01365	.01020	.00845	.00697	.00550	.00461	
.02931	.02069	.01371	.01021	.00846	.00698	.00551	.00462	
.02933	.02078	.01376	.01022	.00847	.00699	.00552	.00463	
.02934	.02087	.01381	.01023	.00848	.00700	.00553	.00464	
.02935	.02095	.01386	.01024	.00849	.00701	.00554	.00465	
.02936	.02103	.01390	.01025	.00850	.00702	.00555	.00466	
.02937	.02111	.01394	.01026	.00851	.00703	.00556	.00467	
.02938	.02118	.01398	.01027	.00852	.00704	.00557	.00468	
.02939	.02125	.01402	.01028	.00853	.00705	.00558	.00469	
.02940	.02132	.01406	.01029	.00854	.00706	.00559	.00470	
.02941	.02139	.01410	.01030	.00855	.00707	.00560	.00471	
.02942	.02145	.01414	.01031	.00856	.00708	.00561	.00472	
.02943	.02152	.01418	.01032	.00857	.00709	.00562	.00473	
.02944	.02158	.01422	.01033	.00858	.00710	.00563	.00474	
.02945	.02164	.01426	.01034	.00859	.00711	.00564	.00475	
.02946	.02171	.01430	.01035	.00860	.00712	.00565	.00476	
.02947	.02177	.01434	.01036	.00861	.00713	.00566	.00477	
.02948	.02183	.01438	.01037	.00862	.00714	.00567	.00478	
.02949	.02189	.01442	.01038	.00863	.00715	.00568	.00479	
.02950	.02195	.01446	.01039	.00864	.00716	.00569	.00480	
.02951	.02201	.01450	.01040	.00865	.00717	.00570	.00481	
.02952	.02207	.01454	.01041	.00866	.00718	.00571	.00482	
.02953	.02213	.01458	.01042	.00867	.00719	.00572	.00483	
.02954	.02219	.01462	.01043	.00868	.00720	.00573	.00484	
.02955	.02225	.01466	.01044	.00869	.00721	.00574	.00485	
.02956	.02231	.01470	.01045	.00870	.00722	.00575	.00486	
.02957	.02237	.01474	.01046	.00871	.00723	.00576	.00487	
.02958	.02243	.01478	.01047	.00872	.00724	.00577	.00488	
.02959	.02249	.01482	.01048	.00873	.00725	.00578	.00489	
.02960	.02255	.01486	.01049	.00874	.00726	.00579	.00490	
.02961	.02261	.01490	.01050	.00875	.00727	.00580	.00491	
.02962	.02267	.01494	.01051	.00876	.00728	.00581	.00492	
.02963	.02273	.01498	.01052	.00877	.00729	.00582	.00493	
.02964	.02279	.01502	.01053	.00878	.00730	.00583	.00494	
.02965	.02285	.01506	.01054	.00879	.00731	.00584	.00495	
.02966	.02291	.01510	.01055	.00880	.00732	.00585	.00496	
.02967	.02297	.01514	.01056	.00881	.00733	.00586	.00497	
.02968	.02303	.01518	.01057	.00882	.00734	.00587	.00498	
.02969	.02309	.01522	.01058	.00883	.00735	.00588	.00499	
.02970	.02315	.01526	.01059	.00884	.00736	.00589	.00500	
.02971	.02321	.01530	.01060	.00885	.00737	.00590	.00501	
.02972	.02327	.01534	.01061	.00886	.00738	.00591	.00502	
.02973	.02333	.01538	.01062	.00887	.00739	.00592	.00503	
.02974	.02339	.01542	.01063	.00888	.00740	.00593	.00504	
.02975	.02345	.01546	.01064	.00889	.00741	.00594	.00505	
.02976	.02351	.01550	.01065	.00890	.00742	.00595	.00506	
.02977	.02357	.01554	.01066	.00891	.00743	.00596	.00507	
.02978	.02363	.01558	.01067	.00892	.00744	.00597	.00508	
.02979	.02369	.01562	.01068	.00893	.00745	.00598	.00509	
.02980	.02375	.01566	.01069	.00894	.00746	.00599	.00510	
.02981	.02381	.01570	.01070	.00895	.00747	.00600	.00511	
.02982	.02387	.01574	.01071	.00896	.00748	.00601	.00512	
.02983	.02393	.01578	.01072	.00897	.00749	.00602	.00513	
.02984	.02399	.01582	.01073	.00898	.00750	.00603	.00514	
.02985	.02405	.01586	.01074	.00899	.00751	.00604	.00515	
.02986	.02411	.01590	.01075	.00900	.00752	.00605	.00516	
.02987	.02417	.01594	.01076	.00901	.00753	.00606	.00517	
.02988	.02423	.01598	.01077	.00902	.00754	.00607	.00518	
.02989	.02429	.01602	.01078	.00903	.00755	.00608	.00519	
.02990	.02435	.01606	.01079	.00904	.00756	.00609	.00520	
.02991	.02441	.01610	.01080	.00905	.00757	.00610	.00521	
.02992	.02447	.01614	.01081	.00906	.00758	.00611	.00522	
.02993	.02453	.01618	.01082	.00907	.00759	.00612	.00523	
.02994	.02459	.01622	.01083	.00908	.00760	.00613	.00524	
.02995	.02465	.01626	.01084	.00909	.00761	.00614	.00525	
.02996	.02471	.01630	.01085	.00910	.00762	.00615	.00526	
.02997	.02477	.01634	.01086	.00911	.00763	.00616	.00527	
.02998	.02483	.01638	.01087	.00912	.00764	.00617	.00528	
.02999	.02489	.01642	.01088	.00913	.00765	.00618	.00529	
.03000	.02495	.01646	.01089	.00914	.00766	.00619	.00530	
.03001	.02501	.01650	.01090	.00915	.00767	.00620	.00531	
.03002	.02507	.01654	.01091	.00916	.00768	.00621	.00532	
.03003	.02513	.01658	.01092	.00917	.00769	.00622	.00533	
.03004	.02519	.01662	.01093	.00918	.00770	.00623	.00534	
.03005	.02525	.01666	.01094	.00919	.00771	.00624	.00535	
.03006	.02531	.01670	.01095	.00920	.00772	.00625	.00536	
.03007	.02537	.01674	.01096	.00921	.00773	.00626	.00537	
.03008	.02543	.01678	.01097	.00922	.00774	.00627	.00538	
.03009	.02549	.01682	.01098	.00923	.00775	.00628	.00539	
.03010	.02555	.01686	.01099	.00924	.00776	.00629	.00540	
.03011	.02561	.01690	.01100	.00925	.00777	.00630	.00541	
.03012	.02567	.01694	.01101	.00926	.00778	.00631	.00542	
.03013	.02573	.01698	.01102	.00927	.00779	.00632	.00543	
.03014	.02579	.01702	.01103	.00928	.00780	.00633	.00544	
.03015	.02585	.01706	.01104	.00929	.00781	.00634	.00545	
.03016	.02591	.01710	.01105	.00930	.00782	.00635	.00546	
.03017	.02597	.01714	.01106	.00931	.00783	.00636	.00547	
.03018	.02603	.01718	.01107	.00932	.00784	.00637	.00548	
.03019	.02609	.01722	.01108	.00933	.00785	.00638	.00549	
.03020	.02615	.01726	.01109	.00934	.00786	.00639	.00550	
.03021	.02621	.01730	.01110	.00935	.00787	.00640	.00551	
.03022	.02627	.01734	.01111	.00936	.00788	.00641	.00552	
.03023	.02633	.01738	.01112	.00937	.00789	.00642	.00553	
.03024	.02639	.01742	.01113	.00938	.00790	.00643	.00554	
.03025	.02645	.01746	.01114	.00939	.00791	.00644	.00555	
.03026	.02651	.01750	.01115	.00940	.00792	.00645	.00556	
.03027	.02657	.01754	.01116	.00941	.00793	.00646	.00557	
.03028	.02663	.01758	.01117	.00942	.00794	.00647	.00558	
.03029								

Value of ac & r.	Dia. in.	Slope, or Head Divided by Length of Pipe						
		1 in 250.	1 in 300	1 in 350.	1 in 400.	1 in 450.	1 in 500.	1 in 550.
.00103	3 $\frac{1}{2}$.00025	.00023	.00022	.00020	.00019	.00018	.00017
.00094	3 $\frac{1}{4}$.00058	.00053	.00049	.00046	.00043	.00041	.00039
.02855	3 $\frac{3}{4}$.00181	.00165	.00153	.00142	.00134	.00128	.00123
.06334	1	.00100	.00066	.00039	.00017	.00008	.00002	.00000
.11659	1 $\frac{1}{4}$.00737	.00673	.00623	.00583	.00549	.00521	.00497
.19715	1 $\frac{1}{2}$.01209	.01104	.01022	.00956	.00901	.00852	.00807
.28366	1 $\frac{3}{4}$.01830	.01671	.01547	.01447	.01363	.01291	.01229
.41357	2	.02615	.02388	.02211	.02068	.01948	.01849	.01767
.74746	2 $\frac{1}{2}$.04730	.04318	.03997	.03719	.03453	.03244	.03078
1.2089	3	.07645	.06890	.06262	.05645	.05065	.04540	.04052
2.5630	4	.10298	.14739	.13629	.12515	.12074	.11481	.10913
4.5910	5	.25843	.26335	.24079	.22805	.21487	.20207	.19048
7.3068	6	.46208	.42189	.39055	.36531	.34122	.32076	.30298
10.852	7	.68628	.65660	.59005	.54260	.51124	.48530	.46277
15.270	8	.96567	.88158	.81617	.76450	.71396	.66986	.63111
20.652	9	1.30691	1.1924	1.1038	.10261	.09702	.09256	.8806
26.92	10	1.7044	1.5562	1.4405	1.3476	1.2607	1.1883	1.1272
34.428	11	2.1772	1.9878	1.8402	1.7214	1.6219	1.5366	1.4638
42.918	12	2.7141	2.4781	2.2940	2.1450	2.0219	1.9123	1.8080

Value of $\bar{x} =$

For U. S. gals. per sec., multiply the figures in the table by:

For any other slope the flow is proportional to the square of the slope; thus, flow in slope of 1 in 100 is double that in slope of 1 in 70.

Flow of Water in Pipes from $\frac{1}{8}$ Inch to 12 Inch Diameter for a Uniform Velocity of 100 Ft. per

Diameter in Inches.	Area in Square Feet.	Flow in Cubic Feet per Minute	Flow in U. S. Gallons per Minute.	Flow Gall. Min.
2	.00077	0.077	.57	
3	.00136	0.136	1.02	
4	.00207	0.207	1.50	
5	.00285	0.285	2.10	
6	.00371	0.371	2.76	
7	.00463	0.463	3.47	
8	.00561	0.561	4.22	
9	.00665	0.665	5.00	
10	.00776	0.776	5.81	
11	.00892	0.892	6.66	
12	.01014	1.014	7.54	
13	.01141	1.141	8.45	
14	.01274	1.274	9.39	
15	.01412	1.412	10.36	
16	.01555	1.555	11.36	
17	.01703	1.703	12.39	
18	.01856	1.856	13.44	
19	.02014	2.014	14.52	
20	.02177	2.177	15.62	
22	.02461	2.461	18.25	
24	.02759	2.759	20.52	
26	.03071	3.071	22.83	
28	.03397	3.397	25.18	
30	.03737	3.737	27.57	
32	.04091	4.091	29.99	
34	.04450	4.450	32.44	
36	.04814	4.814	34.92	
38	.05192	5.192	37.43	
40	.05575	5.575	39.97	
42	.05962	5.962	42.54	
44	.06354	6.354	45.13	
46	.06750	6.750	47.75	
48	.07151	7.151	50.38	
50	.07556	7.556	53.03	
52	.07966	7.966	55.70	
54	.08380	8.380	58.39	
56	.08799	8.799	61.10	
58	.09222	9.222	63.83	
60	.09650	9.650	66.58	
62	.10082	10.082	69.35	
64	.10518	10.518	72.13	
66	.10958	10.958	74.93	
68	.11402	11.402	77.75	
70	.11850	11.850	80.58	
72	.12302	12.302	83.43	
74	.12758	12.758	86.29	
76	.13218	13.218	89.16	
78	.13682	13.682	92.05	
80	.14150	14.150	94.95	
82	.14622	14.622	97.87	
84	.15098	15.098	100.80	
86	.15577	15.577	103.75	
88	.16060	16.060	106.71	
90	.16546	16.546	109.68	
92	.17036	17.036	112.67	
94	.17529	17.529	115.67	
96	.18025	18.025	118.68	
98	.18524	18.524	121.70	
100	.19026	19.026	124.73	

Given the diameter of a pipe, to find the quantity in gallons it will discharge, the velocity of flow being 100 ft. per minute. Square the diameter and multiply by 4.08.

Q = quantity in gallons per minute and d = diameter in inches, then

$$Q = \frac{d^3 \times .7854 \times 100 \times 7.4805}{144} = 4.08d^3.$$

For any other velocity, V' , in feet per minute, $Q = 4.08d^3 \frac{V'}{100} = .0408d^3 V'$.
 To find the capacity of pipe in inches and velocity in feet per second, to find
 range in cubic feet and in gallons per minute.

$$Q = \frac{d^3 \times .7854 \times v \times 60}{144} = .32735d^3 v \text{ cubic feet per minute.}$$

$$= .32735 \times 7.4805 \text{ or } 2.448d^3 v \text{ U. S. gallons per minute.}$$

To find the capacity of a pipe or cylinder in gallons, multiply the square
 of the diameter in inches by the length in inches and by .0081. Or multiply
 square of the diameter in inches by the length in feet and by .0408.

$$Q = \frac{.7854d^2 l}{231} = .0034d^2 l \text{ (exact), } .0034 \times 12 = .0408.$$

LOSS OF HEAD.

The loss of head due to friction when water, steam, air, or gas of any kind
 flows through a straight tube is represented by the formula

$$h = f \frac{4l v^2}{d \cdot 2g}; \quad \text{whence } v = \sqrt{\frac{64.4}{f} \frac{hd}{l}},$$

in which l = the length and d = the diameter of the tube, both in feet; v =
 velocity in feet per second, and f is a coefficient to be determined by experi-
 ment. According to Weisbach, $f = .00044$, in which case

$$\sqrt{\frac{64.4}{4f}} = 50, \quad \text{and} \quad v = 50 \sqrt{\frac{hd}{l}},$$

which is one of the older formulae for flow of water (Downing's). Prof. Un-
 derhill says that the value of f is possibly too small for tubes of small bore,
 and would put $f = .006$ to .01 for 4-inch tubes, and $f = .0081$ to .012 for 2-
 inch tubes. Another formula by Weisbach is

$$h = \left(.0144 + \frac{.01716}{\sqrt{v}} \right) \frac{l}{d} \frac{v^2}{2g}.$$

Rankine gives

$$f = .006 \left(1 + \frac{1}{13d} \right).$$

From the general equation for velocity of flow of water $v = c \sqrt{r \frac{h}{l}}$, =

round pipes $c \sqrt{\frac{d}{4} \frac{h}{l}}$, we have $v^2 = c^2 \frac{d}{4} \frac{h}{l}$ and $h = \frac{4v^2 l}{c^2 d}$, in which

c = the coefficient of D'Arcy's, Bazin's, Kutter's, or other formula, as found
 by experiment. Since this coefficient varies with the condition of the inner
 face of the tube, as well as with the velocity, it is to be expected that
 the loss of head given by different writers will vary as much as those
 quantity of flow. Two tables for loss of head per 100 ft. in length in pipes
 of different diameters with different velocities are given below. The first
 is given by Clark, based on Ellis' and Howland's experiments; the second is
 from the Pelton Water-wheel Co.'s catalogue, authority not stated. The
 loss of head as given in these two tables for any given diameter and velocity
 varies considerably. Either table should be used with caution and the re-
 sult compared with the quantity of flow for the given diameter and head
 given in the tables of flow based on Kutter's and D'Arcy's formulae.

Relative Loss of Head by Friction for each 100 Feet Length of Clean Cast-iron Pipe.

(Based on Ellis and Howland's experiments.)

Velocity in Feet per Second.	Diameter of Pipes in Inches.									
	2	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	
	Loss of Head in Feet, per 100 Feet Long.									
Feet	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	
2	.97	.55	.41	.33	.27	.23	.19	.18	.15	
2.5	1.49	.92	.64	.50	.43	.36	.30	.27	.22	
3	1.9	1.2	.82	.72	.61	.51	.44	.39	.32	
3.5	2.6	1.6	1.2	1.0	.87	.71	.61	.52	.43	
4	3.3	2.2	1.7	1.3	.9	.82	.79	.69	.57	
4.5	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.01	.87	.72	
5	1.2	1.1	.93	
5.5	
6	
	12	18	21	24	27	30	33	36	40	
2	.11	.065	.075	.065	.055	.052	.049	.047	.04	
2.5	.17	.147	.117	.109	.088	.083	.076	.067	.057	
3	.25	.21	.17	.15	.13	.12	.108	.10	.085	
3.5	.34	.29	.23	.20	.18	.16	.15	.14	.12	
4	.44	.38	.31	.27	.23	.22	.20	.17	.15	
4.5	.56	.46	.38	.34	.30	.28	.25	.22	.19	
5	.70	.58	.48	.41	.37	.34	.30	.27	.23	
5.5	.84	.70	.59	.51	.44	.39	.36	.32	.27	
659	.53	.49	.43	.4	.35	

Loss of Head in Pipe by Friction.—Loss of head by friction for each 100 feet in length of different diameters of pipe when discharging following quantities of water per minute (Fulton Water-wheel Co.)

Velocity in Feet per Second.	Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.									
	1		2		3		4		5	
	Loss of Head in Feet.	Cubic Feet per Minute.	Loss of Head in Feet.	Cubic Feet per Minute.	Loss of Head in Feet.	Cubic Feet per Minute.	Loss of Head in Feet.	Cubic Feet per Minute.	Loss of Head in Feet.	Cubic Feet per Minute.
2.0	12.87	.55	1.185	2.02	.791	5.89	1.54	10.4	.474	16.5
3.0	4.89	.99	4.44	3.02	1.63	8.33	1.32	15.7	.978	24.6
4.0	3.20	1.32	4.10	5.23	3.73	11.80	2.05	20.9	1.64	37.7
5.0	12.33	1.65	6.17	6.51	4.11	14.70	3.06	33.2	2.46	40.6
6.0	17.33	1.98	8.01	7.85	5.74	17.70	4.31	31.4	3.45	49.1
7.0	22.80	2.31	11.45	9.16	7.62	20.6	5.72	36.6	4.57	57.2

Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

7		8		9		10		11		12	
<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>
298	32.0	299	41.9	294	53	287	65.4	216	79.2	198	94.2
308	35.1	311	45.8	304	59.5	298	72.2	244	88	207	101
3175	64.1	1.037	89.7	913	106	822	131	747	158	686	188
376	80.2	1.54	115	137	132	123	163	1.122	188	1.028	235
436	96.2	2.15	125	152	159	1.71	198	1.56	237	1.48	283
495	112.0	2.85	146	2.52	185	2.38	229	2.07	277	1.91	330

Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

13		14		15		16		18		20	
<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>
183	110	169	138	158	147	147	167	132	212	119	262
375	166	349	192	325	221	306	251	271	318	245	304
432	221	587	256	548	294	513	335	450	424	410	528
449	276	681	321	622	368	770	419	655	530	617	654
525	332	1.229	385	1.148	442	1.076	502	957	636	861	735
575	387	1.63	449	1.52	515	1.43	588	1.27	742	1.148	916

Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

22		24		26		28		30		36	
<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>
106	316	1008	377	991	442	1004	513	1079	589	1060	848
222	475	204	565	189	663	174	770	163	883	135	1273
373	638	342	754	315	885	298	1026	273	1178	228	1697
561	792	513	942	474	1108	440	1283	411	1472	342	2121
782	950	717	1131	662	1327	615	1539	574	1767	479	2545
1040	1109	953	1319	879	1548	817	1795	762	2061	636	2868

EXAMPLE.—Given 200 ft. head and 600 ft. of 11-inch pipe, carrying 119 cubic of water per minute. To find effective head: In right-hand column, for 11-inch pipe, find 119 cubic ft.; opposite this will be found the loss by 600 in 100 ft. of length for this amount of water, which is .444. Multiply by the number of hundred feet of pipe, which is 6, and we have 2.66, which is the loss of head. Therefore the effective head is 200 - 2.66 = 197.34.

EXPLANATION.—The loss of head by friction in pipe depends not only upon meter and length, but upon the quantity of water passed through it. The pressure is what would be indicated by a pressure-gauge attached to pipe near the wheel. Readings of gauge should be taken while the water is flowing from the nozzle.

To reduce heads in feet to pressure in pounds multiply by .433. To reduce pressure in feet multiply by 2.304.

COX'S FORMULA.—Weisbach's formula for loss of head caused by the motion of water in pipes is as follows:

$$\text{Friction-head} = \left(0.0144 + \frac{0.01716}{d^5} \right) \frac{L V^3}{5.307d}$$

where *L* = length of pipe in feet;

V = velocity of the water in feet per second;

d = diameter of pipe in inches.

William Cox (*Amer. Mach.*, Dec. 23, 1893) gives a simpler formula which gives almost identical results:

$$H = \text{friction-head in feet} = \frac{L}{1200} \frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{d}$$

$$\frac{Hd}{L} = \frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200}$$

He gives a table by means of which the value of $\frac{4V^2 + 5F - 2}{1200}$ is obtained when F is known, and *vice versa*.

VALUES OF $\frac{4V^2 + 5F - 2}{1200}$

F	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8
1	.00583	.00695	.00813	.00938	.01070	.01208	.01353	.01505	.01664
2	.02000	.02178	.02363	.02555	.02753	.02958	.03170	.03388	.03613
3	.04082	.04298	.04520	.04758	.05010	.05275	.05553	.05843	.06146
4	.06393	.06715	.07049	.07398	.07812	.08158	.08549	.08955	.09408
5	.10250	.10628	.11013	.11405	.11803	.12206	.12620	.13058	.13513
6	.14322	.14778	.15250	.15738	.16253	.16785	.17320	.17868	.18433
7	.19083	.19695	.20313	.20938	.21570	.22206	.22853	.23508	.24183
8	.24850	.25578	.26313	.27055	.27812	.28575	.29353	.30138	.30933
9	.30583	.31228	.31880	.32538	.33203	.33875	.34553	.35238	.35933
10	.36333	.36945	.37563	.38188	.38820	.39458	.40103	.40753	.41408
11	.41750	.42328	.42913	.43505	.44103	.44706	.45320	.45938	.46563
12	.46833	.47478	.48130	.48788	.49453	.50125	.50803	.51488	.52173
13	.51583	.52195	.52813	.53438	.54063	.54695	.55320	.55953	.56583
14	.56700	.57328	.57963	.58605	.59253	.59906	.60560	.61213	.61873
15	.61083	.61728	.62380	.63038	.63693	.64353	.65013	.65673	.66333
16	.65833	.66495	.67163	.67838	.68512	.69188	.69863	.70538	.71213
17	.70750	.71428	.72103	.72788	.73470	.74153	.74838	.75520	.76203
18	.75753	.76478	.77203	.77928	.78653	.79378	.80103	.80828	.81553
19	.81283	.82008	.82733	.83458	.84183	.84908	.85633	.86358	.87083
20	.86803	.87528	.88253	.88978	.89703	.90428	.91153	.91878	.92603
21	.92328	.93053	.93778	.94503	.95228	.95953	.96678	.97403	.98128

The use of the formula and table is illustrated as follows:

Given a pipe 5 inches diameter and 1000 feet long, with 49 feet head, will the discharge be?

If the velocity V is known in feet per second, the discharge is $0.25\pi V^2$ cubic foot per minute.

By equation 2 we have

$$\frac{4V^2 + 5F - 2}{1200} = \frac{Hd}{L} = \frac{49 \times 5}{1000} = 0.245;$$

whence, by table, $V = \text{real velocity} = 8 \text{ feet per second}$.

The discharge in cubic feet per minute, if V is velocity in feet per second and d diameter in inches, is $0.32725d^2V$, whence, discharge

$$= 0.32725 \times 25 \times 8 = 65.45 \text{ cubic feet per minute}$$

The velocity due the head, if there were no friction, is 8.036 if $H = 49$ feet per second, and the discharge at that velocity would be

$$0.32725 \times 25 \times 36.175 = 460 \text{ cubic feet per minute.}$$

Suppose it is required to deliver this amount, 460 cubic feet, at a rate of 2 feet per second, what diameter of pipe will be required and what is the loss of head by friction?

$$d = \text{diameter} = \sqrt{\frac{Q}{V \times 0.32725}} = \sqrt{\frac{460}{2 \times 0.32725}} = 47.08 \approx 47 \text{ inches}$$

Having now the diameter, the velocity, and the discharge, the friction loss is calculated by equation 1 and use of the table; thus,

$$H = \frac{L}{d} \frac{4V^2 + 5F - 2}{1200} = \frac{1000}{25.5} \times 0.02 = \frac{20}{98.5} = 0.25 \text{ foot.}$$

thus leaving $49 - 0.25 = \text{say } 48 \text{ feet effective head applicable to power during passages.}$

Problems of the loss of head may be solved rapidly by means of the *Flow Computer*, a mechanical device on the principle of the slide rule, by E. R. Hunt, New York.

Heads at Given Rates of Discharge in Clean on Pipes for Each 1000 Feet of Length.

Obtained from Ellis and Howland's Hydraulic Tables.

6-inch Pipe.			8-inch Pipe.		10-inch Pipe.		12-inch Pipe.		14-inch Pipe.	
head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction- head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction- head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction- head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction- head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction- head, feet.
50	.26	.11	.16	.04	.10	.02	.07	.01		
01	.57	.32	.42	.10	.20	.04	.14	.02	.10	.01
02	1.18	1.08	.64	.39	.41	.11	.28	.05	.21	.03
03	1.70	2.28	.93	.60	.61	.22	.43	.10	.31	.05
04	2.22	3.92	1.28	1.01	.82	.36	.57	.16	.42	.08
05	2.84	6.00	1.80	1.52	1.02	.54	.77	.24	.62	.12
06	3.40	8.52	2.21	2.15	1.23	.75	.85	.32	.63	.16
07	3.95	11.48	2.63	2.85	1.43	.99	.99	.43	.73	.21
08	4.54	14.89	3.05	3.68	1.63	1.25	1.18	.54	.83	.27
09	5.17	23.01	3.49	5.04	1.84	1.63	1.42	.61	1.04	.34
10	5.81	32.80	3.89	8.03	2.05	2.12	1.70	1.14	1.25	.42
11	6.48	44.54	4.47	10.83	2.26	2.66	1.98	1.52	1.46	.50
12	7.18	57.35	5.09	14.05	2.47	3.27	2.27	1.96	1.67	.57
13	7.91	73.12	5.74	17.68	2.68	3.93	2.55	2.45	1.88	.64
14	8.65	90.05	6.38	21.73	2.88	4.68	2.82	3.00	2.08	.71
15	9.42	109.20	7.06	31.10	3.09	5.49	3.09	3.40	2.26	.78
16	10.21	130.30	7.76	42.18	3.29	6.32	3.37	3.74	2.41	.84
17	11.03	153.48	8.49	54.18	3.48	7.17	3.62	4.06	2.57	.91
18	11.88	178.62	9.21	67.84	3.65	8.03	3.87	4.36	2.73	.98
19	12.75	205.80	9.92	83.29	3.82	8.90	4.10	4.63	2.85	1.04
20	13.64	234.00	10.67	99.62	3.98	9.77	4.32	4.89	2.98	1.10
21	14.55	263.22	11.44	117.82	4.14	10.65	4.53	5.14	3.10	1.16
22	15.48	293.48	12.23	137.97	4.29	11.54	4.73	5.38	3.21	1.22
23	16.43	324.78	13.04	159.08	4.44	12.44	4.92	5.61	3.32	1.28
24	17.40	357.12	13.87	181.14	4.58	13.35	5.11	5.83	3.42	1.34
25	18.39	390.50	14.72	204.15	4.72	14.27	5.29	6.04	3.51	1.40
26	19.40	424.92	15.59	228.11	4.86	15.20	5.47	6.24	3.60	1.46
27	20.43	460.38	16.48	253.02	4.99	16.14	5.64	6.43	3.68	1.52
28	21.48	496.88	17.39	278.88	5.12	17.09	5.81	6.61	3.76	1.58
29	22.54	534.42	18.32	305.69	5.25	18.05	5.97	6.78	3.83	1.64
30	23.62	573.00	19.27	333.44	5.37	19.02	6.13	6.94	3.90	1.70
31	24.71	612.62	20.24	362.13	5.49	20.00	6.29	7.10	3.96	1.76
32	25.82	653.28	21.23	391.76	5.61	21.00	6.44	7.25	4.02	1.82
33	26.94	694.98	22.24	422.33	5.72	22.01	6.59	7.39	4.07	1.88
34	28.08	737.72	23.27	453.84	5.83	23.03	6.73	7.53	4.12	1.94
35	29.23	781.50	24.32	486.28	5.94	24.07	6.87	7.66	4.17	1.99
36	30.40	826.32	25.39	519.65	6.05	25.12	7.00	7.79	4.21	2.05
37	31.58	872.18	26.48	553.95	6.15	26.18	7.13	7.91	4.25	2.11
38	32.78	919.08	27.59	589.18	6.25	27.25	7.25	8.03	4.29	2.17
39	33.99	967.02	28.72	625.33	6.35	28.33	7.37	8.14	4.32	2.23
40	35.21	1016.00	29.87	662.40	6.45	29.42	7.49	8.25	4.36	2.29

Friction-head, feet.	18-inch Pipe.		20-inch Pipe.		24-inch Pipe.		30-inch Pipe.		36-inch Pipe.	
	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.
22	.63	.19	.61	.08	.95	.04	.29	.01	.16	.00
76	1.36	.44	1.02	.25	.71	.12	.45	.04	.32	.00
1 03	1.60	.53	1.53	.58	1.06	.24	.69	.09	.47	.00
2 32	2.32	1.00	2.04	.86	1.42	.41	.91	.15	.63	.00
3 34	3.15	2.35	2.35	1.47	1.77	.62	1.13	.22	.70	.00
4 34	3.98	3.48	3.48	2.09	2.13	.87	1.30	.30	.95	.13
5 37	4.41	4.70	3.57	2.81	2.48	1.16	1.50	.40	1.10	.13
6 47	5.04	6.09	4.08	3.64	2.84	1.50	1.82	.52	1.26	.25
7 53	5.67	7.67	4.59	4.58	3.19	1.82	2.04	.61	1.42	.25
8 56	6.30	9.43	5.11	5.62	3.55	2.19	2.27	.78	1.58	.25
10	7.57	13.49	6.18	8.03	4.30	3.28	2.72	1.11	1.89	.40
11			7.15	10.86	4.96	4.43	3.18	1.49	2.11	.40
12					5.67	5.75	3.65	1.93	2.52	.40
13					6.38	7.25	4.08	2.42	2.82	.40
14						8.44	4.54	2.98	3.15	.40
15							5.41	3.45	3.75	.40
16							6.30	5.75	4.75	.40

Effect of Bends and Curves in Pipes.—Weisbach's

bends: Loss of head in feet = $.131 + 1.847 \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \times \frac{v^3}{63.4} \times \frac{\alpha}{180}$.

= internal radius of pipe in feet, R = radius of curvature of arc in feet, v = velocity in feet per second, and α = the central angle, or angle subtended by the bend.

Hamilton Smith, Jr., in his work on Hydraulics, says: The experimental data at hand are entirely insufficient to permit a satisfactory solution of this quite complicated subject; in fact, about the only experiments made are those made by Bossut and Dubaut with small pipes.

Curves.—If the pipe has easy curves, say with radius not less than 10 diameters of the pipe, the flow will not be materially diminished, the tops of all curves are kept below the hydraulic grade line and the air can be made for escape of air from the tops of all curves. (Trautwine.)

Hydraulic Grade-line.—In a straight tube of uniform diameter, running full and discharging freely into the air, the hydraulic grade-line is a straight line drawn from the discharge end to a point directly over the entry end of the pipe and at a depth below the discharge equal to the entry and velocity heads. (Trautwine.)

In a pipe leading from a reservoir, no part of its length should be above the hydraulic grade-line.

Flow of Water in House-service Pipes.

Mr. E. Kuchling, C.E., furnished the following table to the Metropolitan Water Co.:

Condition of Discharge.	Pressure in Main, pounds per square inch.	Discharge, or Quantity capable of being delivered, in Cubic Feet per Minute, from the Pipes under the conditions specified in the first column.							
		Nominal Diameters of Iron or Lead Service Pipes, Inches.							
		$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	3	4	6
Through 35 feet of service-pipe, no back pressure.	30	1.10	1.92	3.01	6.13	16.58	33.34	88.16	172.3
	40	1.27	2.22	3.48	7.08	19.14	38.50	101.80	197.5
	50	1.42	2.48	3.89	7.92	21.40	43.04	113.82	221.5
	60	1.56	2.71	4.26	8.67	23.44	47.15	124.65	243.0
	75	1.74	3.03	4.77	9.70	26.21	52.71	139.20	270.0
	100	2.01	3.50	5.50	11.20	30.27	60.87	160.25	310.0
	130	2.30	3.90	6.28	12.77	34.51	69.40	183.50	355.0
Through 100 feet of service-pipe, no back pressure.	30	0.66	1.16	1.84	3.78	10.40	21.80	58.19	114.0
	40	0.77	1.34	2.12	4.36	12.01	24.50	67.10	130.0
	50	0.86	1.50	2.37	4.88	13.43	27.50	75.13	145.0
	60	0.94	1.65	2.60	5.34	14.71	30.12	82.30	158.0
	75	1.05	1.84	2.91	5.97	16.45	33.68	92.01	175.0
	100	1.22	2.13	3.36	6.90	18.99	38.49	106.23	205.0
	130	1.39	2.42	3.83	7.80	21.60	44.34	121.14	235.0
Through 100 feet of service-pipe and 15 feet vertical rise.	30	0.55	0.96	1.52	3.11	8.57	17.55	47.00	92.0
	40	0.66	1.15	1.81	3.72	10.24	20.95	57.30	108.0
	50	0.75	1.31	2.06	4.24	11.67	23.87	65.15	123.0
	60	0.83	1.45	2.29	4.70	12.94	26.48	72.00	137.0
	75	0.94	1.64	2.59	5.32	14.64	29.90	81.79	153.0
	100	1.10	1.92	3.02	6.21	17.10	35.00	92.50	175.0
	130	1.25	2.20	3.48	7.14	19.60	40.24	109.80	205.0
Through 100 feet of service-pipe, and 30 ft. vertical rise.	30	0.44	0.77	1.22	2.50	6.80	14.11	36.63	72.0
	40	0.55	0.97	1.53	3.15	8.68	17.73	48.00	95.0
	50	0.65	1.14	1.79	3.69	10.16	20.82	56.90	110.0
	60	0.73	1.28	2.02	4.15	11.45	23.47	64.20	125.0
	75	0.84	1.47	2.32	4.77	13.15	26.93	73.10	142.0
	100	1.00	1.74	2.75	5.65	15.58	31.93	87.00	170.0
	130	1.20	2.02	3.19	6.55	18.07	37.93	103.00	200.0

is assumed that the pipe is straight and smooth inside; that the main and meter are disregarded; that the inlet from the main character, sharp, not flaring or rounded, and that the diameter of pipe. The deliveries given will be increased if, between the meter and the main is of larger diameter than the main is tapped, say for 1-inch pipe, but is enlarged to 1½ or 1¾ inch; or, third, if pipe on the outlet is larger than the side of the meter. The exact details of the conditions given in practice; consequently the quantities of the table may be decreased, because the pipe is liable to be throttled at the bends may interpose, or stop-cocks may be used, or the velocity may be increased.

Pipes.—A pipe is said to be air-bound when, in consequence of being entrapped at the high points of vertical curves in the pipe, the water does not flow out of the pipe, although the supply is higher than the outlet. The remedy is to provide cocks or valves at the high points, where the air may be discharged. The valve may be made automatic by a float.

Formula. (Molesworth.)— H = head of water, h = height of jet, K = coefficient, varying with ratio of diameter of jet to diameter of pipe.

100	600	1000	1500	1800	2800	3500	4500
.90	.9	.85	.8	.7	.6	.5	.25

Delivered through Meters. (Thomson Meter Co.)—The practice limits the velocity in water-pipes to 10 lineal feet per second as a basis of delivery, and we find, for the several sizes of pipe metered, the following approximate results:

Size of pipe in inches:

½	¾	1	1¼	2	3	4	6
28	1.85	3.38	7.36	13.1	29.5	52.1	117.0

Charged for Water in Different Cities (National

Minimum price for 1000 gallons in 163 places.	9.4 cents.
Maximum " " " " " " " " " " " "	28 " "
Average to " " " " " " " " " " " "	100 " "

FIRE-STREAMS.

Range from Nozzles at Different Pressures.

(From Am. Water-works Ass'n, 1892, *Eng'g News*, July 14, 1892.)

Pressure at Fly-pipe, lbs.	Horizontal Projection of Streams, ft.	Gallons per minute.	Gallons per 24 hours.	Friction per 100 ft. Hose, lbs.	Friction per 100 ft. Hose, Net Head, ft.
40.5	59.5	293	292,208	10.75	21.77
50.0	67.0	290	331,200	13.00	31.10
72.0	76.6	287	384,300	17.70	40.78
130.0	88.0	311	447,900	22.50	54.14
44.5	61.3	249	358,520	15.50	35.71
55.5	69.5	281	401,700	19.40	41.70
72.0	78.5	324	466,000	25.40	58.52
103.0	89.0	376	541,500	33.80	77.88
43.0	66.0	306	440,613	22.75	39.42
53.5	72.4	343	493,900	28.40	45.43
69.5	81.0	388	558,800	35.90	58.71
93.0	92.0	460	662,500	57.75	86.68
41.5	77.0	268	530,149	32.50	66.11
51.5	74.4	410	590,500	40.00	81.25
65.5	82.6	468	674,000	51.40	104.00
82.0	92.0	540	777,700	72.00	147.00

Friction Losses in Hose.—In the above table the water discharged per jet were for stated pressures at the play pipe.

In providing for this pressure due allowance is to be made for losses in each hose, according to the streams of greatest discharge to be used.

The loss of pressure or its equivalent loss of head (h) in the hose found by the formula $h = \frac{v^2 l}{2gd} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$.

In this formula, as ordinarily used, for friction per 100 ft. of hose there are the following constants: $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter of hose; $l =$ length of hose $l = 100$ ft., and $2g = 64.4$. The variables are: $v =$ velocity per second; $h =$ loss of head in feet per 100 ft. of hose; the coefficient found by experiment; the velocity v is found from the changes of the jets through the given diameter of hose.

Head and Pressure Losses by Friction in 100 Lengths of Rubber-lined Smooth $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. Hose.

Discharge per minute, gallons.	Velocity per second, ft.	Coefficient, m.	Head Lost, ft.	Pressure Lost, lbs. per sq. in.
200	13.072	.00150	22.80	9.43
250	16.388	.00110	35.55	14.33
300	18.858	.00112	46.80	20.31
347	21.677	.00130	61.53	26.70
350	22.873	.00130	68.45	29.73
400	26.144	.00135	88.83	39.75
450	29.408	.00144	111.80	48.84
500	32.675	.00132	137.50	59.67
520	33.682	.00131	148.40	61.40

These frictions are for given volumes of flow in the hose and are respectively due to those volumes, and are independent of nozzle. The changes in nozzle do not affect the friction in the hose; no change in velocity of flow, but a larger nozzle with equal pressure the nozzle augments the discharge and velocity of flow, and thus increases the friction loss in the hose.

Loss of Pressure (p) and Head (h) in Rubber-lined Smooth $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. Hose may be found approximately by the

$p = \frac{lq^2}{4150d^5}$ and $h = \frac{lq^2}{1800d^5}$, in which $p =$ pressure lost in pounds per square inch; $l =$ length of hose in feet; $q =$ gallons discharged per minute; $d =$ diam. of the hose in inches; $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. = head in feet. The coefficient of d^5 would be decreased for a nozzle.

The loss of pressure and head for a $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. stream with nozzle of height of 80 ft. is, in each 100 ft. of $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. hose, approximately 20 ft. net, or, say, including friction in the hydrant, $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. loss of head foot of hose.

If we change the nozzles to $1\frac{1}{4}$ or $1\frac{3}{8}$ in. diameter, then for the height of stream we increase the friction losses on the hose to nearly $\frac{3}{4}$ ft. and 1 ft. head, respectively, for each foot length of hose.

These computations show the great difficulty of maintaining stream through large nozzles unless the hose is very short, especially in direct pressure system.

This single $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. stream requires approximately 26 lbs. pressure, or 120 ft. head, at the play pipe, and 45 to 50 ft. head for a length of smooth $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. hose, so that for 100, 200 and 300 ft. we must have available heads at the hydrant or fire engine of 54, 84 ft., respectively. If we substitute $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. nozzles for same length, we must have available heads at the hydrant or engine of 75, 84 ft., respectively, or we must increase the diameter of a portion of the long hose and save friction-loss of head.

Rated Capacities of Steam Fire-engines, which is one third greater than their ordinary rate of work at flow, are as follows:

3d size,	550 gals. per min., or	792,000 gals. per 24 hours
2d "	700 "	1,008,000 "
1st "	850 "	1,224,000 "
1st "	1,000 "	1,684,000 "

required at Nozzle and at Pump, with Quantity of Water Necessary to throw Water at Distances through Different-sized Nozzles—
2½-inch Rubber Hose and Smooth Nozzles.

Experiments of Ellis & Leshure, Fanning's "Water Supply.")

Size of Nozzles.	1 Inch.				1½ Inch.			
nozzle, lbs. per sq. in.	40	60	80	100	40	60	80	100
at pump or hydrant with 1-inch rubber hose	48	73	97	121	54	81	108	135
minute	155	180	210	245	196	240	277	310
distance thrown, feet	109	142	164	186	113	148	175	193
distance thrown, feet	79	108	131	148	81	112	137	157

Size of Nozzles.	1¼ Inch.				1½ Inch.			
nozzle, lbs. per sq. in.	40	60	80	100	40	60	80	100
at pump or hydrant with 1½-inch rubber hose	61	92	123	154	71	107	144	180
minute	242	297	343	383	268	354	419	462
distance thrown, feet	118	156	186	207	124	166	200	224
distance thrown, feet	82	115	142	164	85	118	146	169

water length of 2½-inch hose the increased friction can be obtaining the differences between the above given "pressure at A" pressure at pump or hydrant with 100 feet of hose." For it requires at hydrant or pump eight pounds more pressure at nozzle to overcome the friction when pumping through 100 feet of hose using 1-inch nozzle, with 40-pound pressure at said it requires 10 pounds pressure to overcome the friction in through 300 feet of same size hose.

Loss of Flow due to Increase of Length of Hose.

Fanning's Experiments, Trans. A. S. C. E. 1889.)—If the static pressure and the hydrant pipes of such size that the pressure at the hydrant, the hose 2½ in. nominal diam., and the nozzle 1½ in. diam., of effective fire-stream obtainable and the quantity in gallons per minute:

	Linen Hose.		Best Rubber-lined Hose.	
	Height, feet.	Gals. per min.	Height, feet.	Gals. per min.
50 ft. of 2½-in. hose	73	261	81	282
40 " " " "	42	184	61	229
30 " " " "	27	140	46	174

50 ft. of smoothest and best rubber-lined hose, if diameter be 1½ in., effective height of stream will be 39 ft. (177 gals.); if diameter 1½ in., effective height of stream will be 46 ft. (192 gals.)

THE SIPHON.

It is a bent tube of unequal branches, open at both ends, and convey a liquid from a higher to a lower level, over an intermediate higher than either. Its parallel branches being in a vertical plane and into two bodies of liquid whose upper surfaces are at different levels will stand at the same level both within and without each the tube when a vent or small opening is made at the bend. If withdrawn from the siphon through this vent, the water will rise above by the atmospheric pressure without, and when the two tubes and the vent is closed, the liquid will flow from the upper tube as long as the end of the shorter branch of the siphon is below the level of the liquid in the reservoir, or was free from air the height of the bend above the level as great as 33 feet.

If A = area of cross-section of the tube in square feet, H = difference in level between the two reservoirs in feet, D the density of the fluid in pounds per cubic foot, then ADH measures the intensity of the motive power which causes the movement of the fluid, and $V = \sqrt{2gH} = 5.02 \sqrt{H}$ is the theoretical velocity, in feet per second, which is reduced by the loss of head due to friction, as in other cases of flow of liquids through pipes. If the difference of level being greater than 23 feet, however, the flow of the water in the shorter leg is limited to that due to a height of 23 feet, that due to the difference between the atmospheric pressure at the two ends and the vacuum at the bend.

Leicester Allen (*Am. Mach.*, Nov. 2, 1893) says: The supply of liquid in a siphon must be greater than the flow which would take place from the supply end of the pipe, provided the pipe were filled with liquid, the supply end stopped, and the discharge end opened when the discharge is left free, unregulated, and unsubmerged.

To illustrate this principle, let us suppose the extreme case of a siphon having a calibre of 1 foot, in which the difference of level of the two points of supply and discharge, is 4 inches. Let us further suppose the supply to be at the sea-level, and its highest point above the lower supply to be 37 feet. Also suppose the discharge end of this siphon to be regulated, unsubmerged. It would be imperative because the longer leg would not be held solid by the pressure of the atmosphere at its end, and it would therefore break up and run out faster than it could be placed at the inflow end under an effective head of only 4 inches.

Long Siphons.—Prof. Joseph Torrey, in the *Amer. Mach.*, describes a long siphon which was a partial failure.

The length of the pipe was 1792 feet. The pipe was 3 inches diameter at one point 9 feet above the initial level. The final level was 10 feet below the initial level. No automatic air valve was provided. The highest point in the siphon was about one third the total distance from the initial level nearest the pond. At this point a pump was placed, whose duty was to fill the pipe when necessary. This siphon would flow for about one hour and then cease, owing to accumulation of air in the pipe. When in operation it discharged 43½ gallons per minute. The theoretical flow from such a sized pipe with the specified head is 55½ gallons per minute.

Siphon on the Water-supply of Mount Vernon.—(*Eng'g News*, May 4, 1893.)—A 12-inch siphon, 925 feet long, with a total lift of 22.12 feet and a 45° change in alignment, was put in use in the New York City Suburban Water Co., which supplies Mount Vernon.

At its summit the siphon crosses a supply main, which is tapped into the siphon.

The air-chamber at the siphon is 12 inches by 16 feet long. A valve and cock at the top of the chamber provide an outlet for the collected air.

It was found that the siphon with air-chamber as described would operate until 125 cubic feet of air had gathered, and that this took place as soon with a 14-foot lift as with the full lift of 22.12 feet. The siphon can operate about 12 hours without being recharged, but more water is gotten over by charging every six hours. It can be kept running for out of 24 with only one man in attendance. With the siphon as above it is necessary to close the valves at each end of the siphon to recharge it.

It has been found by weir measurements that the discharge of the siphon before air accumulates at the summit is practically the same as that of a straight pipe.

MEASUREMENT OF FLOWING WATER.

Piezometer.—If a vertical or oblique tube be inserted into a pipe containing water under pressure, the water will rise in the former to the vertical height to which it rises will be the head producing the pressure at the point where the tube is attached. Such a tube is called a *piezometer*, or pressure measure. If the water in the piezometer falls below the level it shows that the pressure in the main pipe has been reduced by an obstruction between the piezometer and the reservoir. If the water above its proper level, it indicates that the pressure there has been increased by an obstruction beyond the piezometer.

If we imagine a pipe full of water to be provided with a number of piezometers, then a line joining the tops of the columns of water in the piezometers is the hydraulic grade line.

Tube Gauge.—The Pitot tube is used for measuring the velocity in motion. It has been used with great success in measuring of natural gas. (S. W. Robinson, Report Ohio Geol. Survey, 1890.) *Van Nostrand's Mag.*, vol. xxiv.) It is simply a tube so bent that it extends into the current of fluid flowing from a tube, with the entering orifice opposed at right angles to the direction of the flow. The pressure caused by the impact of the current is transmitted to the tube to a pressure-gauge of any kind, such as a column of mercury, or a Bourdon spring-gauge. From the pressure thus obtained and the known density and temperature of the flowing gas is obtained a head corresponding to the pressure, and from this the velocity. Attention of the Pitot tube described by Prof. Robinson, there are two inserted into the pipe conveying the gas, one of which has the orifice at right angles to the current, to receive the static pressure due to impact; the other has the plane of its orifice parallel to the current, so as to receive the static pressure only. These are connected to the legs of a U tube partly filled with mercury, which registers the difference in pressure in the two tubes, from which the velocity may be calculated. Comparative tests of Pitot tubes with gas-meter measurement of the flow of natural gas, have shown an agreement 3%.

Venturi Meter, invented by Clemens Herschel, and described in a paper issued by the Builders' Iron Foundry of Providence, R. I., is named after Giovanni Venturi, who first called attention, in 1796, to the relation between velocities and pressures of fluids when flowing through converging tubes.

It consists of two parts—the tube, through which the water flows, and the recorder which registers the quantity of water that passes through the

meter. It takes the shape of two truncated cones joined in their smallest ends by a short throat-piece. At the up-stream end and at the throat are two air-chambers, at which points the pressures are taken.

The operation of the tube is based on that property which causes the small end of a gently expanding frustum of a cone to receive, without material loss of head, as much water at the smallest diameter as is discharged at the large end, and on that further property which causes the pressure of the water flowing through the throat to be less, by virtue of its velocity, than the pressure at the up-stream end of the tube, each being at the same time a function of the velocity at that point and of the static pressure which would obtain were the water motionless in the pipe.

The recorder is connected with the tube by pressure-pipes which lead to the air-chambers surrounding the up-stream end and the throat of the tube. It may be placed in any convenient position within 1000 feet of the meter, and is operated by a weight and clockwork.

The difference of pressure or head at the entrance and at the throat of the meter is balanced in the recorder by the difference of level in two columns of water in cylindrical receivers, one within the other. The inner carries the position of which is indicative of the quantity of water flowing through the tube. By its rise and fall the float varies the time of contact with an integrating drum and the counters by which the successive readings are registered.

There is no limit to the sizes of the meters nor the quantity of water that may be measured. Meters with 24-inch, 36-inch, 48-inch, and even 20-foot diameters have been readily made.

Measurement by Venturi Tubes. (Trans. A. S. C. E., Nov., 1887, p. 188.)—Mr. Herschel recommends the use of a Venturi tube in the force-main of the pumping engine, for determining the quantity of water discharged. Such a tube applied to a 24-inch main has a total length of about 20 feet. At a distance of 4 feet from the end nearest the engine the inside diameter of the tube is contracted to a throat having a diameter of about 8 inches. A pressure-gauge is attached to each of two air-chambers, the one surrounding and communicating with the entrance orifice of the tube, the other with the throat. According to experiments made upon a tube of this kind, one 4 in. in diameter at the throat and 12 in. at the entrance, the other about 36 in. in diameter at the throat and 9 feet long, the quantity of water which passes through the tube is very nearly equal to the discharge through an opening having an area equal to the area of the throat, and a velocity which is that due to the difference in head between the entrance and the throat.

by the two gauges. Mr. Herschel states that the coefficient for widely-varying sizes of tubes and for a wide range of velocities in pipe, was found to be within two per cent, either way, of 0.97; in words, the quantity of water flowing through the tube per second expressed within two per cent by the formula $W = 0.98 \sqrt{h} \sqrt{A}$; W is the area of the throat of the tube, h the head, in feet, coming to the difference in the pressure of the water entering the tube found at the throat, and $g = 32.16$.

Measurement of Discharge of Pumping-engines Means of Nozzles. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 557. — The flow of water by computation from its discharge through orifices, or nozzles of fire-hose, furnishes a means of determining the quantity delivered by a pumping engine which can be applied without much trouble. John R. Freeman, Trans. A. S. C. E., Nov., 1899, describes a series of experiments covering a wide range of pressures and sizes, and the result that the coefficient of discharge for a smooth nozzle of ordinary size was within one half of one per cent, either way, of 0.977; the nozzle being accurately calibrated, and the pressures being determined by means of an accurate gauge attached to a suitable piezometer in the play-pipe.

In order to use this method for determining the quantity of water discharged by a pumping engine, it would be necessary to provide a box, to which the water would be conducted, and attach to the box nozzles as would be required to carry off the water. According to Freeman's estimate, four $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch nozzles, thus connected with a head of 80 lbs. per square inch, would discharge the full capacity of a half million engine. He also suggests the use of a portable apparatus, a single opening for discharge, consisting essentially of a slamm, so called, the water being carried to it by three or more lines of hose.

To insure reliability for these measurements, it is necessary that the shut off valve in the force-main, or the several shut off valves, should be so that all the water discharged by the engine may pass through the

Flow through Rectangular Orifices. (Approximate.)

CUBIC FEET OF WATER DISCHARGED PER MINUTE THROUGH ANY ORIFICE INCH SQUARE, UNDER ANY HEAD OF WATER FROM 2 TO 72 INCHES.

For any other orifice multiply by its area in square inches.

Formula, $Q' = .624 \sqrt{h} \times a$. Q' = cu. ft. per min.; a = area in

Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.
3	1.12	13	2.30	23	2.90	33	3.47	43	3.95	53	4.37
4	1.27	14	2.32	24	2.97	34	3.52	44	4.00	54	4.42
5	1.40	15	2.36	25	3.03	35	3.57	45	4.05	55	4.47
6	1.52	16	2.43	26	3.08	36	3.62	46	4.09	56	4.52
7	1.64	17	2.51	27	3.14	37	3.67	47	4.14	57	4.57
8	1.75	18	2.58	28	3.20	38	3.72	48	4.18	58	4.62
9	1.84	19	2.64	29	3.25	39	3.77	49	4.23	59	4.67
10	1.94	20	2.71	30	3.31	40	3.84	50	4.27	60	4.72
11	2.03	21	2.78	31	3.36	41	3.86	51	4.30	61	4.77
12	2.12	22	2.84	32	3.41	42	3.91	52	4.34	62	4.81

Measurement of an Open Stream by Velocity and section.

—Measure the depth of the water at from 6 to 12 feet across the stream at equal distances between. Add all the depths in feet and divide by the number of measurements made; this will be the depth of the stream, which multiplied by its width will give the area of section. Multiply this by the velocity of the stream in feet per second; the result will be the discharge in cubic feet per minute of the stream. The velocity of the stream can be found by laying off the feet of the scale of the velocity gauge, the middle noting the time taken for the float to pass the distance of 100 feet, and taking the average.

by the time gives the velocity at the surface. As the top of the float is faster than the bottom or sides—the average velocity being about the surface velocity at the middle—it is convenient to measure at 120 feet for the float and reckon it as 100.

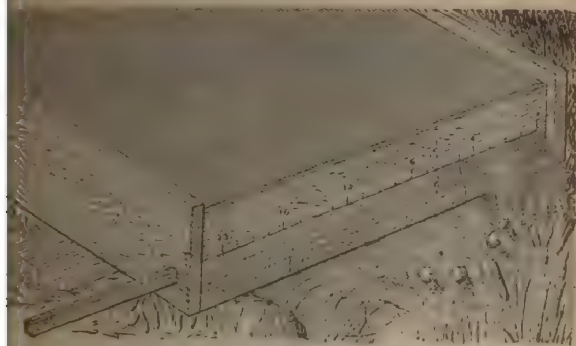


FIG. 130.

Table of Inch Measurements. (Pelton Water Wheel Co.)

Fig. 130, shows the form of measuring-box ordinarily used, and the table gives the discharge in cubic feet per minute of a minor's inch as measured under the various heads and different lengths and apertures used in California.

Openings 2 Inches High.			Openings 4 Inches High.		
Head to Centre, 5 inches.	Head to Centre, 6 inches.	Head to Centre, 7 inches.	Head to Centre, 8 inches.	Head to Centre, 6 inches.	Head to Centre, 7 inches.
Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.
1.318	1.473	1.589	1.830	1.450	1.570
1.355	1.480	1.596	1.896	1.470	1.595
1.390	1.484	1.600	1.944	1.481	1.608
1.461	1.485	1.602	1.949	1.487	1.615
1.463	1.487	1.604	1.952	1.492	1.620
1.464	1.488	1.601	1.954	1.494	1.623
1.465	1.489	1.605	1.956	1.496	1.626
1.465	1.489	1.606	1.957	1.498	1.628
1.465	1.490	1.606	1.959	1.499	1.630
1.466	1.490	1.607	1.960	1.500	1.631
1.466	1.490	1.607	1.960	1.501	1.632
1.466	1.490	1.607	1.961	1.502	1.633
1.467	1.491	1.607	1.961	1.503	1.634
1.467	1.491	1.608	1.962	1.503	1.635
1.467	1.492	1.608	1.963	1.505	1.637
1.468	1.493	1.609	1.964	1.507	1.639
1.468	1.493	1.609	1.965	1.508	1.640
1.468	1.493	1.609	1.965	1.508	1.641
1.468	1.493	1.609	1.966	1.509	1.641
1.469	1.494	1.610	1.966	1.509	1.641
1.469	1.494	1.610	1.966	1.509	1.641

The apertures from which the above measurements were

were through material 1½ inches thick, and the lower edge 2 in. from the bottom of the measuring-box, thus giving full contraction.

Flow of Water Over Weirs. **Weir Dam Necessary** (Pelton Water Wheel Co.)—Place a board or plank in the stream,

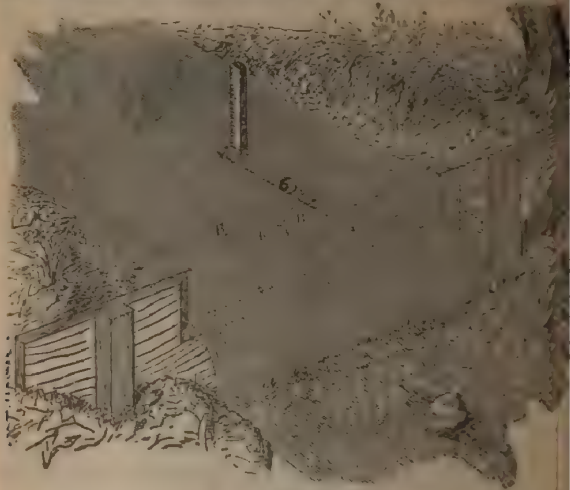


FIG. 131.

In the sketch, at some point where a pond will form above. The notch in the dam should be from two to four times its depth for small quantities and longer for large quantities. The edges of the notch should be bevelled toward the intake side, as shown. The overfall below the notch should not be less than twice its depth. [Francis says a fall below the notch equal to one-half the head is sufficient, but there must be a free flow of air under the sheet.]

In the pond, about 6 ft. above the dam, drive a stake, and then observe the water until it rises precisely to the bottom of the notch and mark the level at this level. Then complete the dam so as to cause all the water to flow through the notch, and, after time for the water to settle, mark the level again for this new level. If preferred the stake can be driven into the pond precisely level with the bottom of the notch and the depth of the pond measured with a rule after the water is flowing free, but the latter is preferable in most cases. The stake can then be withdrawn, and the difference between the marks is the theoretical depth of flow corresponding to the quantities in the table on the following page.

Francis's Formulae for Weirs.

	As given by Francis.	As modified by Francis.
Weirs with both end contractions suppressed.....	$Q = 3.33H^{3/2}$	$2.79(1 - \frac{1}{2}H)$
Weirs with one end contraction suppressed.....	$Q = 3.33(1 - .1A)H^{3/2}$	$2.59(1 - \frac{1}{2}H)$
Weirs with full contraction.....	$Q = 3.33(1 - .2A)H^{3/2}$	$2.39(1 - \frac{1}{2}H)$

constant variation of the Francis formulae from the values of coefficients to 31. The modified Francis formulae, says Francis, are of great accuracy in most cases, and being not less than 8 ft.

Q , cubic feet per second, l = length of weir in feet, h = flow measured from the level of the crest to the level of still water.

Q' , in cubic feet per minute, and l' and h' are taken in feet of the above formulae reduces to $Q' = 0.41 l' h'^{\frac{3}{2}}$. From this table is calculated. The values are sufficiently accurate for computations of water-power for weirs without end contraction, and also for weirs with end contraction when l = at least $10h$, and for weirs with end contraction when $l = 4h$.

Weir Table.

WEIR TABLE. QUANTITY OF WATER PER MINUTE THAT WILL FLOW OVER A WEIR ONE INCH WIDE AND FROM $\frac{1}{8}$ TO $20\frac{3}{4}$ INCHES DEEP.

For other widths multiply by the width in inches.

$\frac{1}{8}$ in.	$\frac{1}{4}$ in.	$\frac{3}{8}$ in.	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	$\frac{5}{8}$ in.	$\frac{3}{4}$ in.	$\frac{7}{8}$ in.
cu. ft.	cu. ft.	cu. ft.	cu. ft.	cu. ft.	cu. ft.	cu. ft.
.01	.05	.09	.14	.19	.25	.32
.47	.55	.64	.73	.82	.92	1.02
1.23	1.35	1.46	1.58	1.70	1.82	1.95
2.21	2.34	2.48	2.61	2.75	2.90	3.06
3.85	3.50	3.76	3.81	3.97	4.14	4.30
4.61	4.81	4.98	5.15	5.33	5.51	5.69
6.06	6.25	6.44	6.62	6.82	7.01	7.21
7.60	7.80	8.01	8.21	8.42	8.63	8.83
9.26	9.47	9.69	9.91	10.13	10.35	10.57
11.02	11.25	11.48	11.71	11.94	12.17	12.41
12.88	13.12	13.36	13.60	13.85	14.09	14.34
14.84	15.09	15.34	15.59	15.85	16.11	16.36
16.88	17.15	17.41	17.67	17.94	18.21	18.47
19.01	19.29	19.56	19.84	20.11	20.39	20.67
21.23	21.51	21.80	22.08	22.37	22.65	22.94
23.52	23.82	24.11	24.40	24.70	25.00	25.30
25.90	26.20	26.50	26.80	27.11	27.42	27.72
28.34	28.65	28.97	29.28	29.59	29.91	30.22
30.86	31.18	31.50	31.82	32.15	32.47	32.80
35.45	35.78	36.11	36.44	36.77	37.10	37.44
36.11	36.45	36.79	37.12	37.46	37.80	38.15

For accurate computations, the coefficients of flow of Hamilton and Bazin should be used. In Smith's hydraulics will be found results of experiments on orifices and weirs of various shapes from different authorities, together with a discussion of their accuracy. (See also Trautwine's Pocket Book.)

Experiments.—M. Bazin (*Annales des Ponts et Chaussées*, edited by Mariéchal and Trautwine, Proc. Engrs. Club of Phila., 1897) has made an extensive series of experiments with a sharp-crested weir with end contraction, the air being admitted freely behind the weir. He has found values of m varying from 0.42 to 0.50, with variation of the height of the weir from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ in., of the height of the crest in the channel from 0.70 to 2.46 ft., and of the head from 0.1 to 1.0 ft. From these experiments he deduces the following formula:

$$Q = \left[0.425 + 0.21 \left(\frac{H}{P + H} \right)^2 \right] L H \sqrt{2gH},$$

where H is the height in feet of the crest of the weir above the bottom of the approach, L the length of the weir, H the head, both in feet, Q the discharge in cu. ft. per sec. This formula gives m as follows: where errors of 2% to 3% are admitted.

and from M. Bazin's paper:

VALUES OF THE COEFFICIENT m IN THE FORMULA $Q = mLIH$ FOR SHARP-CRESTED WEIR WITHOUT LATERAL CONTRACTION: TYPE ADMITTED FREELY BEHIND THE FALLING SHEET.

Head, H .	Height of Crest of Weir Above Bed of Channel											
	Feet .0.66			1.31			1.97			2.62		
	Inches 7.87			15.75			31.50			59.06		
Feet	In.	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
1.64	1.97	0.458	0.458	0.451	0.450	0.449	0.449	0.449	0.449	0.449	0.449	0.449
2.30	2.76	0.455	0.448	0.445	0.445	0.442	0.441	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440
2.95	3.54	0.457	0.447	0.442	0.440	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439
3.64	4.33	0.462	0.448	0.442	0.440	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439
4.29	5.10	0.471	0.453	0.444	0.442	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439
4.96	5.97	0.480	0.459	0.447	0.446	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440
5.67	6.85	0.488	0.465	0.452	0.444	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439	0.439
6.41	7.77	0.496	0.472	0.457	0.448	0.441	0.441	0.441	0.441	0.441	0.441	0.441
7.19	8.70	0.478	0.462	0.452	0.444	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440	0.440
8.00	9.60	0.483	0.467	0.456	0.448	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444
8.84	10.57	0.489	0.472	0.459	0.451	0.446	0.446	0.446	0.446	0.446	0.446
9.71	11.63	0.494	0.476	0.463	0.454	0.442	0.442	0.442	0.442	0.442	0.442
10.61	12.60	0.480	0.467	0.457	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444
11.54	13.67	0.486	0.470	0.460	0.446	0.446	0.446	0.446	0.446	0.446
12.50	14.90	0.485	0.473	0.463	0.447	0.447	0.447	0.447	0.447	0.447
13.49	16.27	0.490	0.476	0.466	0.451	0.451	0.451	0.451	0.451	0.451
14.51	17.69	0.475	0.465	0.452	0.442	0.442	0.442	0.442	0.442
15.55	19.00	0.479	0.469	0.456	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444	0.444
16.61	20.47	0.483	0.472	0.460	0.448	0.448	0.448	0.448	0.448
17.69	21.90	0.487	0.476	0.463	0.451	0.451	0.451	0.451	0.451
18.79	23.38	0.490	0.479	0.466	0.454	0.454	0.454	0.454	0.454

A comparison of the results of this formula with those of m says M. Bazin, justifies us in believing that, except in the most very low weir (which should always be avoided, the preceding give the coefficient m in all cases within 1%, provided, however, arrangements of the standard weir are exactly reproduced). It is important that the admission of the air behind the falling sheet be assured. If this condition is not complied with, m may vary to wider limits. The type adopted gives the least possible value coefficient.

WATER-POWER.

Power of a Fall of Water—Efficiency.—The gross power of a fall of water is the product of the weight of water discharged into the total head, i.e., the difference of vertical elevations of the upper surface of the water at the points where the fall begins and ends. The term "head" used in connection with water-power difference in height from the surface of the water in the wheel surface in the pen-stock when the wheel is running.

If Q = cubic feet of water discharged per second, D = weight of water = 62.36 lbs. at 60° F., H = total head in feet, then

$$DQH = \text{gross power in foot-pounds per second,}$$

$$\text{and } DQH \div 550 = 1.14Q/H = \text{gross horse-power}$$

$$\text{If } Q' \text{ is taken in cubic feet per minute, H. P.} = \frac{Q'H \times 62.36}{55 \times 60} =$$

A water wheel or motor of any kind cannot utilize the whole H , since there are losses of head at both the entrance to and the exit from the wheel. There are also losses of energy due to friction of the water as it passes through the wheel. The ratio of the power developed by the wheel to the gross power of the fall is the efficiency of the wheel.

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{power}}{\text{gross power}} = .00142Q'H = \frac{Q'H}{705}.$$

of water can be made use of in one or other of the following ways

By its weight, as in the water-balance and overshot-wheel,
By its pressure, as in turbines and in the hydraulic engine, hydraulic
crane, etc.

By its impulse, as in the undershot-wheel, and in the Pelton wheel.

By a combination of the above.

the-power of a Running Stream.—The gross horse-power
 $P = QH \times 62.35 \div 550 = .1134QH$, in which Q is the discharge in cubic
feet second actually impinging on the float or bucket, and H = theoret-

ical head due to the velocity of the stream = $\frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{v^2}{64.4}$, in which v is the
velocity in feet per second. If Q' be taken in cubic feet per minute,
 $P = .001189 Q' H$.

If the floats of an undershot-wheel driven by a current alone be 5
feet, and the velocity of stream = 210 ft. per minute, or $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. per
second, which the theoretical head is .19 ft., $Q = 5$ sq. ft. \times 210 = 1050 cu. ft.
per minute; $H = .19$ ft.; H. P. = $1050 \times .19 \times .001189 = .377$ H. P.
Such wheels would realize only about .4 of this power, on account of friction
in the buckets, or .161 H. P., or about .08 H. P. per square foot of float, which is
about .08 sq. ft. of float per H. P.

Current Motors.—A current motor could only utilize the whole power
of a running stream if it could take all the velocity out of the water, so that
it would leave the floats or buckets with no velocity at all; or in other words,
it would require the backing up of the whole volume of the stream until the
velocity was equivalent to the theoretical head due to the velocity of the
stream. As but a small fraction of the velocity of the stream can be taken
out by a current motor, its efficiency is very small. Current motors may be
used to obtain small amounts of power from large streams, but for large
amounts they are not practicable.

Gross-power of Water Flowing in a Tube.—The head due to
velocity is $\frac{v^2}{2g}$; the head due to the pressure is $\frac{f}{w}$; the head due to actual
height above the datum plane is h feet. The total head is the sum of these =

$h + \frac{f}{w}$, in feet, in which v = velocity in feet per second, f = pressure
loss in lbs. per sq. ft., w = weight of 1 cu. ft. of water = 62.35 lbs. If p = pres-
sure in lbs. per sq. in., $\frac{f}{w} = 2.809p$. In hydraulic transmission the velocity

at the height above datum are usually small compared with the pressure-
head. The work or energy of a given quantity of water under pressure =
volume in cubic feet \times its pressure in lbs. per sq. ft.; or if Q = quantity
in cubic feet per second, and p = pressure in lbs. per square inch, $W =$
 Q and the H. P. = $\frac{141pQ}{550} = .258pQ$.

Maximum Efficiency of a Long Conduit.—A. L. Adams and
G. Venturi (*Eng'g News*, May 4, 1893), show by mathematical analysis that
the conditions for securing the maximum amount of power through a long
conduit of fixed diameter, without regard to the economy of water, is that
the draught from the pipe should be such that the frictional loss in the pipe
be equal to one third of the entire static head.

Mill-Power.—A "mill-power" is a unit used to rate a water-power for
the purpose of renting it. The value of the unit is different in different
localities. The following are examples (from Emerson):

Brookline, Mass.—Each mill-power at the respective falls is declared to be
the right to draw during 16 hours in a day to draw 35 cu. ft. of water per second at
upper fall when the head there is 25 feet, or a quantity proportionate to
the height at the falls. This is equal to 66.2 horse-power as a maximum.

Lowell, Mass.—The right to draw during 15 hours in the day so much water
from the falls as shall give a power equal to 25 cu. ft. a second at the great fall, when the
head there is 25 feet. Equal to 65 H. P. maximum.

Lowell, Mass.—The right to draw during 16 hours in a day so much
water as shall give a horse-power equal to 30 cu. ft. per second when the
head there is 25 feet. Equal to 65 H. P. maximum.

Lowell, Mass.—30 cu. ft. of water per second with head of 25
feet is 65 H. P.

Lowell, Mass.—Divide 725 by the number of feet of fall mill-

α_1 = the arc subtending one bucket at entrance. (In practice, less than α_2 .)

$\alpha_2 = gh$, the arc subtending one bucket at exit.

$K = bf$, normal section of passage, it being assumed that the passage and buckets are very narrow.

$k_1 = bd$, initial normal section of bucket.

$k_2 = gi$, terminal normal section.

v_1 = velocity of initial rim.

v_2 = velocity of terminal rim.

$\theta = HFF$, angle between the terminal rim and actual direction of water at exit.

Y = depth of K , y , of a_1 , and y_2 of K_2 , then

$K = Y a \sin \alpha$; $K_1 = y_1 a_1 \sin \gamma_1$; $K_2 = y_2 a_2 \sin \gamma_2$.

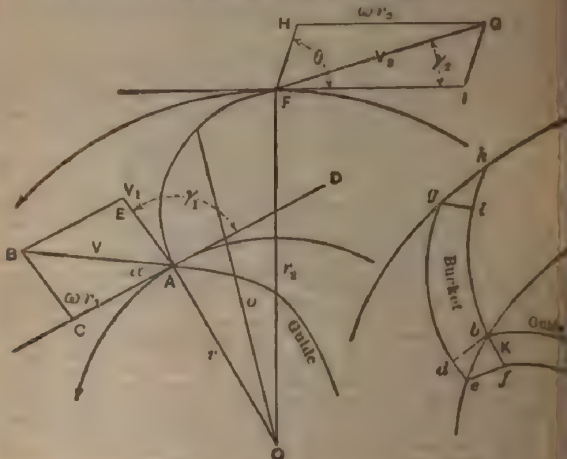


FIG. 183.

FIG. 184.

Three simple systems are recognized, $r_1 < r_2$, called outward flow; $r_1 = r_2$, called parallel flow. The first and second may be combined with the third, making a mixed system.

Value of γ_2 (the quitting angle).—The efficiency is increased as γ_2 increases, and is greatest for $\gamma_2 = 0$. Hence, theoretically, the terminal tangent of the bucket should be tangent to the quitting rim for best effect. This, however, for the discharge of a finite quantity of water, requires an infinite depth of bucket. In practice, therefore, this angle has a finite value. The larger the diameter of the terminal rim the smaller may be this angle for a given depth of wheel and given quantity of water discharged. In practice γ_2 is from 10° to 20° .

In a wheel in which all the elements except γ_2 are fixed, the velocity of the wheel for best effect must increase as the quitting angle of the buckets decreases.

Value of $\alpha + \gamma_1$ must be less than 180° , but the best relation cannot be determined by analysis. However, since the water should be deflected as much as possible from its entering to its leaving the bucket, the angle α for this reason should be as small as practicable.

In practice, α cannot be zero, and is made from 20° to 30° .

The value $r_1 = 1.4 r_2$ makes the width of the crown for internal flow the same as for $r_1 = r_2$, $\frac{1}{2} r_2$ for outward flow, being approximately 8% of the external radius.

Friction.—The frictional resistances depend upon the roughness and smoothness of the surfaces, therefore of the shape of the buckets.

the curved parts, and also upon the speed it is run. These can be definitely assigned beforehand, but Weisbach gives for ours $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0.05$ to 0.10 .

Not necessarily equal, and μ_1 may be from 0.05 to 0.075 , and μ_2 0.10 or even larger.

γ_1 must be less than $180^\circ - \alpha$.

On the safe side, γ_1 may be 20 or 30 degrees less than $180^\circ - 2\alpha$, giving

$$\gamma_1 = 180^\circ - 2\alpha - 25 \text{ (say)} = 155 - 2\alpha.$$

$= 30^\circ$, $\gamma_1 = 95^\circ$. Some designers make γ_1 20° ; others more, and less, than that amount. Weisbach suggests that it be less, so that it will be shorter and friction less. This reasoning appears to be for the inflow wheel, but not for the outflow wheel. In the Tremont, described in the Lowell Hydraulic Experiments, this angle α 20° , and γ_2 10° , which proportions insured a positive flow of the wheel. Fourneyron made $\gamma_1 = 90^\circ$, and α from 30° to 34° . He made the initial pressure in the wheel near zero.

Bucket.—The form of the bucket cannot be determined analytically. The initial and terminal directions and the volume of the water through the wheel, the area of the normal sections may be found. The section of the buckets will be:

$$K = \frac{Q}{V}; \quad k_1 = \frac{Q}{v_1}; \quad k_2 = \frac{Q}{v_2}.$$

Each of these sections will be:

$$Y = \frac{K}{a \sin \alpha}; \quad v_1 = \frac{k_1}{a_1 \sin \gamma_1}; \quad v_2 = \frac{k_2}{a_2 \sin \gamma_2}.$$

Angles of curvature and section must be gradual, and the general form, so that eddies and whirls shall not be formed. For the same wheel must be run with the correct velocity to secure the best practice the buckets are made of two or three arcs of circles, tangential.

As to ω .—So far as analysis indicates, the wheel may run at any rate in order that the stream shall flow smoothly from the supply into the bucket, the velocity V should be properly regulated.

$\mu_2 = 0.10$, $r_2 + r_1 = 1.40$, $\alpha = 25^\circ$, $\gamma_1 = 90^\circ$, $\gamma_2 = 12^\circ$, the velocity of the rim for outward flow will be for maximum efficiency 0.614 of the velocity to the head, or $\omega r_1 = 0.614 \sqrt{2gH}$.

Efficiency due to the head would be $\sqrt{2gH} = 1.414 \sqrt{gH}$.

Inflow wheel for the case in which $r_1^2 = 2r_2^2$, and the other dimensions above, $\omega r_1 = 0.682 \sqrt{2gH}$.

The efficiency of the Tremont turbine, found experimentally, was 0.6245 of that due to the head, and the efficiency was less.

Tremont wheel $\alpha = 20^\circ$ instead of 25° , and $\gamma_2 = 10^\circ$ instead of 12° . It made the theoretical efficiency and velocity of the wheel somewhat smaller. Experiment showed that the velocity might be considerably smaller than this amount without much diminution of the efficiency. It found that if the velocity of the initial (or interior) rim was not less than 75% of that due to the fall, the efficiency was 75% or less. The wheel was allowed to run freely without any brake except its friction, and the velocity of the initial rim was observed to be $1/2$ half of which is $0.6675 \sqrt{2gH}$, which is not far from the velocity maximum effect; that is to say, when the gate is fully raised the coefficient is a maximum when the wheel is moving with about half its velocity.

Form of Buckets.—Successful wheels have been made in which the distance between the buckets was as small as 0.75 of an inch, and others as 1.75 inches. Turbines at the Centennial Exposition had buckets $1/2$ inches to 3 inches from centre to centre. If too large they will not open properly. Neither should they be too deep. Horizontal sections are introduced. These secure more efficient work when only partly opened. The form and number of buckets are chiefly the result of experience.

Ratio of Radii.—Theory does not limit the dimensions of the wheel in practice,

for outward flow, $r_2 + r_1$ is from 1.35 to 1.50;
for inward flow, $r_2 + r_1$ is from 0.66 to 0.80.

It appears that the inflow-wheel has a higher efficiency than the outward-flow wheel. The inflow-wheel also runs somewhat slower for best effect. The centrifugal force in the outward-flow wheel tends to force the water outward faster than it would otherwise flow; while in the inward flow wheel it has the contrary effect, acting as it does in opposition to the velocity of the buckets.

It also appears that the efficiency of the outward-flow wheel increases slightly as the width of the crown is less and the velocity for maximum efficiency is slower; while for the inflow-wheel the efficiency slightly increases for increased width of crown, and the velocity of the outer rim at the same time also increases.

Efficiency.—The exact value of the efficiency for a particular wheel must be found by experiment.

It seems hardly possible for the effective efficiency to equal much less than 80%, and all claims of 90 or more per cent for these motors should be discarded as improbable. A turbine yielding from 75% to 80% is extremely good. Experiments with higher efficiencies have been reported.

The celebrated Tremont turbine gave 79.4% without the "diffuser," which might have added some 2%. A Jonval turbine (parallel flow) was reported as yielding 0.75 to 0.90, but Morin suggested corrections reducing it to 0.60 to 0.71. Weisbach gives the results of many experiments, in which the efficiency ranged from 56% to 84%. Numerous experiments give $E = 0.60$ to 0.65. The efficiency, considering only the energy imparted to the wheel, which is reduced by several per cent the efficiency of the wheel, for the latter will include the friction of the support and leakage at the joint between the disc and wheel, which are not included in the former; also as a plant the real losses and losses in the supply chamber are to be still further deducted.

The Crowns.—The crowns may be plane, annular disks, or conical or curved. If the partitions forming the buckets be so thin that they may be discarded, the law of radial flow will be determined by the form of the crowns. If the crowns be plane, the radial flow (or radial component) will diminish, for the outward flow-wheel, as the distance from the axis increases—the buckets being full—for the angular space will be greater.

Prof. Wood deduces from the formulae in his paper the tables on page 595. It appears from these tables: 1. That the terminal angle, α , has frequently been made too large in practice for the best efficiency.

2. That the terminal angle, α , of the guide should be for the inflow less than 10° for the wheels here considered, but when the initial angle of the bucket is 90° , and the terminal angle of the guide is 5° to 28° , the gain of efficiency is not 2% greater than when the latter is 25° .

3. That the initial angle of the bucket should exceed 90° for best effect for outflow wheels.

4. That with the initial angle between 60° and 130° for best effect on inflow wheels the efficiency varies scarcely 1%.

5. In the outflow-wheel, column (9) shows that for the outflow for best effect the direction of the quitting water in reference to the earth should be nearly radial (from 76° to 97°), but for the inflow wheel the water is thrown forward in quitting. This shows that the velocity of the rim should somewhat exceed the relative final velocity backward in the bucket, as shown in columns (4) and (5).

6. In these tables the velocities given are in terms of $\sqrt{2gh}$, and the coefficients of this expression will be the part of the head which would produce that velocity if the water issued freely. There is only one case, column (1), where the coefficient exceeds unity, and the excess is so small it may be discarded; and it may be said that in a properly proportioned turbine with the conditions here given none of the velocities will equal that due to the head in the supply-chamber when running at best effect.

7. The inflow turbine presents the best conditions for construction for producing a given effect, the only apparent disadvantage being an increased first cost due to an increased depth, or an increased diameter for producing a given amount of work. The larger efficiency should, however, more than neutralize the increased first cost.

$$k_1 v_1 = k_2 v_2 = k_3 v_3 = KV = Q = 1.$$

Parallel Crowns.

$$\gamma_2 = 12^\circ$$

$$\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0.10$$

Initial Angle, γ_1	Efficiency, E	Velocity Outer Rim, v_{2a}'	Velocity Inner Rim, $v_{1a}' = \frac{1}{2} v_{2a}'$	Relative Velocity of Exit, v_2	Relative Velocity of Entrance, v_1	Velocity of Exit from supply Chamber, V	Terminal Angle of Guide, α	Direction of turning Water, θ	Head Equivalent in Quitting Water, $\frac{v_2^2}{2g}$	$k_3 \sqrt{gH}$
1	"	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
60°	0.804	0.972 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.687 $\sqrt{2gH}$	1.048 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.856 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.505 $\sqrt{2gH}$	31° 17'	76°	0.051H	0.07
90°	0.828	0.874 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.619 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.931 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.274 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.670 $\sqrt{2gH}$	23° 53'	79°	0.040H	0.73
120°	0.839	0.798 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.565 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.843 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.280 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.749 $\sqrt{2gH}$	19° 5'	82°	0.031H	0.84
150°	0.921	0.700 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.501 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.707 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.416 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.886 $\sqrt{2gH}$	13° 31'	97°	0.025H	1.00

Inward-flow Turbine.

$$k_1 v_1 = k_2 v_2 = k_3 v_3 = KV = Q = 1.$$

Parallel Crowns.

$$\gamma_2 = 12^\circ$$

$$\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0.10$$

γ_1	E	Velocity Outer Rim, v_{1a}'	Velocity Inner Rim, $v_{2a}' = \frac{1}{2} v_{1a}'$	v_2	v_1	V	α	θ	$\frac{v_2^2}{2g}$	$k_3 \sqrt{gH}$
60°	0.920	0.709 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.501 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.476 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.089 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.872 $\sqrt{2gH}$	7° 0'	110°	0.010H	1.48
90°	0.930	0.688 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.487 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.470 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.069 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.681 $\sqrt{2gH}$	5° 28'	108°	0.010H	1.50
120°	0.919	0.668 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.473 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.456 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.077 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.709 $\sqrt{2gH}$	4° 48'	105°	0.010H	1.53
150°	0.916	0.694 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.448 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.429 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.156 $\sqrt{2gH}$	0.743 $\sqrt{2gH}$	3° 08'	107°	0.009H	1.65

1876. (From a paper by R. H. Thurston on The System of Turbine Wheels in the United States Trans. A. S. M. E., 1876, p. 10.) The judges at the International Exhibition conducted a series of tests on the turbines. Many of the wheels offered for tests were found to be less defective in fitting and workmanship. The following are the results of all turbines entered which gave an efficient result. Seven other wheels were tested, giving results between 65% and 75%.

Maker's Name, or Name the Wheel is Known By.	Per Cent at Full Gate or Discharge.	Per Cent at about 9/10 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 3/4 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 1/2 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 1/4 of Full Discharge.
	Per Cent at Full Gate or Discharge.	Per Cent at about 9/10 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 3/4 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 1/2 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 1/4 of Full Discharge.
Ruston	87.08	...	86.30	82.11	...
National	83.79	70.79	...
Geyelin (single)	83.30
Thos. Tait	82.13	70.40	...
Goldie & McNeillough	81.31	...	71.01	55.00	...
Rodney Hunt Mach. Co.	78.70	71.60	...	68.00	...
Tyler Wheel	70.89	...	87.24	79.32	...
Geyelin (duplex)	77.57
Knowlton & Dolan	77.43	74.25
E. T. Cope & Sons	76.94	...	69.92
Barber & Harris	76.10	73.33
York Manufacturing Co.	75.70	...	67.08	67.87	...
W. F. Mosser & Co.	75.15	74.89	71.90	70.52	...

The limits of error of the tests, says Prof. Thurston, were they are undoubtedly considerable as compared with the best permanent flume at Holyoke—possibly as much as 4% or 5%. Experiments with "draught-tubes," or "suction-tubes," actually "diffusers" in their effect, so far as Prof. Thurston is concerned, indicate the loss by friction which should be anticipated. This loss decreases as the tube increases in size, and

the maximum tightness and transmitting power. A "quarter about 1% as a maximum, and a "quarter twist" about 5%.

ns of Turbines.—For dimensions, power, etc., of stand-turbines consult the catalogues of different manufacturers. Different makers vary greatly in their proportions for any

n Water-wheel.—Mr. Ross E. Browne (*Eng'g News*, Feb.) outlines the principles upon which this water-wheel is

of a water-wheel, operated by a jet of water escaping from convert the energy of the jet, due to its velocity, into useful to utilize this energy fully the wheel-bucket, after catching ring it to rest before discharging it, without inducing turbu- tion of the particles.

be fully effected, and unavoidable difficulties necessitate the ion of the energy. The principal losses occur as follows: For angular diversion of the jet in entering, or in its course bucket, causing impact, or the conversion of a portion of the at instead of useful work. Second, in the so-called frictional end to the motion of the water by the wetted surfaces of the ed also the conversion of a portion of the energy into heat ful work. Third, in the velocity of the water, as it leaves the enting energy which has not been converted into work.

aking a high efficiency; 1. The bucket surface at the entrance proximately parallel to the relative course of the jet, and could be curved in such o avoid sharp angular de- stream. If, for example, a surface at an angle and ured, a portion of the d, the smoothness of the urbed, and there results oss by impact and other- lance and deflection in ket are such as to avoid (the main. (See Fig. 136.)



FIG. 134.



FIG. 135.

er of buckets should be small, and the path of the jet in the in other words, the total wetted surface should be small, as tion will be proportional to this.

arge end of the bucket should be as nearly tangential to the ary as compatible with the clearance of the bucket which eat differences of velocity in the parts of the escaping water led. In order to bring the water to rest at the discharge end it is shown, mathematically, that the velocity of the bucket half the velocity of the jet.

ch as shown in Fig. 135, will cause the heaping of more or less dead or turbulent water at the point indicated by dark shading. This dead water is subsequently thrown from the wheel with considerable velocity, and represents a large loss of energy. The introduction of the wedge in the Pelton bucket (see Fig. 134) is an efficient means of avoiding this loss.

A wheel of the form of the Pelton conforms closely in construction to each of these requirements.

In a test made by the proprietors of the Idaho mine, near Grass Valley, Cal., the dimensions and results were as follows: Main supply-pipe, 22 in. diameter, 8000 ft. head of 856½ feet above centre of nozzle. The loss by friction was 1.8 ft., reducing the effective head to 384.7 ft. The Pelton bucket was 6 ft. in diameter and the nozzle was 1.80 in. in work done was measured by a Prony brake, and the mean head a useful effort of 87 3/4.

Wheel is also used as a motor for small powers. A test by a 12-inch wheel, with a ¾-inch nozzle, under 100 lbs. pressure, power. The theoretical discharge was .0035 cu. ft. per second, or theoretical horse-power 2.45; the efficiency was 75 per cent. or styles of water-motor tested at the same 4 per cent.

Pelton Water-wheel Tables. (Abridged.)

The smaller figures under those denoting the various heads, denoting velocity of the water in feet per minute. The cubic-foot element is also based on the flow per minute.

Head in ft.	Size of Wheels.	6 in. No. 1	12 in. No. 2	18 in. No. 3	18 in. No. 4	24 in. No. 5	3 ft.	4 ft.	5 ft.
20	Horse-power, .05	.12	.20	.37	.60	1.50	2.64	4.17	
	Cubic feet, . . .	1.67	3.01	6.02	11.72	20.89	46.93	83.32	120.7
2151.97	Revolutions, . .	684	342	223	228	171	114	85	7
30	Horse-power, .10	.23	.38	.60	1.22	2.76	4.89	7.6	
	Cubic feet, . . .	2.05	4.79	8.11	14.36	25.51	57.44	102.04	153.6
9635.62	Revolutions, . .	837	418	279	279	200	130	104	5
40	Horse-power, .15	.35	.59	1.00	1.80	4.24	7.68	11.6	
	Cubic feet, . . .	2.37	5.53	9.37	16.59	29.40	66.36	107.84	164.3
3049.30	Revolutions, . .	969	484	323	323	242	161	123	6
50	Horse-power, .21	.49	.84	1.49	2.65	6.08	10.60	16.0	
	Cubic feet, . . .	2.64	6.18	10.47	18.54	32.93	74.17	131.72	200.2
3102.61	Revolutions, . .	1083	541	361	361	270	180	135	7
60	Horse-power, .28	.65	1.10	1.90	3.48	7.84	13.94	21.7	
	Cubic feet, . . .	2.90	6.77	11.47	20.31	36.08	81.25	141.32	225.9
3227.37	Revolutions, . .	1185	592	395	395	296	197	148	8
70	Horse-power, .35	.82	1.39	2.47	4.39	9.88	17.58	27.3	
	Cubic feet, . . .	3.13	7.31	12.39	21.94	38.97	87.76	155.88	243.6
4026.00	Revolutions, . .	1281	640	427	427	320	213	160	9
80	Horse-power, .43	1.00	1.70	3.01	5.36	12.04	21.44	33.5	
	Cubic feet, . . .	3.35	7.82	13.25	23.46	41.66	93.84	166.64	260.7
4303.02	Revolutions, . .	1368	684	450	456	342	225	171	10
90	Horse-power, .51	1.30	2.03	3.60	6.30	14.40	25.59	40.0	
	Cubic feet, . . .	3.55	8.29	14.06	24.88	44.10	99.52	176.75	279.9
4565.04	Revolutions, . .	1452	726	484	484	363	242	181	11
100	Horse-power, .60	1.40	2.32	4.21	7.40	16.84	29.98	46.8	
	Cubic feet, . . .	3.74	8.74	14.61	26.32	46.59	104.88	189.35	291.1
4812.00	Revolutions, . .	1590	795	510	510	382	255	191	12
120	Horse-power, .79	1.81	3.13	5.54	9.85	22.18	39.41	61.6	
	Cubic feet, . . .	4.10	9.57	16.21	28.72	51.02	114.91	204.10	310.1
5271.80	Revolutions, . .	1677	838	559	559	419	279	209	13
140	Horse-power, .99	2.33	3.94	6.99	12.41	27.06	49.64	77.7	
	Cubic feet, . . .	4.43	10.31	17.53	31.03	55.11	124.12	231.44	344.7
5693.65	Revolutions, . .	1812	906	604	604	453	302	222	14
160	Horse-power, 1.22	2.84	4.83	8.64	15.17	34.16	60.60	94.4	
	Cubic feet, . . .	4.73	11.05	18.74	33.17	58.92	132.68	245.69	368.7
6085.74	Revolutions, . .	1988	989	646	646	484	323	243	15
180	Horse-power, 1.45	3.39	5.75	10.19	18.10	40.77	72.41	119.3	
	Cubic feet, . . .	5.02	11.72	19.87	35.18	62.49	140.74	269.27	401.2
6455.97	Revolutions, . .	2049	1021	683	683	518	342	266	16
200	Horse-power, 1.70	3.97	6.74	11.93	21.30	47.75	84.81	132.7	
	Cubic feet, . . .	5.20	12.36	20.94	37.08	65.67	148.42	283.40	432.2
6895.17	Revolutions, . .	2160	1080	720	720	540	360	270	17
220	Horse-power, 2.38	5.56	9.49	16.98	29.89	66.74	118.54	185.6	
	Cubic feet, . . .	5.92	13.82	23.43	41.46	73.64	165.86	304.79	459.5
24	Revolutions, . .	2219	1109	740	740	566	383	283	18

Pelton Water-wheel Tables.—Continued.

Size of Wheels.	6 in. No. 1	12 in. No. 2	18 in. No. 3	18 in. No. 4	24 in. No. 5	3 ft.	4 ft.	5 ft.	6 ft.
Horse-power	3.13	7.31	12.38	21.03	38.95	67.73	155.83	243.82	350.94
Cubic feet...	6.48	15.13	25.66	45.42	80.67	131.69	322.71	504.91	726.76
Revolutions	3632	1396	894	884	663	442	331	265	221
Horse-power	3.94	9.21	15.61	27.64	49.09	110.50	196.38	307.25	442.27
Cubic feet...	7.00	16.35	27.71	49.00	87.14	198.25	348.57	545.36	785.00
Revolutions	2835	1432	955	955	716	477	358	285	238
Horse-power	4.82	11.25	19.0	33.77	59.98	135.08	239.94	375.40	540.85
Cubic feet...	7.49	17.48	29.63	52.45	93.10	200.80	372.64	583.02	839.20
Revolutions	3063	1531	1021	1021	765	510	382	306	255
Horse-power	5.75	13.43	22.76	40.29	71.57	161.19	289.31	447.95	644.78
Cubic feet...	7.94	18.54	31.42	55.63	98.81	222.52	395.24	618.38	890.11
Revolutions	3219	1624	1083	1083	812	541	406	324	270
Horse-power	6.74	15.73	26.66	47.30	83.69	188.80	335.34	524.66	755.30
Cubic feet...	8.37	19.54	33.12	58.64	104.15	234.56	416.82	631.88	938.25
Revolutions	3420	1713	1142	1142	856	571	428	342	285
Horse-power	62.04	110.19	248.16	440.77	689.63	992.65
Cubic feet...	64.24	114.00	256.95	456.88	714.05	1047.80
Revolutions	1251	938	625	469	375	311
Horse-power	69.95	124.25	279.82	497.01	777.62	1119.29
Cubic feet...	66.86	118.75	267.44	475.02	743.21	1099.77
Revolutions	1302	976	651	488	390	325
Horse-power	78.18	138.86	312.73	555.46	869.00	1250.92
Cubic feet...	69.38	123.23	277.54	492.85	771.26	1110.16
Revolutions	1351	1013	675	506	405	337
Horse-power	86.70	154.00	346.83	615.03	963.82	1387.34
Cubic feet...	71.82	127.56	287.28	510.25	798.93	1149.13
Revolutions	1399	1049	699	524	419	349
Horse-power	95.52	169.66	382.09	678.66	1061.81	1538.36
Cubic feet...	74.17	131.74	296.70	526.09	824.51	1180.81
Revolutions	1444	1083	732	542	433	361
Horse-power	113.38	202.45	455.94	809.82	1267.02	1823.76
Cubic feet...	78.67	139.74	314.70	558.96	874.53	1258.81
Revolutions	1532	1140	766	574	459	383
Horse-power	133.50	237.12	534.01	948.48	1489.57	2136.04
Cubic feet...	82.93	147.30	331.72	589.19	921.83	1326.91
Revolutions	1615	1210	807	605	444	403

THE POWER OF OCEAN WAVES.

Prof. W. Stahl, U. S. N. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 438), gives the following table, based upon a theoretical discussion of wave motion:

The total energy of one whole wave-length of a wave H feet high, L feet long, and one foot in breadth, the length being the distance between successive crests, and the height the vertical distance between the crest and the trough, is $E = 8LEH^2 \left(1 - 4.935 \frac{H^2}{L^2}\right)$ foot-pounds.

The time required for each wave to travel through a distance equal to its length is $P = \sqrt{\frac{L}{g.163}}$ seconds, and the number of waves passing a point in a given time is $N = \frac{t}{P}$.

given point in one minute is $N = \frac{60}{P} = 60 \sqrt{\frac{5.125}{L}}$. Hence the work of an indefinite series of such waves, expressed in horse-power per breadth, is

$$\frac{E \times N}{33000} = .0329/H^3 L \left(1 - 4.935 \frac{H^2}{L^2}\right).$$

By substituting various values for $H + L$, within the limits of such as actually occurring in nature, we obtain the following table of

TOTAL ENERGY OF DEEP-SEA WAVES IN TERMS OF HORSE-POWER PER BREADTH OF BREADTH.

Ratio of Length of Waves to Height of Waves.	Length of Waves in Feet.						
	25	50	75	100	150	200	300
50	.04	.23	.64	1.31	3.02	7.43	20.46
40	.06	.36	1.00	2.05	5.65	11.59	31.56
30	.12	.61	1.77	3.64	10.02	20.57	56.70
20	.25	1.44	3.00	6.18	21.79	45.98	137.70
15	.42	2.83	6.97	14.31	39.43	80.94	221.93
10	.98	5.53	15.24	31.29	86.22	177.60	487.75
5	3.30	18.68	51.48	105.68	291.30	597.78	1617.10

The figures are correct for trochoidal deep-sea waves only, but they give a close approximation for any nearly regular series of waves in deep water and a fair approximation for waves in shallow water.

The question of the practical utilization of the energy which causes ocean waves divides itself into several parts:

1. The various motions of the water which may be utilized for power purposes.

2. The wave motor proper. That is, the portion of the apparatus in contact with the water, and receiving and transmitting the energy thereof, together with the mechanism for transmitting this energy to the motor for utilizing the same.

3. Regulating devices, for obtaining a uniform motion from the irregular and more or less spasmodic action of the waves, as well as for adjusting the apparatus to the state of the tide and condition of the sea.

4. Storage arrangements for insuring a continuous and uniform output of power during a calm, or when the waves are comparatively small.

The motions that may be utilized for power purposes are the following: 1. Vertical rise and fall of particles at and near the surface. 2. Horizontal and fire motion of particles at and near the surface. 3. Varying the surface of wave. 4. Impetus of waves rolling up the beach in the form of breakers. 5. Motion of distorted verticals. All of these motions, except the last one mentioned, have at various times been proposed to be utilized for power purposes; and the last is proposed to be used in apparatus described by Mr. Stahl.

The motion of distorted verticals is thus defined: A set of particles is uniformly in the same vertical straight line when the water is at rest, and remains in a vertical line during the passage of the waves; as the waves pass, the connecting a set of such particles, while vertical and straight, then becomes distorted, as well as displaced, during the passage of the wave, the upper portion moving farther and more rapidly than its lower portion.

Mr. Stahl's paper contains illustrations of several wave motors based upon various principles. His conclusions as to their practicality are as follows: "Possibly none of the methods described in this paper may ever be commercially successful; indeed the problem may not be susceptible of financially successful solution. My own investigations, however, have not yet been able to carry them, incline me to the belief that waves can and will be utilized on a paying basis."

Continuous Utilization of Tidal Power. (P. Dumas.)
C. E. 1880. 1-12. The author proposes to use the trailing walls to be constructed

ary of the Seine, it is proposed to construct large basins, by means of the power available from the rise and fall of the tide could be utilized. The method proposed is to have two basins separated by a bank rising high water, within which turbines would be placed. The upper basin is in communication with the sea during the higher one third of the range, rising, and the lower basin during the lower one third of the range, falling. If H be the range in feet, the level in the upper would never fall below $\frac{2}{3}H$ measured from low water, and the lower basin would never rise above $\frac{1}{3}H$. The available head between $0.53H$ and $0.80H$, the mean value being $\frac{2}{3}H$. If S square feet area of the lower basin, and the above conditions are fulfilled, a $\frac{2}{3}H$ $1.35H$ cu. ft. of water is delivered through the turbines in the space of hours. The mean flow is, therefore, $SH + 99,000$ cu. ft. per sec., and, on fall being $\frac{2}{3}H$, the available gross horse-power is about $1.30S \frac{H^2}{12}$. H is measured in acres. This might be increased by about one third station of level in the basins amounting to $\frac{1}{4}H$ were permitted. But on this end the number of turbines would have to be doubled, the head being reduced to $\frac{1}{4}H$, and it would be more difficult to transmit power from the turbines. The turbine proposed is of an improved design to utilize a large flow with a moderate diameter. One has designed to produce 300 horse-power, with a minimum head of 5 ft. 3 in. at a speed of 15 revolutions per minute, the vanes having 13 ft. internal radius. The speed would be maintained constant by regulating sluices.

PUMPS AND PUMPING ENGINES.

Theoretical Capacity of a Pump.—Let Q' = cu. ft. per min.; l = in.; N = number of single strokes per min.

$$\text{Capacity in cu. ft. per min.} = Q' = \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \frac{d^2}{144} \cdot \frac{1N}{12} = .000545Nd^2l;$$

$$\text{Capacity in gals. per min.} G' = \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \frac{Nd^2l}{231} = .004Nd^2l;$$

$$\text{Capacity in gals. per hour} = .204Nd^2l.$$

$$\text{Diameter required for a } \frac{1}{2} \text{ } \left\{ d = 46.9 \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{Nl}} = 17.15 \sqrt{\frac{G'}{Nl}} \right.$$

$$\text{piston speed in feet per min., } d = 13.54 \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{v}} = 4.92 \sqrt{\frac{G'}{v}}.$$

The piston speed is 100 feet per min.:

$$Nl = 1200, \text{ and } d = 1.354 \sqrt{Q'} = .405 \sqrt{G'}; G' = 4.08d^2 \text{ per min.}$$

Actual capacity will be from 60% to 95% of the theoretical, according to tightness of the piston, valves, suction-pipe, etc.

Theoretical Horse-power required to raise Water to a given Height.—Horse-power =

$$\frac{\text{cu. ft. per min.} \times \text{pressure per sq. ft.}}{33,000} = \frac{\text{Weight} \times \text{height of lift}}{83,000}$$

Q' = cu. ft. per min.; G' = gals. per min.; W = wt. in lbs.; P = pressure per sq. ft.; p = pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; H = height of lift in ft.; $33,000P$, $P = 144p$, $p = .433H$, $H = 2.309p$, $G' = 7.4805Q'$.

$$HP = \frac{Q'P}{33,000} = \frac{Q'H \cdot 144 \cdot .433}{33,000} = \frac{Q'H}{520.2} = \frac{G'H}{2958.7};$$

$$HP = \frac{WH}{33,000} = \frac{Q' \times 62.36 \times 2.309p}{33,000} = \frac{Q'p}{220.2} = \frac{G'p}{1714.5}.$$

The actual horse-power required an allowance must be made for the friction of the pump, valves, and passages.

Depth of Suction.—Theoretically a perfect pump will draw from a height of nearly 34 feet, or the height corresponding to the vacuum (14.7 lbs. \times 2.309 = 33.95 feet); but since a perfect vacuum is obtained, on account of valve-leakage, air contained in the water, or vapor of the water itself, the actual height is generally less than this. When the water is warm the height to which it can be lifted increases, on account of the increased pressure of the vapor. In pumping water, therefore, the water must flow into the pump by gravity. The following table shows the theoretical maximum depth of suction for various temperatures, leakage not considered:

Temp. F.	Absolute Pressure of Vapor, lbs. per sq. in.	Vacuum in Inches of Mercury.	Max. Depth of Suction, feet.	Temp. F.	Absolute Pressure of Vapor, lbs. per sq. in.	Vacuum in Inches of Mercury.
101.4	1	27.89	31.6	183.0	8	13.62
126.2	2	25.85	29.3	188.4	9	11.59
141.7	3	23.81	27.0	193.2	10	9.55
153.3	4	21.77	24.7	197.6	11	7.51
162.5	5	19.74	22.4	201.9	12	5.48
170.3	6	17.70	20.1	206.3	13	3.44
177.0	7	15.66	17.8	209.6	14	1.40

Amount of Water raised by a Single-acting Lift

It is common to estimate that the quantity of water raised by a single-acting bucket-valve pump per minute is equal to the number of strokes in one direction per minute, multiplied by the volume traversed by the piston in a single stroke, on the theory that the water rises in the cylinder only when the piston or bucket ascends; but the fact is that the water does not cease flowing when the bucket descends, but flows continuously through the valve in the bucket, so that the discharge pump, if it is operated at a high speed, may amount to nearly double the quantity calculated from the displacement multiplied by the number of single strokes in one direction.

Proportioning the Steam-cylinder of a Direct-acting Pump.—Let

A = area of steam-cylinder; a = area of pump-cylinder;
 D = diameter of steam-cylinder; d = diameter of pump-cylinder;
 P = steam-pressure, lbs. per sq. in.; p = resistance per sq. in. on the pump;
 H = head = 2.309 p ;
 $p = .433 H$;

E = efficiency of the pump = $\frac{\text{work done in pump-cylinder}}{\text{work done by the steam-cylinder}}$

$$A = \frac{ap}{EP}; \quad a = \frac{EAP}{p}; \quad D = d \sqrt{\frac{P}{EP}}; \quad d = D \sqrt{\frac{EP}{P}}; \quad P = \frac{ap}{EA};$$

$$\frac{A}{a} = \frac{p}{EP} = \frac{.433H}{EP}; \quad H = 2.309EP \frac{A}{a}; \quad \text{If } E = 75\%, H = 1.734EP \frac{A}{a}$$

E is commonly taken at 0.7 to 0.8 for ordinary direct-acting pumps, the highest class of pumping-engines it may amount to 0.9. The pressure P is the mean effective pressure, according to the indicator; the water-pressure p is the mean total pressure acting on the plunger or piston, including the suction, as could be shown by an indicator on the water-cylinder. The pressure on the pump-piston is frequently much greater than that due to the height of the lift, on account of the friction of the valves and passages, which increases rapidly with the flow.

Speed of Water through Pipes and Pump-passages

The speed of the water is commonly from 100 to 300 feet per minute. If the feet per minute is exceeded, the loss from friction may be considerable.

The diameter of pipe required is 4.95 $\sqrt{\frac{\text{gallons per minute}}{\text{velocity in feet per minute}}}$

or

per minute, diameter = 3.5 $\sqrt{\frac{\text{gallons per minute}}{\text{velocity in feet per minute}}}$

of Direct-acting Pumps.—The two following tables are selected from catalogues of manufacturers, as representing the two common types of direct-acting pump, viz., the single-cylinder and the duplex. These types are now made by most of the leading manufacturers.

The Deane Direct-acting Pump.

STANDARD SIZES FOR ORDINARY SERVICE.

Diameter of Cylinder in in.	Length of Stroke in in.	Gallons per Stroke.	Strokes per Minute.	Capacity per Minute at Given Speed.		Extreme Length in Inches.	Extreme Width in Inches.	Size of Steam Sup- ply-pipe.	Size of Steam Ex- haust-pipe.	Size of Suction.	Size of Discharge.
				Stks.	Gals.						
5	.14	1 to	300	130	18	33	9 1/2	1	3/4	2	1 1/2
5	.27	1 to	300	130	35	33	9 1/2	1	3/4	2	1 1/2
5	.51	1 to	300	125	49	45 1/2	15	1	1	3	3 1/2
5	.51	1 to	275	125	64	45 1/2	15	1	1	3	3 1/2
5	.72	1 to	275	125	90	46 1/2	15	1	1	3	3 1/2
10	1.84	1 to	250	110	180	58	17	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
10	1.91	1 to	250	110	210	58	17	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
10	2.17	1 to	250	110	239	58	17	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	1.47	1 to	250	100	147	67	20 1/2	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	2.00	1 to	250	100	200	67	20 1/2	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	2.61	1 to	250	100	261	68	30	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	4.08	1 to	250	100	408	68	30	1	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	2.61	1 to	250	100	261	68 1/2	30	1 1/2	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	4.08	1 to	250	100	408	68 1/2	30	1 1/2	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	5.87	1 to	250	100	587	68 1/2	30	1 1/2	1 1/2	4	4 1/2
12	4.08	1 to	250	100	408	64	24	2	2	6	6
12	6.12	1 to	200	70	428	64 1/2	30	2	2	6	6
12	5.87	1 to	250	100	587	64	24 1/2	2	2	6	6
12	8.80	1 to	175	70	616	88	24 1/2	2	2	6	6
12	12.00	1 to	175	70	840	88	24 1/2	2	2	6	6
12	4.08	1 to	250	100	408	69	30	2	2	6	6
12	6.12	1 to	175	70	428	93	25	2	2	6	6
12	8.10	1 to	150	50	408	112	26	2	2	6	6
12	5.87	1 to	250	100	587	88	30	2	2	6	6
12	8.80	1 to	175	70	616	86	24 1/2	2	2	6	6
24	11.75	1 to	150	50	587	112	26	2	2	10	8
24	15.99	1 to	150	50	800	112	34	2	2	12	10
24	13.92	1 to	175	80	1114	84	34	2	2	12	10
24	20.84	1 to	150	50	1044	112	38	2	2	12	10
24	12.00	1 to	175	70	840	89	27	2	2	8	8
24	15.99	1 to	150	50	800	109	34	2	2	12	10
24	13.92	1 to	175	80	1114	85	34	2	2	12	10
24	20.88	1 to	150	50	1044	115	34	2	2	12	10
24	26.43	1 to	125	50	1322	115	40	2	2	14	12
24	20.84	1 to	125	50	1044	118	38	3	3	12	10
24	26.43	1 to	125	50	1322	118	40	3	3	14	12
24	32.64	1 to	125	50	1632	118	40	3	3	16	14
24	26.43	1 to	125	50	1322	118	40	3	3	14	12
24	32.64	1 to	125	50	1632	118	40	3	3	16	14
24	39.50	1 to	125	50	1975	130	40	3	3	18	14

Efficiency of Small Direct-acting Pumps.—Chas. E. Emery, in his report as one of the Judges of Philadelphia Exhibition, 1876, Group xx., says: "Experiments made with steam-pumps at the American Institute Exhibition of 1876 showed that average sized steam-pumps do not, on the average, utilize more than 50 per cent of the indicated power in the steam-cylinders, the remainder being absorbed in the friction of the engine, but more particularly in the resistance of the water through the pump. Again, all ordinary pumps for miscellaneous uses require that the steam-cylinder be four times the area of the water-cylinder to give suffi-

when the steam is accidentally low; hence as such pumps work against the atmospheric pressure, the net or effective pressure is a small percentage of the total pressure, which, with the large radiating surface exposed and the total absence of expansion, the expenditure of steam very large. One pump tested required 1 lb. weight of steam per indicated horse-power per hour, and it is believed the cost will rarely fall below 60 pounds; and as only 50 per cent. of indicated power is utilized, it may be safely stated that ordinary steam pumps rarely require less than 120 pounds of steam per hour for each horse-power utilized in raising water, equivalent to a duty of only 15,000,000 foot per 100 pounds of coal. With larger steam-pumps, particularly when they are proportioned for the work to be done, the duty will be materially increased."

The Worthington Duplex Pump.

STANDARD SIZES FOR ORDINARY SERVICE.

Diameter of Steam-cylinders.	Diameter of Water-plungers.	Length of Stroke.	Displacement in Gallons per Stroke of One Plunger.	Proper Strokes per Minute of One Plunger, varying with kind of work and pressure.	Gallons delivered per Minute by both Plungers at stated Number of Strokes.	Diameter of Plunger required in any single-cylinder pump to do the same work at same speed.	Sizes of Pipes Short Lengths To be increased length for long runs.		
							Steam-pipe.	Exhaust pipe.	Suction pipe.
3	2	3	.04	100 to 250	8 to 80	2 1/2	1 1/2	1 1/2	1 1/2
4	3	4	.10	100 to 300	20 to 40	3 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2
5	4	5	.20	100 to 300	40 to 80	5	3 1/2	3 1/2	3 1/2
6	4 1/2	6	.33	100 to 150	70 to 100	5 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2
7	5	7	.42	100 to 150	85 to 125	6 1/2	5 1/2	5 1/2	5 1/2
8	5 1/2	8	.51	100 to 150	100 to 150	7 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2
9	6	10	.63	75 to 125	100 to 170	8 1/2	7 1/2	7 1/2	7 1/2
10	6 1/2	10	.83	75 to 125	135 to 230	9 1/2	8 1/2	8 1/2	8 1/2
10	7	10	1.00	75 to 125	180 to 300	11 1/2	9 1/2	9 1/2	9 1/2
12	7 1/2	10	1.60	75 to 125	245 to 410	13 1/2	11 1/2	11 1/2	11 1/2
14	8	10	2.45	75 to 125	305 to 610	15 1/2	13 1/2	13 1/2	13 1/2
16	8 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	305 to 610	16 1/2	14 1/2	14 1/2	14 1/2
18	9	10	2.45	75 to 125	305 to 610	17 1/2	15 1/2	15 1/2	15 1/2
20	9 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	305 to 610	18 1/2	16 1/2	16 1/2	16 1/2
22	10	10	3.57	75 to 125	580 to 800	20 1/2	18 1/2	18 1/2	18 1/2
24	10 1/2	10	3.57	75 to 125	580 to 800	21 1/2	19 1/2	19 1/2	19 1/2
26	11	10	3.57	75 to 125	580 to 800	22 1/2	20 1/2	20 1/2	20 1/2
28	11 1/2	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	24 1/2	22 1/2	22 1/2	22 1/2
30	12	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	25 1/2	23 1/2	23 1/2	23 1/2
32	12 1/2	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	26 1/2	24 1/2	24 1/2	24 1/2
34	13	10	6.00	75 to 125	990 to 1660	28 1/2	26 1/2	26 1/2	26 1/2
36	13 1/2	10	6.00	75 to 125	990 to 1660	29 1/2	27 1/2	27 1/2	27 1/2
38	14	10	6.00	75 to 125	990 to 1660	30 1/2	28 1/2	28 1/2	28 1/2
40	14 1/2	10	6.00	75 to 125	990 to 1660	31 1/2	29 1/2	29 1/2	29 1/2
42	15	15	11.47	50 to 100	1145 to 2290	32 1/2	30 1/2	30 1/2	30 1/2
44	15 1/2	15	11.47	50 to 100	1145 to 2290	33 1/2	31 1/2	31 1/2	31 1/2
46	16	15	11.47	50 to 100	1145 to 2290	34 1/2	32 1/2	32 1/2	32 1/2

Speed of Piston.—A piston speed of 100 feet per minute is commonly used as correct in practice, but for short-stroke pumps this gives too low a speed of rotation, requiring too frequent a reversal of the valves. Long-stroke pumps, 2 feet and upward, this speed may be considerably exceeded, if valves and passages are of ample area.

Number of Strokes required to Attain a Piston Speed from 50 to 125 Feet per Minute for Pumps having Strokes from 3 to 18 Inches in Length.

		Length of Stroke in Inches.									
		3	4	5	6	7	8	10	12	15	18
		Number of Strokes per Minute.									
200	150	120	100	86	75	66	59	50	40	33	28
220	165	132	110	94	82.5	72	65	55	44	37	31
240	180	144	120	103	90	78	70	60	48	40	34
260	195	156	130	111	97.5	84	75	64	52	43	36
280	210	168	140	120	105	90	80	68	56	46	39
300	225	180	150	128	112.5	96	85	72	60	50	42
320	240	192	160	137	120	102	90	76	64	53	45
340	255	204	170	146	127.5	108	96	80	68	56	48
360	270	216	180	154	135	114	100	84	72	60	51
380	285	228	190	163	142.5	121	106	88	76	63	54
400	300	240	200	171	150	128	112	92	80	67	57
420	315	252	210	180	157.5	135	120	98	84	70	60
440	330	264	220	188	165	142	126	104	90	75	63
460	345	276	230	197	172.5	150	132	110	96	80	67
480	360	288	240	206	180	158	140	116	100	84	71
500	375	300	250	214	187.5	165	145	120	105	88	74

Piston Speed of Pumping-engines. (John Birkinbine, Trans. M. E., v. 359.)—In dealing with such a ponderous and unyielding substance as water there are many difficulties to overcome in making a pump work with a high piston speed. The attainment of moderately high speed, however, easily accomplished. Well-proportioned pumping-engines of moderate capacity, provided with ample water-ways and properly constructed valves, are operated successfully against heavy pressures at a speed of 250 ft. per minute, without "thug," concussion, or injury to the apparatus, and there is no doubt that the speed can be still further increased.

Speed of Water through Valves.—If areas through valves and passages are sufficient to give a velocity of 250 ft. per min. or less, they are ample. The water should be carefully guided and not too abruptly turned. (P. W. Dean, *Eng. News*, Aug. 10, 1893.)

Boiler-feed Pumps.—Practice has shown that 100 ft. of piston speed per minute is the limit, if excessive wear and tear is to be avoided.

The velocity of water through the suction-pipe must not exceed 200 ft. per minute, else the resistance of the suction is too great.

The approximate size of suction-pipe, where the length does not exceed 10 ft. and there are not more than two elbows, may be found as follows:

10 of the diameter of the cylinder multiplied by 1/100 of the piston speed in feet. For duplex pumps of small size, a pipe one size larger is usually required.

The velocity of flow in the discharge-pipe should not exceed 100 ft. per minute. The volume of discharge and length of pipe vary so much in different installations that where the water is to be forced more than 20 ft. the size of discharge-pipe should be calculated for the particular case.

Allowing no greater velocity than 500 ft. per minute. The size of discharge-pipe is calculated in single-cylinder pumps from 250 to 400 ft. per minute. Greater velocity is permitted in the larger pipes.

In determining the proper size of pump for a steam boiler, allowance must be made for a supply of water sufficient to cover all the demands of the boiler, steam heating, etc., up to the capacity of generator, and should not be calculated simply according to the requirements of the engine. In practice, engines use all the way from 12 up to 50, or more, pounds of steam per square foot of boiler surface when being worked up to capacity.

When an engine is very heavily loaded or underloaded more water per H.P. will be required than when running at its rated capacity. The average run of boilers is about 15 lbs. of steam per square foot of boiler surface.

boilers will evaporate from 2 to 3 lbs. of water per sq. ft. of heating-surface per hour, but may be driven up to 6 lbs. if the grate-surface is too large, the draught too great for economical working.

Pump-Valves.—A. F. Nagle (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 531) gives a number of designs with dimensions of double-beat or Cornish valves used in pumping-engines, with a discussion of the theory of their proportions. The following is a summary of the proportions of the valves described.

SUMMARY OF VALVE PROPORTIONS.

Location of Engine.	Diam. of Valve in inches.	Weight in Water per square inch of Inside Unbalanced Area, in lbs.	Ratio of Seat-area to Inside Unbalanced Area.	Pressure upon Seat per sq. in., in lbs.	Action.
Providence high-service engine	12	1 lb. reduced to .66 lb.	16%	377 lbs.	Good
Providence Cornish-engine	16	1.28	12	680	Good
St. Louis Water Wks.	16	1.86	67	250	Some noise
Milwaukee " "	7	.40	88	120	Some noise
Chicago " "	25	1.41	75	151	high noise
" " "	15	1.81	86	140	Noise
wood seats	15	1.16	94	132	"
Chicago Water Wks.	8	.68	75	151	"

Mr. Nagle says: There is one feature in which the Cornish valve is necessarily defective, namely, the lift must always be quite large, unless power is sacrificed to reduce it. It is undeniable that a small lift is preferable to a great one, and hence it naturally leads to the substitution of numerous small valves for one or several large ones. To what extent reduction of size this view might safely lead must be left to the judgment of the engineer for the particular case in hand, but certainly, theoretically, must adopt small valves. Mr. Corliss at one time carried the theory as far as to make them only $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, but from 3 to 4 inches is the more common practice now. A small valve presents proportionally larger surface of discharge with the same lift than a larger valve, and whatever the total area of valve-seat opening, its full contents can be discharged with less lift through numerous small valves than with one large one.

Henry R. Worthington was the first to use numerous small rubber valves in preference to the larger metal valves. These valves work well under the conditions of a city pumping-engine. A volute spring is generally used to limit the rise of the valve.

In the Leavitt high-duty sewerage-engine at Boston (*Am. Machinist*, 31, 1884), the valves are of rubber, $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch thick, the opening in valve being $13\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The valves have iron face and back-plates, and form their own hinges.

CENTRIFUGAL PUMPS.

Relation of Height of Lift to Velocity.—The height to which water is raised depends only on the tangential velocity of the circumference, every tangential velocity giving a constant height of lift—sometimes termed "head," whether the pump is small or large. The quantity of water discharged is proportioned to the area of the discharging orifices at the circumference, and is proportioned to the square of the diameter, when the breadth is kept the same. R. H. Buel (*App. Cyc. Mech.*, ii, 606) gives the following:

Let Q represent the quantity of water, in cubic feet, to be pumped in one minute, h the height of suction in feet, h' the height of discharge in feet, d the diameter of suction-pipe, equal to the diameter of discharge-pipe.

According to Fink, $d = 0.36 \sqrt{\frac{Q}{4.2g(h+h')}}; g$ being the acceleration to gravity.

It then takes place on one side of the wheel, the inside diameter of the wheel is equal to $1.2d$, and the outside to $2.4d$. If the suction takes place on the other side of the wheel, the inside diameter of the wheel is equal to $0.85d$, and the outside to $1.7d$. Then the suction-pipe will have two branches, the area of each equal to half the area of d . The suction-pipe should be as short as possible to prevent air from entering the pump. The tangential velocity at the outer edge of wheel for the delivery Q is equal to $1.25 \sqrt{4.2g(h+h')}$.

There are six in number, constructed as follows: Divide the central shaft into six parts by dividing the radii, and divide the breadth of the wheel into six parts in the same manner by drawing concentric circles. The intersections of the lines with the corresponding circles give points of the arm.

Experiments with Appold's pump, a velocity of circumference of 500 ft. per min. raised the water 1 ft. high, and maintained it at that level without recharging any; and double the velocity raised the water to four ft. high, as the centrifugal force was proportionate to the square of the velocity; consequently,

500	ft. per min.	raised the water	1 ft.	without discharge,
1000	"	"	4	"
1500	"	"	16	"
2000	"	"	64	"

Experiments with the 1-ft. pump, was 67.7 ft., with a velocity of 4153 ft. per min. being rather less than the calculated height, owing probably to the greater pressure. A velocity of 1138 ft. per min. raised the water 1 ft. without any discharge, and the maximum effect from the pump in raising to the same height $5\frac{1}{2}$ ft. was obtained at the velocity of 1078 ft. per min., giving a discharge of 1400 gals. per min. from the pump. The additional velocity required to effect a discharge of 1000 gals. per min. through a 1-ft. pump working at a dead level without any discharge, is 550 ft. per min. Consequently, adding this number in each velocity given above, at which no discharge takes place, the following velocities are obtained for the maximum effect to be produced in

1050	ft. per min.,	velocity for	1 ft. height of lift.
1550	"	"	4
2050	"	"	16
2550	"	"	64

In general terms, the velocity in feet per minute for the circumference of the wheel to be driven, to raise the water to a certain height, is equal to the square root of the height of lift in feet.

Table of Centrifugal Pumps, Class B—For Lifts from 15 to 35 ft.

Size of Pipes.		Economical Capacity, in gallons per min.	Total Capacity, in gallons per min.	Horse-power per Ft. Lift, for smaller quantity.
Suction.	Discharge.			
2 in.	1½ in.	20 to 50	150	.024
2½	2	60 to 80	300	.035
3½	3	80 to 100	650	.055
4½	4	160 to 350	1,250	.075
6	5	350 to 600	1,850	.175
6	6	500 to 900	2,000	.25
8	8	1,100 to 2,000	4,750	.45
10	10	1,600 to 3,000	7,500	.62
12	12	2,000 to 5,000	10,000	1.00
14	14	3,000 to 5,000	14,000	1.25
15	15	3,800 to 7,000	16,000	1.40
18	18	6,000 to 11,000	22,000	2.40

Table of Diameters and Width of Pulleys, Width of Belt, and Number of Revolutions per Minute Necessary to Raise Minimum Quantity of Water to Different Heights with Different Sizes of Pumps of Class B.

Size.	Diameter of Pulley.	Width of Pump.	Width of Belt.	Minimum Quantity of Water.	Height in Feet and Revolutions per Minute.							
					6	8	10	12	16	20	25	30
1 in.	5	5	4	40	465	515	560	605	680	745	820	890
2	5	5	4	60	425	475	515	560	625	690	765	835
3	5	5	4	80	390	435	475	510	575	640	715	785
4	5	5	4	160	365	405	445	475	535	590	665	735
5	12	11	8	330	330	375	390	415	470	525	570	630
6	14	11	9	500	295	315	345	370	415	460	505	550
8	18	12	10	1100	215	240	260	280	310	340	375	405
10	18	12	10	1600	170	190	210	225	250	275	300	325
12	22	14	12	2000	150	165	185	195	220	240	265	285
14	24	14	12	3000	135	150	165	175	195	215	240	260
15	28	15	14	3500	125	145	155	165	185	210	230	250
18	38	18	14	6000	110	120	130	135	160	175	195	215

Efficiencies of Centrifugal and Reciprocating Pumps. W. O. Webber (Trans. A. S. M. E., vii, 50*) gives diagrams of the relative efficiencies of centrifugal and reciprocating pumps, from the following figures are taken for the different lifts stated:

Lift, feet:	2	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	50	60	80	100	120	160	200
Efficiency reciprocating pump:	.30	.45	.55	.61	.66	.68	.68	.71	.75	.77	.82	.85	.87	.90	.92	.95
Efficiency centrifugal pump:	.50	.56	.64	.68	.69	.68	.66	.62	.58	.50	.40

The term efficiency here used indicates the value of $W \cdot H \cdot P$, or horse-power of the water raised divided by the indicated horse-power of the steam-engine, and does not therefore show the full efficiency of the pump, but that of the combined pump and engine. It is, however, a fair way of showing the relative values of different kinds of pumps having their motive power forming a part of the plant.

The highest value of this term, given by Mr. Webber, is .916 for 170 ft., and 4615 gals. per min. This was obtained in a test of the pumping engine at Lawrence, Mass., July 24, 1879.

With reciprocating pumps, for higher lifts than 170 ft., the curve declines fairly, and from 200 to 300 ft. lift the average value is .84. Below 170 ft. the curve also falls reversely and slowly, until at 85 ft. its descent becomes more rapid, and at 85 ft. 727 appears to be the best performance. There are not any very satisfactory records for this lift, but some figures are given for the yearly coal consumption of a number of gallons pumped by engines in Holland under a lift from which an efficiency of .44 has been deduced.

With centrifugal pumps, the lift at which the maximum efficiency is attained is approximately 17 ft. At lifts from 12 to 18 ft. some large experience claim now to obtain from 60 to 70% of useful effect. 63 appears to be the best done at a public test under 14.7 ft. lift.

The drainage pumps constructed some years ago for the Humber were designed to lift 70 tons per min. 15 ft., and they weighed 2 tons. Centrifugal pumps for the same work weigh only 5 tons. A centrifugal pump and engine to lift 10,000 gals. per min. 15 ft. weigh 6 tons.

The pumps placed by Gwynne at the Ferrara Marshes, Northern Italy, are, it is believed, capable of handling more water than any other pump-engines in existence. The work performed by them is an average of 2000 tons per min. over 100,000,000 gals. per 24 hours, or 10 ft. lift at about 10 ft. lift, and at 12.5 ft. lift. (See Engineering, 1880, p. 100.) The efficiency of these pumps seems to increase as the lift

approximately as follows: A 2" pump (this designation meaning the size of discharge-outlet in inches of diameter), giving an efficiency 38%, a 3" pump 45%, and a 4" pump 52%, a 5" pump 60%, and a 6" 68%.

Tests of Centrifugal Pumps.

W. O. Webber, Trans. A. S. M. E., ix, 387.

Met.	Andrews.	Andrews.	Andrews.	Heald & Sisco.	Heald & Sisco.	Heald & Sisco.	Berlin, Schwartzkopf.
	No. 9.	No. 9.	No. 9.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 9.
Discharge.	91.5"	91.5"	91.5"	10"	10"	10"	91.5"
Pressure.	93.5"	93.5"	93.5"	12"	12"	12"	10.3"
Flow.	26.5"	26.5"	26.5"	30.5"	30.5"	30.5"	20.5"
Per minute.	191.9	195.5	200.5	188.3	202.7	213.7	500
Per minute.	1513.12	2023.82	2499.33	1573.37	2044.9	2371.67	1944.8
In feet.	12.35	12.62	13.08	12.33	12.58	13.0	16.46
H.P.	4.69	6.47	8.28	5.23	6.51	7.81
Water H.P.	10.09	12.2	14.38	8.11	10.74	14.03	11
Efficiency.	85.12	53.0	57.57	64.5	60.74	55.72	73.1

Tests of Centrifugal Pumps.—For forms of pump vanes, see W. O. Webber, Trans. A. S. M. E., ix, 228, and discussion thereon by Thurston, Wood, and others.

Centrifugal Pump used as a Suction Dredge.—The centrifugal pump was used by Gen. Gillmore, U. S. A., in 1871, in digging the channel over the bar at the mouth of the St. John's River. The pump was a No. 9, with suction and discharge pipes each 9 inches. It was driven at 300 revolutions per minute by belt from an engine developing 26 useful horse-power.

At 300 revolutions of the pump disk per minute will easily raise columns of clear water 12 ft. high, through a straight vertical 9-inch pipe. 300 revolutions were required to raise 2500 gallons of sand and water through two inclined suction-pipes having two turns each, discharging through a pipe having one turn.

The proportion of sand that can be pumped depends greatly upon its gravity and fineness. The calcareous and argillaceous sands flow freely than the silicious, and fine sands are less liable to choke the pump than those that are coarse. When working at high speed, 50% to 55% of the sand can be raised through a straight vertical pipe, giving for every 10 cubic feet of material discharged 5 to 5½ cubic yards of compact sand. With appliances used on the St. John's bar, the proportion of sand seldom exceeded 45%, generally ranging from 30% to 35% when working under favorable conditions.

At 300 revolutions, or 12.8 cubic yards of sand and water per minute, would therefore be obtained from 3.7 to 4.8 cubic yards of sand. During early stages of the work, before the teeth under the drag had been fully arranged to aid the flow of sand into the pipes, the yield was considerably below this average. (From catalogue of Jos. Edwards & Co., of the Andrews Pump, New York.)

DUTY TRIALS OF PUMPING-ENGINES.

The committee of the A. S. M. E. (Trans., xii, 530) reported in 1891 on a new method of conducting duty trials. Instead of the old unit of 100 foot-pounds of work per 100 lbs. of coal used, the committee recommended a new unit, foot-pounds of work per million heat-units furnished by the fuel. The variations in quality of coal make the old standard unit as of duty ratings. The new unit is the precise equivalent of 100 lbs. of coal where each pound of coal imparts 10,000 heat-units to the boiler, or where the evaporation is 10,000 ÷ 985.7 = 10,355 lbs. of steam and at 212° per pound of fuel. This evaporative result is readily obtained from all grades of Cumberland bituminous coal, used in the best tubular boilers, and, in many cases, from the best grade of coal.

FEED-WATER.

16. Weight of water supplied to boiler by main feed-pump
17. Weight of water supplied to boiler from various other sources
18. Total weight of feed-water supplied from all sources

PRESSURES.

19. Boiler pressure indicated by gauge
20. Pressure indicated by gauge on force main
21. Vacuum indicated by gauge on suction main
22. Pressure corresponding to vacuum given in preceding line
23. Vertical distance between the centres of the two gauges
24. Pressure equivalent to distance between the two gauges

MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

25. Duration of trial
26. Total number of single strokes during trial
27. Percentage of moisture in steam supplied to engine, or number of degrees of superheating
28. Total leakage of pump during trial, determined from results of leakage test
29. Mean effective pressure, measured from diagrams taken from steam cylinders

PRINCIPAL RESULTS.

30. Duty
31. Percentage of leakage
32. Capacity
33. Percentage of total friction

ADDITIONAL RESULTS.

34. Number of double strokes of steam-piston per minute
35. Indicated horse-power developed by the various steam-cylinders
36. Feed-water consumed by the plant per hour
37. Feed-water consumed by the plant per indicated horse-power per hour, corrected for moisture in steam
38. Number of heat units consumed per indicated horse-power per hour
39. Number of heat units consumed per indicated horse-power per minute
40. Steam accounted for by indicator at cut-off and release in the various steam-cylinders
41. Proportion which steam accounted for by indicator bears to the feed-water consumption
42. Number of double strokes of pump per minute
43. Mean effective pressure, measured from pump diagrams
44. Indicated horse-power exerted in pump-cylinders
45. Work done (or duty) per 100 lbs. of coal

SAMPLE DIAGRAM TAKEN FROM STEAM-CYLINDERS.

(Also, if possible, full measurement of the diagrams, embracing from the initial point, cut off, release, and compression; also back pressure and the proportions of the stroke completed at the various points.)

SAMPLE DIAGRAM TAKEN FROM PUMP-CYLINDERS.

These are not necessary to the main object, but it is desirable to have them.

DATA AND RESULTS OF BOILER TEST.

(In accordance with the scheme recommended by the Boiler Committee of the Society.)

VACUUM PUMPS-AIR-LIFT PUMP.

The Pulsometer.—In the pulsometer the water is raised by the condensation of steam within it and forced into the delivery pipe by the pressure of a new quantity of steam on the surface of the water. Two chambers are used which work alternately, one raising while the other is discharging.

Test of a Pulsometer.—A test of a pulsometer is described by the *Wood in Trans. A. S. M. E.* It had a $\frac{3}{4}$ inch suction pipe, and a 1 inch delivery pipe. The steam pressure was 10 lbs. per sq. in. A throttle was placed between the

done per pound of steam 21,345 foot-pounds, equal to a duty of 100 foot-pounds per 100 lbs. of coal, if 10 lbs. of steam were generated per pound of coal.

The Jet-pump.—This machine works by means of the tension of a stream or jet of fluid to drive or carry contiguous particles of fluid with it. The water-jet pump, in its present form, was invented by James Thomson, and first described in 1832. In some experiments on a small scale as to the efficiency of the jet-pump, the greatest efficiency found to take place when the depth from which the water was drawn by the suction-pipe was about nine tenths of the height from which the water rose to form the jet; the flow up the suction-pipe being in that case only five fifths of that of the jet, and the efficiency, consequently, $9 \cdot 10 \times 1$. This is but a low efficiency; but it is probable that it may be improved by improvements in proportions of the machine. (Rankine, S. E.)

The Injector when used as a pump has a very low efficiency. (Rankine, S. E.)

Air-lift Pump.—The air-lift pump consists of a vertical well with its lower end submerged in a well, and a smaller pipe delivered into it at the bottom. The rising column in the pipe consists of air with water, the air being in bubbles of various sizes, and is therefore lighter than a column of water of the same height; consequently the water in the pipe is raised above the level of the surrounding water. This method of raising water was proposed as early as 1597, by Loescher, of France, and was mentioned by Collon in lectures in Paris in 1876, but its first practical application probably was by Werner Siemens in Berlin in 1885. Pöhle experimented on the principle in California in 1880, and U. S. patents on apparatus involving it were granted to Pöhle and Hill in the same year. A paper describing tests of the air-lift pump made by Randall, B. Behr was read before the Technical Society of the Pacific Coast in 1887. The diameter of the pump-column was 3 in., of the air-pipe 1 in., and of the air-discharge nozzle $\frac{5}{8}$ in. The air-pipe had four sharp bends, the length of 35 ft. plus the depth of submersion.

The water was pumped from a closed pipe-well (55 ft. deep and 4 in. diameter). The efficiency of the pump was based on the least work theoretically required to compress the air and deliver it to the receiver. The efficiency of the compressor was taken at 70%, the efficiency of the pump and compressor together would be 70% of the efficiency found for the pump alone.

For a given submersion (h) and lift (H), the ratio of the two lifts was within reasonable limits, (H) being not much greater than (h), the efficiency was greatest when the pressure in the receiver did not greatly exceed that due to the submersion. The smaller the ratio $H \div h$, the higher the efficiency.

The pump, as erected, showed the following efficiencies:

For $H + h =$	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
Efficiency =	50%	40%	30%	25%

The fact that there are absolutely no moving parts makes it especially fitted for handling dirty or gritty water, sewage, mud, and acid or alkali solutions in chemical or metallurgical works.

In Newark, N. J., pumps of this type are at work having a total capacity of 1,000,000 gallons daily, lifting water from three 8-in. artesian wells. Newark Chemical Works use an air-lift pump to raise sulphuric acid by gravity. The Colorado Central Consolidated Mining Co., in one of its mines at Georgetown, Colo., lifts water in one case 250 ft., using a series of air-lift pumps.

For a full account of the theory of the pump, and details of its construction, above referred to, see *Eng'g News*, June 8, 1893.

THE HYDRAULIC RAM.

Efficiency.—The hydraulic ram is used where a considerable fall of water with a moderate fall is available, to raise a small portion of it to a height exceeding that of the fall. The following are rules given by Eytelwein as the results of his experiments (from Rankine):

Let Q be the whole supply of water in cubic feet per second, of which q is lifted to the height h above the pond, and $Q - q$ runs to waste at the height H below the pond; L , the length of the supply-pipe, from the pump to the waste-slack; D , its diameter in feet; then

$$D = \sqrt{(1.63Q)}; \quad L = H + h + \frac{h}{H} \times 2 \text{ feet};$$

Volume of air vessel = volume of feed pipe;

$$\frac{qh}{(Q-q)H} = 1.12 - 0.2 \sqrt{\frac{h}{H}} \text{ when } \frac{h}{H} \text{ does not exceed } 20.$$

$$\left(1 + \frac{h}{10H}\right) \text{ nearly, when } \frac{h}{H} \text{ does not exceed } 12.$$

$$\text{gives } \frac{q(H+h)}{QH} = 1.42 - .28 \sqrt{\frac{h}{H}}$$

(five sixths of the values given by D'Aulion's formula.)

ft. to fall.	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26
per cent.	72	61	52	44	37	31	25	19	14	9	4	0

(*Eng'g Mechanics*, 1904) reports the results of four constructed by Rumsey & Co., Seneca Falls. The ram was connection for 1½-inch supply and ½-inch discharge. The ad was 1½ inches in diameter, about 50 feet long, with 8-elbows, equivalent to about 65 feet of straight pipe, so far as resistance. Each run was made with a different stroke for the waste the supply and delivery head being constant; the 6 feet of was to find that stroke of check-valve which would give the cy.

Stroke, per cent.	100	80	60	46
Strokes per minute.	53	56	61	66
Feet of water	5.67	5.77	5.88	5.95
Feet of water	19.75	19.75	19.75	19.75
Unpumped, pounds.	297	296	301	297.5
Applied, pounds.	1915	1567	1518	1455.5
Efficient.	64.9	66	74.9	70

74.9, the highest realized, was obtained when the check-valve stroke equal to 60% of its full stroke, the full travel being 15/16

of Water Delivered by the Hydraulic Ram.
and Works 1.—From 50 to 100 feet conveyance, one seventh of spring can be discharged at an elevation five times as high as the ram; or, one fourteenth can be raised and discharged as high as the fall applied.

is conveyed by a ram 3000 feet, and elevated 300 feet. The ram 25 to 30 feet long.

A table gives the capacity of several sizes of rams, the dimensions to be used, and the size of the spring or brook to which ad:

Quantity of Water Discharged per Minute by the Spring to which the Ram is Adapted.	Caliber of Pipes.		Weight of Pipe (Lead), if Wrought Iron, then of Ordinary Weight.		
	Drive.	Discharge.	Drive-pipe for head or fall not over 10 ft.	Discharge- pipe for not over 50 ft. rise.	Discharge- pipe for over 50 ft. and not ex- ceeding 100 ft. in height.
per min.	inch.	inch.	per foot.	per foot.	per foot.
1/2 to 2	3/4	3/4	2 lbs.	10 ozs.	1 lb.
" 4	1	3/4	3 "	12 "	1 " 4 ozs.
" 7	1 1/4	3/4	5 "	12 "	1 " 4 ozs.
" 14	2	3/4	8 "	1 lb. 4 "	2 "
" 25	2 3/4	1	13 "	2 "	3 "
" 40	3 3/4	1 1/4	18 "	3 "	4 "
" 75	4	2	21 "	7 "	8 "

HYDRAULIC-PRESSURE TRANSMISSION.

Water under high pressure (700 to 3000 lbs. per square inch) affords a very satisfactory method of transmitting power to, and especially for the movement of heavy loads at small velocities, as in lifts and elevators. The system consists usually of one or more pumps for developing the required pressure; accumulators, which are vessels with heavily-weighted plungers passing through stuffing boxes at the upper end, by which a quantity of water may be accumulated at a pressure to which the plunger is weighted; the distributing pipes; and the cranes, or other machinery to be operated.

The earliest important use of hydraulic pressure probably was in Bramah's hydraulic press, patented in 1796. Sir W. G. Armstrong is one of the pioneers in the adaptation of the hydraulic system to the use of the accumulator by Armstrong led to the extended use of this machinery. Recent developments and applications of the system are due to Ralph Tweddell, of London, and Sir Joseph Whitworth. Bessemer, in his patent of May 13, 1856, No. 1292, first suggested the use of hydraulic pressure for compressing steel ingots while in the fluid state.

The Gross Amount of Energy of the water under pressure in the accumulator, measured in foot-pounds, is its volume in cubic feet multiplied by its pressure in pounds per square foot. The horse power of a given flow steadily flowing is $H.P. = \frac{144pQ}{550} = .2618pQ$, in which Q is the quantity

in cubic feet per second and p the pressure in pounds per square foot. The loss of energy due to velocity of flow in the pipe is calculated as follows (R. G. Blane, *Eng'g*, May 23 and June 5, 1891):

According to D'Arcy, every pound of water loses $\frac{\lambda L}{D}$ times its energy, or energy due to its velocity, in passing along a straight pipe in length L and D feet diameter, where λ is a variable coefficient. For cast-iron pipes it may be taken as $\lambda = .005 \left(1 + \frac{1}{12D}\right)$, or for diameters in inches = d .

$d = \frac{1}{4}$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$\lambda = .015$.01	.0075	.0067	.00625	.006	.00583	.00571	.00563	.00556	.0055

The loss of energy per minute is $60 \times 62.36Q \times \frac{\lambda L}{D}$, and the power wasted in the pipe is $W = \frac{.6236 \lambda L (H.P.)^2}{p^2 D^5}$, in which a varied diameter as above. p = pressure at entrance in pounds per square inch. Values of $.6236 \lambda$ for different diameters of pipe in inches are:

$d = \frac{1}{4}$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$.00554$.00395	.00477	.00421	.00398	.00382	.00371	.00363	.00358	.00353	.0035

Efficiency of Hydraulic Apparatus.—The useful work of a direct hydraulic plunger or ram is usually taken at 33%. The value given as the efficiency of a ram with chain-and-pulley multiple properly proportioned and well lubricated:

Multiplying ... 2 to 1 4 to 1 6 to 1 8 to 1 10 to 1 12 to 1 14 to 1
Efficiency % ... 80 76 72 67 63 59 54

With large sheaves, small steel pins, and wire rope for multiplying the efficiency has been found as high as 66% for a multiplication of 14.

Henry Adams gives the following formula for effective pressure in rams and hoists:

P = accumulator pressure in pounds per square inch;
 m = ratio of multiplying power.
 E = effective pressure in pounds per square inch, including all losses for friction;

$$E = P(.84 - .02m).$$

J. E. Tuit (*Eng'g*, June 15, 1888) describes some experiments on the use of hydraulic jacks from $3\frac{1}{4}$ to 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter, fitted with leather packings. The friction loss varied from 5.6% to 18.8% with the condition of the leather, the distribution of the load on the plunger. The friction increased considerably with eccentric loads. With a 14-inch plunger, 14 inch diameter, showed a friction loss of 4.6% with the load being exerted from 15.0% to 5.0% with eccentric load. The average of loss of ... both cases with increase of load.

Thickness of Hydraulic Cylinders.—From a table used by Sir Armstrong we take the following, for cast-iron cylinders, for an internal pressure of 1000 lbs. per square inch:

Cylinder, inches...	2	4	6	8	10	12	16	20	24
Thickness, inches...	0.832	1.146	1.552	1.875	2.222	2.578	3.19	3.69	4.11

For other pressure multiply by the ratio of that pressure to 1000. The figures correspond nearly to the formula $t = 0.175d + 0.48$, in which t = thickness and d = diameter in inches, up to 16 inches diameter, but for 24 inches diameter the addition 0.48 is reduced to 0.19 and at 24 inches it vanishes. For formulae for thick cylinders see page 287, ante.

Iron should not be used for pressures exceeding 2000 lbs. per square inch. For higher pressures steel castings or forged steel should be used. Working pressures of 750 lbs. per square inch the test pressure should be 1000 lbs. per square inch, and for 1500 lbs. the test pressure should not be less than 2000 lbs.

Use of Hoisting by Hydraulic Pressure.—The maximum speed for warehouse cranes is 6 feet per second; for platform cranes 10 feet per second; for passenger and wagon hoists, heavy loads, 2 feet per second. The maximum speed under any circumstances should not exceed 10 feet per second.

Speed of Water Through Valves should never be greater than 10 feet per second.

Use of Water Through Pipes.—Experiments on water at 1000 lbs. per square inch flowing into a flanging-machine ram, 20-inch diameter, through a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch pipe contracted at one point to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, gave a velocity of 114 feet per second in the pipe, and 456 feet at the reduced section. Through a $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch pipe reduced to $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch at one point the velocity was 114 feet per second in the pipe and 381 feet at the reduced section. In a pipe without contraction the velocity was 355 feet per second.

Many of the above notes the author is indebted to Mr. John Platt, Consulting Engineer, of New York.

High-pressure Hydraulic Presses in Iron-works are described by R. M. Duden, of Germany, in Trans. A. I. M. E. 1892. The following distinct arrangements used in different systems of high-pressure hydraulic work are discussed and illustrated:

- 1. Ram pump, with fly-wheel and accumulator.
- 2. Ram pump, without fly-wheel and with accumulator.
- 3. Ram pump, without fly-wheel and without accumulator.
- 4. The three systems the valve-motion of the working press is operated by high-pressure column. This is avoided in the following:
- 5. Single acting steam-intensifier without accumulator.
- 6. Ram-pump with fly-wheel, without accumulator and with pipe-circuit.
- 7. Ram-pump with fly-wheel, without accumulator and without pipe-circuit.

The advantages of accumulators are thus stated: The weighted plungers formerly served in most cases as accumulators, cause violent shocks to the pipe line when changes take place in the movement of the water, and in many places, in order to avoid bursting from this cause, the pipes are exclusively of forged and bored steel. The seats and cones of the valves are cut by the water at high speed, and in such cases only the careful maintenance can prevent great losses of power.

Hydraulic Power in London.—The general principle involved in pumping water into mains laid in the streets, from which service-pipes are carried into the houses to work lifts or three cylinder motors when no power is required. In some cases a small Pelton wheel has been working under a pressure of over 700 lbs. on the square inch. Over 55 of hydraulic mains are at present laid (1892).

The reservoir of power consists of capacious accumulators, loaded to a pressure of 800 lbs. per square inch, thus producing the same effect as if supply-tanks were placed at 1700 feet above the street-level. The water is taken from the Thames or from wells, and all sediment is removed from it by filtration before it reaches the main engine-pumps.

There are over 1750 machines at work, and the supply is about 6,500,000 gallons per week.

It is essential that the water used should be clean. The storage-tank extends over the whole boiler-house and coal store. The tank is divided into compartments, and an amount of mud is deposited here. It then passes through a strainer, a condenser of the engines, and it is turned into a set of filters. The body of the filter is a cast-iron cylinder, containing

granular filtering material resting upon a false bottom; under distributing arrangement, affording passage for the air, and under bottom of the tank. The dirty water is supplied to the filter-head tank. After passing through the filters the clean effluent into the clean-water tank, from which the pumping-engine supplies. The cleaning of the filters, which is done at intervals effected so thoroughly *in situ* that the filtering material never removed.

The engine-house contains six sets of triple-expansion cylinders are 15-inch, 22-inch, 36 inch \times 24-inch. Each cylinder single plunger-pump with a 5-inch ram, secured directly to the connecting-rod being double to clear the pump. The boiler 150 lbs. on the square inch. Each pump will deliver 300 gallons minute under a pressure of 800 lbs. to the square inch, the rate about 61 revolutions per minute. This is a high velocity, at heavy pressure; but the valves work silently and without perceptible consumption of steam is 14.1 pounds per horse per hour.

The water delivered from the main pumps passes into the rams are 20 inches in diameter, and have a stroke of 25 ft. each loaded with 110 tons of slag, contained in a wrought-iron box suspended from a cross-head on the top of the ram.

One of the accumulators is loaded a little more heavily than that they rise and fall successively; the more heavily loaded valve on the main steam pipe. If the engines supply more than wanted, the lighter of the two rams first rises as far as it can then ascends, and when it has nearly reached the top, shuts off checks the supply of water automatically.

The mains in the public streets are so constructed and laid so perfectly trustworthy and free from leakage.

Every pipe and valve used throughout the system is tested to square inch before being placed on the ground and again tested to pressure in the trenches to insure the perfect tightness of the jointing material used is gutta-percha.

The average rate obtained by the company is about 3 shillings and gallons. The principal use of the power is for intermittent where direct pressure can be employed, as, for instance, passenger cranes, presses, warehouse hoists, etc.

An important use of the hydraulic power is its application in quenching of fire by means of Greathhead's injector hydrant. At these hydrants a continuous fire-engine is available.

Hydraulic Riveting-machines.—Hydraulic riveting introduced in England by Mr. R. H. Twedell. Fixed riveters were first introduced in 1868. Portable riveting machines were introduced in 1872.

The riveting of the large steel plates in the Forth Bridge was done by portable machines working with a pressure of 1000 lbs. per square inch. An exceptional case 3 tons per inch was used. (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1888.)

An application of hydraulic pressure invented by Andrew A. White, Liverpool, dispenses with the necessity of accumulators. It is a three-throw pump driven by shafting or worked by steam, operating partly upon the work accumulated in a heavy fly-wheel. The passage from the pumps and back to them is in constant current, at a very feeble pressure, requiring a minimum of power to preserve the water ready for action at the desired moment, when by the use of the current is stopped from going back to the pumps, and is thrust upon the piston of the tool to be set in motion. The water is now confined by the driving-belt or steam-engine, supplemented by the momentum of the fly-wheel, is employed in closing up the rivet, or bending or forcing it subject to its operation.

Hydraulic Forging.—In the production of heavy forgings of mild steel it is essential that the mass of metal operated on as equally as possible throughout its entire thickness. Employing a steam-hammer for this purpose it has been found that the lateral surface of the ingot absorbs a large proportion of the effect of the blow, and that a comparatively small effect only is produced on the central portions of the ingot, owing to the resistance offered by the mass to the rapid motion of the falling hammer—a mass which is entirely overcome by the slow, though powerful, compression of the hydraulic forging press. The latter is especially adapted for the production of large steel forgings.

Forging-press the force-pump and the large, or main cylinder are in direct and constant communication. There are no inter-
 of any kind, nor has the pump any check-valves, but it
 its cylinder full of water direct into the cylinder of the press,
 the same water, as it were, back again on the return stroke.
 All cylinders and the pipe connecting them are full, the large
 press rises and falls simultaneously with each stroke of the
 ing up a continuous oscillating motion, the ram, of course,
 a shorter distance, owing to the larger capacity of the press
 Journal Iron and Steel Institute, 1891. See also illustrated article
 mechanism," page 668.)

Complete illustrated account of the development of the hy-
 dra-press, see a paper by R. H. Tweddell in Proc. Inst. C. E., vol.

Die Forging-press.—A 2000-ton forging-press erected at
 ges in Belgium is described in *Eng. and M. Jour.*, Nov. 25, 1893.
 is composed essentially of two parts—the press itself and the

The compressor is formed of a vertical steam-cylinder and a
 under. The piston-rod of the former forms the piston of the
 hydraulic piston discharges the water into the press proper.
 tion is made by a cylindrical balanced valve; as soon as the
 densed the steam-piston falls automatically under the action of
 ing its descent the steam passes to the other face of the piston
 cylinder, and finally escapes from the upper end.

in enters under the piston of the compressor-cylinder the pis-
 on its rod forces the water into the press proper. The pressure
 on the piston of the latter is transmitted through a cross head
 which is upon the anvil. To raise the cross-head two small
 steam-cylinders are used, their piston-rods being connected to
 it; steam acts only on the pistons of these cylinders from below.
 in of steam to the cylinders, which stand on top of the press
 ated by the same lever which directs the motions of the com-
 movement given to the dies is sufficient for all the ordinary
 forging.

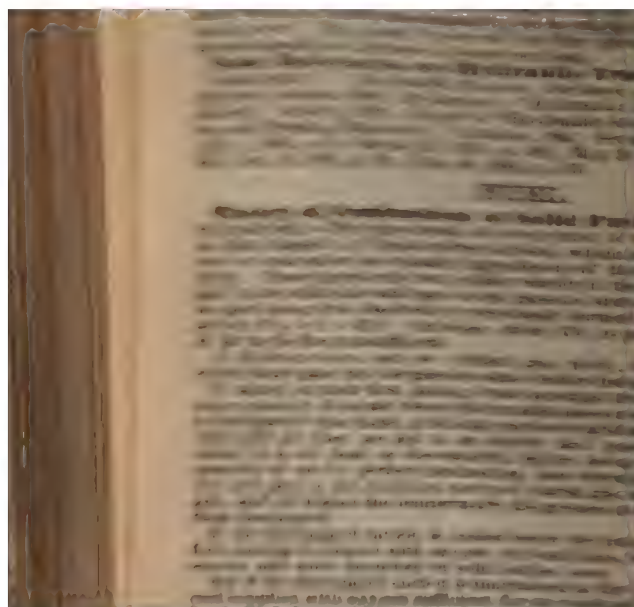
80 blows per minute has been attained. A double press on the
 having two compressors and giving a maximum pressure of
 is been erected in the Krupp works, at Essen.

an Intensifier. (*Iron Age*, Aug. 1890.)—The object of the
 is increase the pressure obtained by the ordinary accumulator
 necessary to operate powerful hydraulic machines requiring very
 pressure, without increasing the pressure carried in the accumulator
 and hydraulic system.

The intensifier consists of one outer stationary cylinder and one
 in which moves in the outer cylinder and on a fixed or stationary
 pier. When operated in connection with the hydraulic bloom-
 method of working is as follows: The inner cylinder having been
 ater and connected through the hollow plunger with the hydrau-
 of the shear, water at the ordinary accumulator-pressure is ad-
 the outer cylinder, which being four times the sectional area of
 gives a pressure in the inner cylinder and shear cylinder con-
 with of four times the accumulator-pressure—that is, if the ac-
 cessor is 500 lbs. per square inch the pressure in the intensifier
 is 2000 lbs. per square inch.

**Die Engine driving an Air-compressor and a
 hammer.** (*Iron Age*, May 12, 1892.)—The great hammer in

Rome, is one of the largest in existence. Its falling weight
 600 tons, and the foundation belonging to it consists of a block
 of 1000 tons. The foundation is 16 feet 4½ inches; the diameter of
 5 feet 3¼ inches; diameter of piston-rod 13¾ inches; total height
 pier, 62 feet 4 inches. The power to work the hammer, as well as
 of 100 and 150 tons respectively, and other auxiliary appli-
 cing to it, is furnished by four air-compressors coupled together
 directly by water-pressure engines, by means of which the air is
 to 73.5 pounds per square inch. The cylinders of the water-
 engines, which are provided with a bronze lining, have a 13¾-inch
 stroke in 17¾ inches, with a pressure of water on the piston
 of 104.6 pounds per square inch. The compressors are 10 feet
 diameter, and have 47¾-inch stroke. Each of the
 power equal to 280 horse-power. The compressors



Heat of Combustion of Fuels. (Rankine).—The following table shows the total heat of combustion with oxygen of one pound of the substances named in it, in British thermal units, and also in evaporated from 212°. It also shows the weight of oxygen required with each pound of the combustible and the weight of air in order to supply that oxygen. The quantities of heat are the authority of MM. Favre and Silbermann.

Combustible.	Lbs. Oxygen per lb. Combustible.	Lb. Air (about).	Total British Heat-units.	Evaporative Power from 212° F., lbs.
Carbon, 1 lb.	8	36	97,000	64.2
Carbon, perfectly burned so as to form carbonic oxide,	1½	6	4,400	4.55
Carbon, perfectly burned so as to form carbonic acid,	2½	12	14,500	15.0
Hydrogen, 1 lb.	8 3/7	15 3/7	31,344	21.1
Gas hydrocarbons, 1 lb.	from 21,500 to 19,000	from 21½ to 20
Coal, as much as is made perfect combustion of, viz., 2½ lbs.	1½	6	10,000	10.45

Perfect combustion of carbon, making carbonic oxide, produces one-third of the heat which is yielded by the complete combustion. The heat of combustion of any compound of hydrogen and carbon is the sum of the quantities of heat which the constituents would produce by their combustion. (Marsh gas is an exception.)

When the total heat of combustion of compounds containing oxygen, as hydrogen and carbon, the following principle is to be observed. When hydrogen and oxygen exist in a compound in the proper proportion to form water (that is, by weight one part of hydrogen to eight parts of oxygen), these constituents have no effect on the total heat of combustion. If hydrogen exists in a greater proportion, only the surplus of hydrogen which is required by the oxygen is to be taken into account. The following is a general formula (Dulong's) for the total heat of combustion of a compound of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen:

Let C be the fraction of one pound of the compound, which is carbon, H be the fraction of hydrogen, and O be the fraction of oxygen, the remainder being ash and other impurities. Let h be the total heat of combustion of one pound of the compound in British thermal units. Then

$$h = 14,500 \left\{ C + 4.29 \left(H - \frac{O}{8} \right) \right\}.$$

The following table shows the composition of those compounds which are used, either as furnishing oxygen for combustion, as entering into it, or as being produced by the combustion of fuel:

Names.	Symbol of Chemical Composition.	Proportions of Element by Weight.	Chemical Equivalent by Weight.	Proportions of Element by Volume.
Water	H_2O	N 77 + O 23	100	N 70 + O 21
Steam	H_2O	H 2 + O 16	18	H 2 + O
Nitrogen	N_2	H 3 + N 14	17	H 3 + N
Carbonic oxide	CO	C 12 + O 16	28	C + O
Carbonic acid	CO_2	C 12 + O 32	44	C + O 2
Hydrogen	H_2	C 12 + H 2	14	H 2
Gas-damp	CH_4	C 12 + H 4	16	H 4
Ammonia	NH_3	N 14 + H 3	17	N 14 + H 3
Hydrogen	H_2	H 2 + O 16	18	H 2 + O
Carbon	C	C 12 + O 12	12	C + O

Since each lb. of C requires $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. of O to burn it to CO_2 , and air contains 23% of O, by weight, $2\frac{3}{4} \div 0.23$ or 11.6 lbs. of air are required to burn 1 lb. of C.

Analyses of Gases of Combustion.—The following are selected from a large number of analyses of gases from locomotive boilers, to show the range of composition under different circumstances (P. H. Dudley, Trans. A. I. M. E., iv. 250):

Test.	CO_2	CO	O	N	
1	18.8	2.5	2.5	81.6	No smoke visible.
2	11.5	...	0	82.5	Old fire, escaping gas white, engine working hard.
3	8.5	...	8	83	Fresh fire, much black gas.
4	2.8	...	17.2	80.5	Old fire, damper closed, engine standing still.
5	5.7	...	14.7	79.6	" " smoke white, engine working hard.
6	8.4	1.2	8.4	82	New fire, engine not working hard.
7	12	1	4.4	82.6	Smoke black, engine not working hard.
8	8.4	...	16.8	76.8	" dark, blower on, engine standing still.
9	6	...	13.5	81.5	" white, engine working hard.

In analyses on the Cleveland and Pittsburgh road, in every instance when the smoke was the blackest, there was found the greatest percentage of unconsumed oxygen in the product, showing that something besides the mere presence for oxygen is required to effect the combustion of the volatile carbon of fuels.

J. C. Hoadley (Trans. A. S. M. E., vi 749) found as the mean of a great number of analyses of flue gases from a boiler using anthracite coal:

CO_2 , 13.10; CO, 0.90; O, 11.94; N, 74.66.

The loss of heat due to burning C to CO instead of to CO_2 was 2.13%. The surplus oxygen averaged 11.3% of the O required for the C of the fuel, the average for different weeks ranging from 88.6% to 137%.

Analyses made to determine the CO produced by excessively rapid firing gave results from 2.51% to 4.81% CO and 5.12 to 8.01% CO_2 ; the ratio of C to the CO to total carbon burned being from 43.86% to 48.55%, and the number of pounds of air supplied to the furnace per pound of coal being from 33.2 to 19.3 lbs. The loss due to burning C to CO was from 27.84% to 30.66% of the full power of the coal.

Temperature of the Fire. (Rankine, S. E., p. 283.)—By temperature of the fire is meant the temperature of the products of combustion at the instant that the combustion is complete. The elevation of that temperature above the temperature at which the air and the fuel are supplied in the furnace may be computed by dividing the total heat of combustion of one lb. of fuel by the weight and by the mean specific heat of the whole products of combustion, and of the air employed for their dilution under constant pressure. The specific heat under constant pressure of these products is about as follows:

Carbonic-acid gas, 0.217; steam, 0.475; nitrogen (probably), 0.245; air, 0.238; ashes, probably about 0.200. Using these data, the following results are obtained for pure carbon and for olefant gas burned, respectively, first, in just sufficient air, theoretically, for their combustion, and, second, when an equal amount of air is supplied in addition for dilution.

Fuel.	Products undiluted.		Products diluted.	
	Carbon.	Olefant Gas.	Carbon.	Olefant Gas.
Total heat of combustion, per lb.	14,500	21,800	14,500	21,300
Wt. of products of combustion, lbs.	13	16.43	25	31.36
Their mean specific heat	0.237	0.257	0.238	0.263
Specific heat \times weight	3.081	4.22	5.94	7.9
Elevation of temperature, F.	4580°	5050°	2440°	2710°

[The above calculations are made on the assumption that the specific heats of the gases are constant but they probably increase with the increase of temperature (see Specific Heat), in which case the temperature would be less than those above given. The temperature would be further

the heat rendered latent by the conversion into steam of any water in the fuel.)

Temperature in Combustion of Gases. (Eng'g. and Arch't. 2, 1886.)—It is found that the temperatures obtained are all far short of those obtained by calculation. Three theories are given to account for this: 1. The cooling effect of the containing vessel; 2. The retardation of the evolution of heat by association; 3. The increase of the specific heat of the gases at high temperatures. The calculated temperatures are obtainable only if the gases shall combine instantaneously and simultaneously throughout their whole mass. This condition is practically impossible. The gases formed at the beginning of an explosion containing combustible gases and tend to retard or check the progress of the remainder.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOLID FUELS.

Prof. H. C. Engelmann classifies solid fuels as follows (Eng'g and M'g Jour., July, 1874):

Name of Fuel.	Ratio $\frac{O}{H}$ or $O + N^*$.	Proportion of Coke or Charcoal yielded by the Dry Pure Fuel.
	$\frac{H}{O + N^*}$	
.....	8	0.28 @ 0.30
..... (case and encasing matter)....	7	.30 @ .35
..... all fuel.....	6 @ 5	.35 @ .40
..... brown coal.....	5	.40 @ .50
..... coals.....	4 @ 1	.50 @ .90
.....	1 @ 0.75	.90 @ .92

Prof. Engelmann divides the above into five classes as below:

Type.	Elementary Composition.			Ratio $\frac{O}{H}$ or $O + N^*$.	Proportion of Coke yielded by Distillation.	Nature and Appearance of Coke.
	C.	H.	O.			
..... (including dry).....	75 @ 80	5.5 @ 4.5	19.5 @ 15	4 @ 3	0.50 @ .60	Pulverulent.
..... (including fat).....	80 @ 85	5.8 @ 5	14.2 @ 10	3 @ 2	.60 @ .66	Melted, but friable.
..... (including coals, lignites).....	84 @ 85	5 @ 4.5	11 @ 5.5	2 @ 1	.68 @ .74	Melted; somewhat compact.
..... (including fat).....	88 @ 91	5.5 @ 4	6.5 @ 5.5	1	.74 @ .82	Melted; very compact.
..... (including anthra- coals).....	90 @ 93	4.5 @ 4	5.5 @ 3	1	.82 @ .90	Pulverulent.

Hydrogen rarely exceeds 1 per cent of the weight of the fuel, including bituminous lignites, which resemble petroleum. The following are the extreme differences in the chemical composition and properties of different kinds of coal are very great. The free carbon ranges from 30 to 83 per cent; that of hydrogen from 5 to 16 per cent; that of water, or oxygen and hydrogen, from 1 to 26 per cent; that of ash, from 1 to 26 per cent. The various kinds of coal may be divided into principal classes: 1, anthracite coal; 2, semi-bituminous coal; 3, bituminous coal; 4, lignite or brown coal.

Determination of H and O in Series from Wood to Anthracite

Shreve and Toner's Chemical Technology, vol. 1, Table p. 10.

Substance	Carbon	Hydrogen
Woody fibre	50.45	6.25
Peat from Vulcaire	59.57	5.52
Lignite from Coleridge	66.64	5.07
Hardy brown coal	73.38	4.48
Coal from Belmont, secondary	79.16	3.94
Coal from Kirtle Dale	85.43	3.40
Anthracite, Mayeside, transition formation	87.56	2.94

Progressive Change from Wood to Graphite

(J. S. Newberry in Johnston's Synagoga.)

	Wood Loss	Lignite	Loss	Bituminous coal	Loss	Anthracite	Loss
Carbon	49.1	54.65	59.45	70.35	80.00	84.10	84.10
Hydrogen	6.3	5.25	5.05	4.55	3.50	2.50	2.50
Oxygen	44.6	34.40	29.30	19.13	2.07	1.32	0.40
	100.0	94.30	83.70	92.03	85.57	87.92	87.00

Classification of Coals, as Anthracite, Bituminous

Prof. P. F. Frazar (Trans. A. I. M. E., vi, 240, 1891) proposes a division of coals according to their "fuel ratio," that is, the ratio that coal bears to the volatile hydrocarbon.

In arranging coals under this classification, the accidental impurities as sulphur, earthy matter, and moisture, are disregarded, and the constituents alone are considered.

	Carbon Ratio	Fixed Carbon	Volatile Hydrocarbon
I. Hard dry anthracite	100 to 12	100.0 to 92.31%	0 to 7.69%
II. Semi-anthracite	12 to 8	92.31 to 88.89%	7.69 to 11.11%
III. Semi-bituminous	8 to 5	88.89 to 83.33%	11.11 to 16.67%
IV. Bituminous	5 to 0	83.33 to 0%	16.67 to 100%

It appears to the author that the above classification does not divide at the proper point between the semi-bituminous and the bituminous, viz., at a ratio of $C + V.H.C. = 5$, or fixed carbon 83.33% and volatile carbon 16.67%, since it would throw many of the steam coals of Somerset and Somerset counties, Penn., and the Cumberland, Md., and New Va., coals, which are practically of one class, and properly semi-bituminous coals, into the bituminous class. The dividing line between the semi-anthracite and semi-bituminous coals, $C + V.H.C. = 8$, would place several coals known as semi-anthracite in the semi-bituminous class. The following is proposed by the author as a better classification.

	Carbon Ratio	Fixed Carbon	Volatile Hydrocarbon
I. Hard dry anthracite	100 to 12	100.0 to 92.31%	0 to 7.69%
II. Semi-anthracite	12 to 7	92.31 to 85.71%	7.69 to 14.29%
III. Semi-bituminous	7 to 3	85.71 to 75%	14.29 to 25%
IV. Bituminous	3 to 0	75 to 0%	25 to 100%

Rhode Island Graphitic Anthracite.—A peculiar form found at Cranston, near Providence, R. I. It resembles both good anthracite coal, and has about the following composition: A. E. Hill, A. I. M. E., xvii, 678; Graphitic carbon, 78%; volatile matter, 15.06%; phosphorus, .015%. It burns with extreme difficulty.

ANALYSES OF COALS.

Composition of Pennsylvania Anthracites, 1875

31. E., xiv, 106. Samples weighing 100 to 200 lbs. were collected by the U. S. Geological Survey, and reduced by power and laboratory methods. Thirty-three samples were analyzed by Volmer and the results are given. They show the mean character of the coal of the Pennsylvania field in the Northern field in the vicinity of Hazleton, Pa. (high) field in the vicinity of Hazleton, Pa.

field in the vicinity of Shenandoah, and in the Southern field between Chank and Tamaqua.

	Name of Field.	Water.	Volatile Matter.	Fixed Carbon.	Ash.	Sulphur.	Vol. Matter. Per cent of total combustible.	Ratio, C + V. H.C.
100...	E. Middle	3.71	3.08	86.40	6.92	.58	3.44	28.07
101...	E. Middle	4.12	3.08	86.38	5.92	.49	3.45	25.99
102...	W. Middle	3.54	3.72	81.59	10.65	.50	4.36	27.00
103...	W. Middle	3.16	3.72	81.14	11.08	.90	4.38	21.83
104...	Southern	3.01	4.13	87.98	4.38	.50	4.48	21.32
105...	W. Middle	3.04	3.95	82.66	8.34	.46	4.56	20.98
106...	W. Middle	3.41	3.95	90.87	11.23	.51	4.60	20.32
107...	Southern	3.09	4.28	83.81	8.18	.64	4.85	19.62
108...	Northern	3.42	4.38	83.27	8.30	.78	5.00	19.00
109...	Bed. Loyalsock	1.30	8.10	83.84	6.23	1.03	8.86	10.20

Above analyses were made of coals of all sizes (mixed). When coal is sold into sizes for shipment the purity of the different sizes as regards sizes greatly. Samples from one mine gave results as follows:

Name of Coal.	Screened		Analyses.		
	Through inches.	Over inches.	Fixed Carbon.	Ash.	
110...	2.5	1.75	88.49	5.66	
111...	1.75	1.25	89.67	10.17	
112...	1.25	.75	80.72	12.67	
113...	.75	.50	79.05	14.66	
114...	.50	.25	76.92	16.68	

Bernice Basin, Pa., Coals.

	Water.	Vol. H.C.	Fixed C.	Ash.	Sulphur.
115 Basin, Fullman and	0.96	3.56	82.52	3.27	0.34
116 Mining Co.; range of 8...	to 1.97	to 8.56	to 89.39	to 9.24	to 1.04

Coal is on the dividing-line between the anthracites and semi-anthracites and is similar to the coal of the Lykens Valley district.

Recent analyses (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv. 721) give:

	Water.	Vol. H.C.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Sulphur.
117 Seam.....	0.65	9.40	81.69	5.34	0.91
118 Below seam....	3.67	15.12	71.34	8.97	0.59

Coal is a semi-anthracite, the second a semi-bituminous.

Coal Occupied by Anthracite Coal. (J. C. I. W., vol. III.)—The contents of 240 lbs. of hard Lehigh coal is a little over 36 feet; and in Schuylkill W. A., 37 to 38 feet; Shamokin, 38 to 39 feet; Lorberrry, 41.

According to measurements made with Wilkesbarre anthracite coal from Loring Valley, it requires 32.2 cu. ft. of lump, 33.9 cu. ft. broken, 34.5 cu. ft. egg, 31.8 cu. ft. of stove, 35.7 cu. ft. of chestnut, and 36.7 cu. ft. to make one ton of coal of 2240 lbs.; while it requires 28.8 cu. ft. of 20.3 cu. ft. of broken, 30.8 cu. ft. of egg, 31.1 cu. ft. of stove, 31.9 cu. ft. of chestnut, and 32.8 cu. ft. of pea, to make one ton of 2000 lbs.

Composition of Anthracite and Semi-bituminous Coals. (A. I. M. E., vi. 490.)—Hard dry anthracites, 16 analyses by Rogers, range from 94.10 to 82.47 fixed carbon, 1.40 to 9.59 volatile matter, 0 to 8.00 ash, water, and impurities. Of the fuel constituents alone, fixed carbon ranges from 98.53 to 89.63, and the volatile matter from 1.47 to 8.00, the corresponding carbon ratios, or C + Vol. H.C. being from 67.02 to 74.11.

Anthracites.—12 analyses by Rogers show a range of from 90.33 to 82.47 fixed carbon, 7.07 to 13.75 volatile matter, and 2.30 to 8.00 ash and impurities. Excluding the ash, etc., the range of fixed carbon and the volatile combustible 7.27 to 15.38, the corresponding carbon ratios, or C + Vol. H.C. being from 12.75 to 5.41.

Semi-bituminous Coals.—10 analyses of Penna. and Maryland coals fixed carbon 68.41 to 84.80, volatile matter 11.2 to 17.24, and ash, with impurities 4 to 13.99. The percentage of the fuel constituents is fixed, 79.44 to 88.80, volatile combustible 11.20 to 20.16, and the carbon ratio 4.66.

American Semi-bituminous and Bituminous Coals

(Selected chiefly from various papers in Trans. A. I. M. E.)

	Moisture.	Vol. Hydro-carbon.	Fixed Carbon	Ash.
Penna. Semi-bituminous :				
Broad Top, extremes of 5.....	1.79	13.84	78.46	5.00
.....	1.78	17.38	76.14	4.81
Somerset Co., extremes of 5.....	1.37	14.33	77.77	6.53
.....	1.89	18.51	65.50	10.62
Blair Co., average of 5.....	1.07	20.72	60.77	2.45
Cambria Co., average of 7, { lower bed, B.	0.74	21.21	68.94	7.51
Cambria Co., 1, { upper bed, C.	1.14	17.18	73.42	6.58
Cambria Co., South Fork, 1.....	15.51	78.60	5.94
Centre Co., 1.....	0.90	22.60	68.71	6.80
Clearfield Co., average of 9, { upper bed, C.	0.70	23.94	69.23	4.62
Clearfield Co., average of 8, { lower bed, D.	0.81	21.10	74.08	3.98
Clearfield Co., range of 17 anal..	{ 0.41 to 1.94	{ 20.09 to 25.19	{ 66.60 to 74.02	{ 2.65 to 7.65
Bituminous :				
Jefferson Co., average of 26.....	1.21	32.53	60.99	3.76
Clarion Co., average of 7.....	1.97	34.60	54.15	4.10
Armstrong Co., 1.....	1.18	47.55	49.69	4.54
Connellsville Coal.....	1.26	30.10	59.61	8.23
Coke from Conn'ville (Standard)	.49	0.01	87.46	11.32
Youghioheny Coal.....	1.03	38.40	59.05	3.61
Pittsburgh, Ocean Mine.....	.28	39.09	57.38	3.30

The percentage of volatile matter in the Kittanning lower bed B and Freeport lower bed D increases with great uniformity from east to west.

	Volatile Matter	Fixed Carbon
Clearfield Co., bed D.....	30.09 to 35.19	65.34 to 74.11
" " " B.....	22.50 to 26.13	64.37 to 69.66
Clarion Co., " B.....	35.70 to 42.55	47.51 to 55.00
" " " D.....	37.15 to 40.80	51.30 to 56.80

Connellsville Coal and Coke. (Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. 18.) The Connellsville coal-field, in the southwestern part of Pennsylvania, is a strip about 8 miles wide and 60 miles in length. The mine workings are confined to the Pittsburgh seam, which here has its best development in size, and its quality best adapted to coke-making. It generally attains from 7 to 8 feet of coal.

The following analyses by T. T. Morrell show about its range of composition :

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed C.	Ash	Sulphur	Phos.
Herold Mine.....	1.26	28.83	60.79	8.44	67
Kintz Mine.....	0.70	31.91	56.40	9.52	1.32

In comparing the composition of coals across the Appalachian belt of western section of Pennsylvania, it will be noted that the Connellsville variety occupies a peculiar position between the rather dry semi-bituminous westward of it and the fat bituminous coals backing it up to the south. The Connellsville or Pittsburgh coal bed occurs at the base of the "barren measures" separating it from the coal measures of Western Pennsylvania. The Connellsville

similarity in composition in the coals of these upper and lower beds in the same geographical belt or basin.

from the Upper Coal-measures (Penna.) in a Westward Order.

Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Sulphur.
.... 1.35	3.45	89.06	5.81	0.39
.... 0.89	15.52	74.28	9.29	0.71
.... 1.66	22.85	68.77	5.98	1.24
.... ..	31.98	62.30	7.24	1.09
.... 1.02	33.50	61.34	3.28	0.86
.... 1.41	37.66	54.44	5.86	0.64

from the Lower Coal-measures in a Westward Order.

Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Sulphur.
.... 1.35	3.45	89.06	5.81	0.39
.... 0.77	18.18	73.34	8.69	1.02
.. 1.40	27.29	61.84	6.04	2.60
.... 1.18	16.54	74.46	5.96	1.86
.... 0.92	34.98	62.32	7.69	4.92
.... 0.96	38.20	52.94	5.14	3.66

the and Ohio Bituminous Coals. Variation of Coals of the same Beds in different Districts. Analyses in the reports of the Pennsylvania Geological Survey are selected. They are divided into different groups, analysis in each group is given, ash and other impurities and the percentage in 100 of combustible matter being

	No. of Analyses	Fixed Carbon	Vol. H. C.	Carbon Ratio.
Bed, upper bench.....	5			
Ship, Greene Co.....		59.72	40.28	1.48
Ship, Washington Co.....		53.22	46.78	1.13
Bed, lower bench.....	9			
Ship, Greene Co.....		60.69	39.31	1.54
Ship, Washington Co.....		54.31	45.69	1.19
Bed.....	3			
Greene Co.....		64.39	35.61	1.80
West, Greene Co.....		60.35	39.65	1.52
Bed:				
Washington Co.....		60.87	39.13	1.65
.....		59.11	40.89	1.29
.....		63.54	36.46	1.74
.....		50.97	49.03	1.04
.....		61.80	38.20	1.61
Greene Co.....	3	54.33	45.67	1.19
Washington Co., average		66.44	33.56	1.98
Greene Co.....	1	57.83	42.17	1.37
Anti-bituminous (showing	8	79.73	20.27	3.53
mat. to the eastward)		75.47	24.53	3.07
.....	7			
Georgetown.....		40.68	59.32	0.68
Georgetown.....		62.57	37.43	1.66
Ohio:				
Bed in Ohio:				
Ohio.....		61.45	38.55	1.50
Ohio.....		63.46	36.54	1.73
Ohio.....		66.14	33.86	1.95
Ohio.....		63.46	36.54	1.73
Ohio.....		64.93	35.07	1.85
Ohio.....		60.92	39.08	
Ohio.....		62.33	37.67	

Analyses of Southern and Western Coals

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed C.
OHIO.			
Hocking Valley,	5.00	32.80	53.15
.....	7.40	29.20	60.45
MARYLAND.			
Cumberland,	95	19.12	72.70
.....	1.03	15.47	75.51
VIRGINIA.			
South of James River, 23 analyses, range	from 0.67 to 2.46	27.38	46.70
Average of 23,	1.48	32.24	67.83
North of James River, eastern outcrop,	0.40	18.60	71.00
.....	1.79	23.06	59.24
Carbonite or Natural Coke,	1.57	9.04	79.93
.....	1.56	14.26	81.61
Western outcrop, 11 analyses, range	from to ..	21.33	54.37
Average of 11,	30.50	70.40
Poconthas Flat-top* (Castner & Curran's Circular)	0.52	25.06	63.75
West Virginia (New River.)	0.63	23.90	74.20
.....	16.48	75.22
Quinnimont,† 3 analyses,	from 0.76 to 0.91	17.57	75.90
.....	0.84	18.19	72.40
Nuttallburgh*,	1.85	20.50	62.00
.....	25.35	70.67
VIRGINIA AND KENTUCKY.			
Big Stone Gap Field,‡ 9 analyses, range	from 0.80 to 2.01	31.44	54.80
.....	39.27	63.50
KENTUCKY.			
Pulaski Co., 3 analyses, range	from 1.26 to 1.32	25.15	60.96
.....	39.44	52.48
Muhlenberg Co., 4 analyses, range	from 3.60 to 7.06	30.60	38.80
.....	34.70	53.70
Kentucky Cannel Coals,§ 5 analyses, range	from to	40.30	50.40 cold
.....	65.30	33.70 cold
TENNESSEE.			
Scott Co., Range of several, ..	from 70 to 1.83	32.33	45.61
.....	41.20	61.60
Roane Co., Rockwood,	1.75	26.62	60.11
Hamilton Co., Melville,	2.73	35.50	67.08
Marion Co., Elba,	04	23.72	63.94
Sewanee Co., Tracy City,	1.60	29.30	61.00
Kelly Co., Whiteside,	1.30	21.80	74.20
GEORGIA.			
Dade Co.,	1.30	23.05	60.30
ALABAMA.			
Warren Field:			
Jefferson Co., Birmingham, ..	3.01	42.76	44.31
" " Black Creek,	12	26.11	71.44
Tuscaloosa Co.,	1.50	26.23	54.44
Cahaba Field, { Helena Vein, ..	2.00	32.90	57.03
Bibb Co., { Coke Vein,	1.78	20.60	64.24

* Analyses of Poconthas Coal by John Patterson, P. C. S., 1887.

	C.	H.	O.	N.	S.	Ash.	Water.
Lumps, ..	86.51	4.44	4.95	0.66	0.61	1.54	1.23
Small, ..	83.15	4.29	5.33	0.66	0.56	4.63	1.40

Calorific value, by Thomson's Calorimeter: Lumps = 15.4 (evaporated from and at 212°; small = 14.7 lbs.

† These coals are coked in bucket ovens, and yield from 65 to 75%.

‡ This field covers about 120 square miles in Virginia, and 20 miles in Kentucky.

§ The principal use of the cannel coals is for enriching pig iron, and for other purposes including moisture.

from Morgan, Rhea, Anderson, and

KABANA COALS. (W. B. Phillips, Eng. & M. J., June 3, 1893.)

of	Location.	Proximate.		Ultimate.					
		Vol. and Combust. Matter.	Fixed Carbon.	Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Nitrogen.	Sulphur.	Ash.
Orth	Helena.....	34.30	60.50	73.23	7.98	11.92	1.07	0.60	5.50
	Pratt mines.....	33.45	63.20	75.82	10.52	7.51	1.73	1.07	2.00
ood	Brookwood.....	32.80	58.70	72.47	10.38	1.60	0.40	1.65	11.90
ock	Blotion.....	34.80	60.60	72.75	8.61	11.12	1.48	1.44	2.65
ood	".....	35.05	57.30	70.82	10.19	9.98	1.31	0.68	5.35
	Pratt mines.....	31.55	64.95	75.05	9.81	8.95	1.62	0.97	2.35
	Brookwood.....	30.50	60.30	73.96	10.50	9.57	1.62	1.15	2.30
	Blue Creek.....	25.80	60.90	72.68	10.77	9.83	1.39	1.03	2.80
	Coalburg.....	32.55	65.57	74.59	10.58	9.48	1.31	1.32	1.90
	30.15	52.80	60.87	10.70	9.00	1.26	1.72	16.30

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed C.	Aash.	Sulphur.
TEXAS.					
Libe	3.54	30.84	50.69	14.93	
Field, Vein I	1.91	20.04	62.71	15.35	
" " II	1.37	16.42	68.18	13.02	
" " III	0.84	20.35	50.18	10.63	
" " IV	0.45	21.6	45.75	29.1	3.15
INDIANA.					
anal. average.*	2.10	37.35	57.95	2.60	
Lafayette	13.05	32.34	48.78	5.81	
Sand Creek†	4.50	91.00		4.50	
ILLINOIS.‡					
	8.22	39.40	43.95	8.43	
	7.20	38.88	45.30	8.60	
	11.00	32.55	53.00	8.65	
	5.78	48.70	45.37	6.15	
	8.45	34.99	44.50	12.06	
	10.80	27.32	44.28	37.10	
	6.86	26.40	59.84	7.40	
ale	8.66	23.54	60.60	7.00	
do	6.12	24.68	66.50	2.70	
don	6.27	57.11	26.30	10.32	

Black Coal (J. S. Alexander, Trans. A. I. M. E., iv. 100).—The block coal of the Brazil (Indiana) district differs in chemical composition but little from the coking coals of Western Pennsylvania. The difference, however, is quite marked; the latter has a cuboid structure up of bituminous particles lying against each other, so that under action of heat fusion throughout the mass readily takes place, while coal is formed of alternate layers of rich bituminous matter and a siliceous substance, which is not only very slow of combustion, but so the transmission of heat that agglutination is prevented, and the runs away layer by layer, retaining its form until consumed.

Analysis by E. T. Cox: C, 72.94; H, 4.50; O, 11.77; N, 1.73; ash, 4.50; vol. 1.50.

Illinois coals are extremely variable in character. The above analysis is given in D. L. Barnes's paper on "American Locomotive Practice," p. 10, C. E. 1893, except the last, the Staunton coal, which is by Hunt (Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 266). The Staunton coal is remarkable for its percentage of volatile matter, but it is excelled in this

Nixon's Navigation Welsh Coal is remarkably pure, contains not more than 3 to 4 per cent of ashes, giving 88 per cent of lustrous coke. The quantity of fixed carbon it contains would be among the dry coals, but on account of its coke and its intense combustion it belongs to the class of fat, or long flaming coals.

Chemical analysis gave the following results: Carbon, 80.37; hydrogen, 4.39; sulphur, .69; nitrogen, .49; oxygen (difference), 4.16.

The analysis showed the following composition of the volatile part: Carbon, 22.53; hydrogen, 31.90; $O + N + S$, 42.51.

The heat of combustion was found to be, as a result of several experiments, 8864 calories for the unit of weight. Calculated according to composition, the heat of combustion would be 8805 calories = 13,520 thermal units per pound.

This coal is generally used in trial-trips of steam vessels in Great Britain.

Sampling Coal for Analysis.—J. P. Kimball, Trans. A. I. M. E., xii, 317, says: The unsuitable sampling of a coal seam, or the preparation of the sample in the laboratory, often gives rise to errors in determinations of the ash so wide in range as to vitiate the analysis for practical purposes; every other single determination, excepting one, showing its relative part of the error. The determination of volatile ash are especially liable to error, as they are intimately associated with the ash.

Wm. Forsyth, in his paper on The Heating Value of Western Coal, News, Jan. 17, 1893, says: This trouble in getting a fairly average sample of anthracite coal has compelled the Reading R. R. Co., in getting their coal to take as much as 300 lbs. for one sample, drawn direct from the dump, it stands ready for shipment.

The directions for collecting samples of coal for analysis at the C. & P. laboratory are as follows:

Two samples should be taken, one marked "average," the other "best." Each sample should contain about 10 lbs., made up of lumps about the size of an orange taken from different parts of the dump or car, and so that they shall represent as nearly as possible, first, the average lot, and second, the best coal.

An example of the difference between an "average" and a "best" sample, taken from Mr. Forsyth's paper, is the following of an Illinois coal:

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed Carbon.	Ash.
Average	1.30	27.69	85.41	3.34
Select	1.00	34.70	49.33	15.17

The theoretical evaporative power of the former was 2.13 lbs. of steam from and at 212° per lb. of coal, and that of the latter 14.14 lbs.

Relative Value of Fine Sizes of Anthracite.—The fact that on a grate coal-dust is commercially valueless, the finest commercial anthracites being sold at the following rates per ton at the mine, according to a recent address by Mr. Eckley B. Cox (1893):

Size.	Range of Size.	Price at Mine.
Chestnut.....	1½ to ¾ inch	\$4.25
Pecan.....	¾ to 9/16	1.25
Buckwheat.....	9/16 to 3/8	0.75
Rice.....	¾ to 3/16	0.25
Barley.....	3/16 to 2/32	0.10

But when coal is reduced to an impalpable dust, a method of use becomes possible to which even the finest of these sizes is adapted; the coal may be blown in as dust, mixed with its proper quantity of air, and no grate at all is then required.

Pressed Fuel.—E. F. Lonsau, Trans. A. I. M. E., viii, 341. Pressed fuel has been made from anthracite dust by mixing the dust with 10 per cent of its bulk of dry pitch, which is prepared by separating the volatile matter at a temperature of 572° F. The volatile matter it contains. The mixture is heated by steam to 213°, at which temperature the pitch acquires its cementing properties, and is passed between two rollers, on the periphery of which are milled out a series of semi-oval cavities. The lumped mixture, about the size of an egg, drop out under the rollers on a screen, which carries them to a screen in eight minutes, which time is sufficient to cool the lumps, and they are then ready for delivery.

The enterprise of making the pressed fuel above described was successful on account of the low price of other fuels. If the pressed fuel "lumps" are regularly made of coal dust, the price of the fuel will be reduced.

THE VALUE OF STEAM COALS.

A coal may be determined, with more or less approximation, by three different methods.

1st, by analysis; 2d, by combustion in a coal calorimeter; 3d, in a boiler. The first two methods give what may be called heating value, the third gives the practical value.

The first two methods depend on the precision of the calorimetry adopted, and upon the care and skill of the analyst. The results of the third method are subject to numerous sources of error, and may be taken as approximately true only under conditions under which the test is made. Analysis gives with considerable accuracy the heating value which would be obtained under the conditions of perfect combustion and complete products produced. A boiler test gives the actual result under conditions of imperfect combustion, and of numerous and variable conditions, such as the extent of heating surface, method of firing, etc., of the particular coal tested, and it may give results which, if these conditions are adverse or unsuitable to the

tests being so extremely variable, their use for the determination of the relative steaming values of different coals has led to erroneous conclusions. A notable instance is found in the tests made in 1844, the only extensive series of tests ever made. He reported the steaming value of the Union Co.'s coal to be far the lowest of all the anthracites, easily explained by an examination of the conditions under which the test, which were entirely unsuited to that coal. It was for Pittsburgh coal which is far beneath that now in practice, his low result being chiefly due to the use

of a Proposed Apparatus for Determining the Heating Value (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv, 727) the author described an apparatus designed to test fuel on a large scale, avoiding the boiler test. It consists of a fire-brick furnace enclosed in two cylindrical shells containing a great number of tubes cooled by cooling water and through which the gases pass being cooled. No steam is generated in the apparatus, the product of the weight of the water passed through the tubes and the increase in temperature is the measure of the heating

value. A difference of opinion concerning the value of chemical analysis of approximating the heating power of coal. It is stated by Kestner and Fleischer-Dollfus, in their extensive series of tests in 1866, that the heating power as determined by chemical analysis is greater than that given to chemical analysis accord-

ing to Paris by M. Mahler, however, show a much closer agreement between calorimetric tests. A brief description of these tests by the French, may be found in an article by the author in *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vol. i, page 97.

The heating value is expressed by the formula,

$$\text{British Thermal Units} = 14,500C + 62,500 \left(H - \frac{O}{8} \right),$$

in which C is respectively the percentage of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, divided by 100. A study of M. Mahler's calorimetric tests shows a difference between the results of these tests and the heating power by Dulong's law in any single case is only a few units. Results of 31 tests show that Dulong's formula gives an average of 14,000 thermal units less than the calorimetric tests, the difference being over 14,000 thermal units, a difference of

about 10 per cent. The author's formula with Berthelot's figure for the heating value of hydrogen, gives the following formula,

$$= 14,650C + 62,025 \left(H - \frac{(O + N) - 1}{8} \right).$$

Mahler's calorimetric apparatus consists of a strong steel "bomb" immersed in water, proper precaution being taken to prevent this bomb, oxygen gas is introduced under a pressure of 30 to 25 atmospheres and the coal ignited explosively by an electric spark. Combustion is complete and instantaneous, the heat is radiated into the surrounding water weighing 2300 grams, and its quantity is determined by the rise in temperature of this water, due corrections being made for the heat capacity of the apparatus itself. The accuracy of the apparatus is remarkable, the tests giving results varying only about 2 parts in 1000.

The close agreement of the results of calorimetric tests when conducted, and of the heating power calculated from chemical analysis, indicates that either the chemical or the calorimetric method may be accepted as correct enough for all practical purposes for determining the heating power of coal. The results obtained by either method may be taken as a standard by which the results of a boiler test are compared, and the difference between the total heating power, and that of the boiler test is a measure of the inefficiency of the boiler under the conditions of any particular test.

In practice with good anthracite coal, in a steam-boiler properly fitted, and with all conditions favorable, it is possible to obtain steam 80% of the total heat of combustion of the coal. This result was obtained in the tests at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876, in five boilers. An efficiency of 70% to 75% may easily be obtained in regular practice. With bituminous coals it is difficult to obtain as close an approach to the theoretical maximum of economy, for the reason that some of the combustible portion of the coal escapes unburned, the difficulty lying rapidly as the content of volatile matter increases beyond 20%. In most coals of the Western States it is with difficulty that as much as 65% of the theoretical efficiency can be obtained without the use of producers.

The chemical analysis heretofore referred to is the ultimate analysis, giving the percentage of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen of the dry coal. It gives, however, from a study of Mahler's tests that the proximate analysis gives fixed carbon, volatile matter, moisture, and ash, may be taken as giving a measure of the heating value with a limit of error of only 1%. After deducting the moisture and ash, and calculating the fixed carbon percentage of the coal dry and free from ash, the author has constructed the following table:

APPROXIMATE HEATING VALUE OF COALS.

Percentage F. C. in Coal Dry and Free from Ash.	Heating Value B.T.U. per lb. Comb'le.	Equiv. Water Evap. from and at 212° per lb. Combustible.	Percentage F. C. in Coal Dry and Free from Ash.	Heating Value B.T.U. per lb. Comb'le.	Equiv. Water Evap. from and at 212° per lb. Combustible.
100	14500	15.00	88	15180	15.18
97	14700	15.38	83	15130	15.13
94	15120	15.65	60	14560	15.06
90	15480	16.03	57	14010	14.01
87	15660	16.31	54	13720	13.72
80	15840	16.40	51	12600	12.60
72	15600	16.21	50	12240	12.24

Below 50% the law of decrease of heating-power shown in the table actually does not hold, as some cannel coals and lignites show much heating power than would be predicted from their chemical constitution.

The use of this table may be shown as follows:

Given a coal containing moisture 25, ash 5%, fixed carbon 61% and volatile matter 25, what is its probable heating value? Deducting moisture and ash we find the fixed carbon is 61.30 or 62% of the total of fixed carbon and volatile matter. One pound of the coal dry and free from ash would, from the table, have a heating value of 15,180 thermal units, but as the ash and moisture, having no heating value, are 10% of the total weight of the coal, the coal would have 90% of the table value, or 13,662 thermal units. The steam at 212° gives an equivalent weight of 15.18 lbs. of steam at 212° gives an equivalent weight of 1 lb. of coal.

that can be obtained in practice from this coal would efficiency of the boiler, and this largely upon the difficulty of driving its volatile combustible matter in the boiler furnace. If 65% could be obtained, then the evaporation per lb. of coal would be $11.42 \times .65 = 9.37$ lbs.

Anthracite coal, in which the combustible portion is, say, 97% of volatile matter, the highest result that can be expected in all conditions favorable is 12.2 lbs. of water evaporated per lb. of combustible, which is 80% of 15.28 lbs., the theoretical. With the best semi-bituminous coals, such as Cumberland, in which the fixed carbon is 80% of the total combustible 70% of the theoretical 16.4 lbs., may be obtained. For a fixed carbon ratio of 68%, 11 lbs., or 65% of the theoretical, about the best practically obtainable with the best boilers. Anthracite coals, with a fixed carbon ratio of 60%, 10 lbs., or 60% of 15.09 lbs., has been obtained, under favorable conditions, directly over the furnace. With coals mined west of Ohio, however, the boiler efficiency is not apt to be as high as 60%. Here a table of probable maximum boiler-test results from fixed carbon ratios may be constructed as follows:

Fixed carbon ratio, per cent.....	97	80	68	60	54	50
Evaporation, per lb. combustible, maximum in boiler tests:						
.....	12.2	12.5	11	10	8.9	7.0
Evaporation, per lb. combustible, imperfect combustion, etc.:	80	76	69	66	60	55
.....	30	24	31	31	40	45

Between the loss of 20% with anthracite and the greater loss with the more highly volatile coals sending up the chimney the smoke and unburned hydrocarbon gases. It is a measure of the boiler furnace and of the inefficiency of heating, the deposition of soot, the latter being primarily caused by the deposition of the ordinary furnace and its unsuitability to the bituminous coal. If in a boiler-test with an ordinary furnace are obtained than those in the above table, it is an indication of bad conditions, such as bad firing, wrong proportions of draft, and the like, which are remediable. Higher results may be obtained with gas-producers, or other styles of furnace especially smokeless combustion.

Furnace Adapted for Different Coals.

(From the "The Evaporative Power of Bituminous Coals," Trans. A.S.M.E.)—Almost any kind of a furnace will be found well adapted for anthracite coals and semi-bituminous coals containing volatile matter. Probably the best furnace for burning these coals contain between 20% and 40% volatile matter, including the Welsh, Nova Scotia, and the Pittsburgh and Monongahela. A plain grate bar furnace with a fire-brick arch thrown over the grate, or keeping the combustion-chamber thoroughly hot. The coals containing over 40% volatile matter will be a furnace of brick with a large combustion-chamber, and some special introduction of very hot air to the gases distilled from the coal. A separate gas-producer and combustion-chamber, with a hot air duct, both air and gas before they unite in the combustion-chamber of furnace to be especially avoided in burning all coals containing over 20% of volatile matter is the ordinary furnace. The boiler is set directly above the grate bars, and in which the gases of the boiler are directly exposed to radiation from the grate.

The question of admitting air above the grate is still unsettled. An *Engineer* recently said: "All our experience, extending over many years, goes to show that when the production of smoke is prevented by devices for admitting air, either there is an increase in the production of steam, or a diminution in the production of steam. * * * The latter yet devised is a good fireman."

Draught Furnaces.—Recent experiments show that a considerable saving may be made by causing the gases to pass upwards from the freshly-fired coal through the hot coal. Good results are also obtained by the upward draught of the coal under the bed of hot coal instead of on top. (S. S. S.)

Calorimetric Tests of American Coals.—Tests of American and foreign coals, made with an analyzer (Geo. H. Barrus (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xiv, 816), the following showing the range of variation:

	Percentage of Ash.	Total Heat of Combustion, B. T. U.
<i>Semi-bituminous.</i>		
George's Cr'k, Cumberland, Md., 10 tests	6.1	14,770
	6.6	14,770
	8.2	14,770
Pocahontas, Va., 5 tests	6.2	14,600
	6.5	14,600
New River, Va., 6 tests	5.7	14,500
Elk Garden, Va., 1 test	7.8	14,100
Welsh, 1 test	7.7	14,300
<i>Bituminous.</i>		
Youghiogheny, Pa., lump	5.9	14,600
" " slack	10.2	14,200
Frontenac, Kansas	17.7	14,000
Cape Breton, (Caledonia)	8.7	14,400
Lancashire, Eng.	6.8	14,100
	10.5	14,200
<i>Anthracite, 11 tests.</i>		
	9.1	14,200

Evaporative Power of Bituminous Coals

(Tests with Babcock & Wilcox Boilers, Trans. A. S. M. E.,

Name of Coal.	Duration of Test.	Grate Surface, sq. ft.	Heating Surface, sq. ft.	Percentage of Refuse.	Coal burned per sq. ft. of grate, pounds.	Water evaporated per sq. ft. of Heating Surface per hour, pounds.	Water per pound Coal from and at 212°, lbs.
1. Welsh	13½ hrs	40	1039	7.5	6.9	2.07	11.2
2. Anthracite ser's 1/3							
Powerton, Pa.	10½ h	60	8120	8.8	17.0	4.52	11.2
Semi-bit 4/5							
3. Pittsburgh fine slack	4 hrs	83.7	1079	12.3	21.0	4.47	8.15
" 3d Pool lump	10 "	43.5	2760	4.8	27.5	4.76	10.0
4. Castle Shannon, nr Pittsburgh, ¾ nut.	42¾ h	68.1	4751	10.5	27.9	4.13	10.0
" lump.							
5. Ill. " run of mine "	6 days		1100			2.41	9.0
" Ind. block, " very good "	3 d'ys		1190			2.95	9.6
6. Jackson, O., nut ..	8 hrs	18	3358	9.0	32.1	4.11	8.20
" Staunton, Ill. nut ..	8 "	60	3450	17.7	25.1	2.97	5.00
7. Renton screenings.	5 h 50 m	21.2	1564	13.8	31.5	2.85	6.80
" Wellington ser'gs.	6 h 30 m	21.2	1564	18.3	37	2.93	7.80
" Black Diam ser'gs	5 h 58 m	21.2	1564	19.3	36.4	3.11	6.20
" Seattle screenings.	6 h 24 m	21.2	1564	15.4	31.3	2.91	6.80
" Wellington lump	6 h 10 m	21.2	1564	13.8	28.2	3.52	9.00
" Cardiff lump	6 h 17 m	21.2	1564	11.7	26.7	3.69	10.00
" Smith P	23 m 21.2	1564	19.9	25.0	3.35	4.00	9.00
" Seattle	m 21.2	1564	19.9	25.0	3.35	4.00	9.00
	m 21.2	1564	19.9	25.0	3.35	4.00	9.00

1. London, England; 2. Peacedale, R. I.; 3. Cincinnati, O.; 4. Pa.; 5. Chicago, Ill.; 6. Springfield, O.; 7. San Francisco.

These tests the furnace was supplied with a fire-brick arch for the radiation of heat from the coal directly to the boiler.

Use of Coal. (I. P. Kimball, Trans. A. I. M. E., viii, 204).—The effect of the weathering of coal, while sometimes increasing its weight, is to diminish the quantity of carbon and disposable hydrogen to increase the quantity of oxygen and of indisposable hydrogen, a reduction in the calorific value.

Pyrites in coal tends to produce rapid oxidation and mechanical disintegration of the mass, with development of heat, loss of coking power, and spontaneous ignition.

Decidable results of the weathering of anthracite within the furnace of exposure of stocked coal are confined to the oxidation of pyrites. In coking coals, however, weathering reduces and weakens the coking power, while the pyrites are converted from the free into comparatively innocuous sulphates.

And that at a temperature of 158° to 180° Fahr., three coals lost on an average of 3.6% of calorific power. (See also paper by Kimball, Trans. A. I. M. E., iv, 35.)

COKE.

Solid material left after evaporating the volatile ingredients of coal by means of partial combustion in furnaces called coke ovens, or in the retorts of gas-works.

Gas coke is preferred to gas coke as fuel. It is of a dark-gray color, with metallic lustre, porous, brittle, and hard.

The weight of coke yielded by a given weight of coal is very different in different kinds of coal, ranging from 0.9 to 0.35.

Gas coke, on account of its porous texture, it readily attracts and retains water from the air, and sometimes, if it is kept without proper shelter, from 0.15 to 0.2 weight consists of moisture.

Analyses of Coke.

Report of John R. Procter, Kentucky Geological Survey.)

Where Made.	Fixed Carbon	Ash.	Sulphur.
Pa. (Average of 3 samples).....	88.96	9.74	0.810
Tenn. " " 4 "	80.51	16.34	1.595
Ala. " " 4 "	87.29	10.54	1.195
Va. " " 3 "	92.53	5.74	0.697
Ky. " " 7 "	93.33	5.69	0.749

Experiments in Coking. CONNELLSVILLE REGION.

(John Fulton, Amer. Mfr., Feb. 10, 1893.)

Coal Charged.	Ash made.	Fine Coke made.	Market Coke made.	Total Coke made.	Per cent of Yield.				Per Cent Lost.
					Ash.	Fine Coke.	Market Coke.	Total Coke.	
lb.	lb.	lb.	lb.	lb.					
2,430	99	985	7,518	7,903	00.40	3 10	60.53	63.63	35.67
1,050	30	369	6,580	6,939	00.81	3 24	59.33	62.57	36.42
1,120	77	272	5,418	5,690	00.81	2.98	59.41	62.39	36.77
1,020	74	349	5,334	5,683	00.82	3.87	59.13	63.00	36.18
1,350	840	1,385	24,860	26,215	00.82	3.28	59.66	62.94	36.04

show, in a general average, that Connellsville coal when coked in a beehive oven will yield 66.17% of marketable coke, and 0.83% of ash.

Recovery of By-products in Coke Manufacture

much considerable progress has been made in the recovery of the by-products of the coke-making process. The Hoffman-Otto oven has been most largely used, its use being that it is connected with regenerators. In 1884 41 systems were running, and in 1892 the number had increased to 100.

A Hoffman Otto oven in Westphalia takes a charge of 8½ tons of coal and converts it into coke in 48 hours. The product of an 1025 tons in the Ruhr district, 1170 tons in Silesia, and 960 tons in the Saar district. The yield from dry coal is 73% to 77% of coke, 2.5% to 3% of gas, 1.2% of sulphate of ammonia in the Ruhr district; 65% to 70% of gas, 4.5% of tar, and 1% to 1.25% of sulphate of ammonia in the Upper Silesia; and 68% to 72% of coke, 4% to 4.5% of tar and 1.8% to 1.9% of sulphate of ammonia in the Saar district. A group of 60 Hoffman ovens, therefore, the following:

District.	Coke, tons.	Tar, tons.
Ruhr	51,200	180
Upper Silesia.....	48,000	300
Saar.....	40,500	240

An oven which has been introduced lately into Germany with the recovery of by-products is the Semei-Solvay, which is smaller than the Hoffman Otto, and for this reason 73% to 77% of coke is produced, mixed with 23% to 25% of coal low in volatile matter, and 3% of gas. Mixtures of this kind yield a larger percentage of gas than ordinary coke. On the other hand, the amount of gas is lessened, and therefore the ammonia is not so great.

In the manufacture of coke from soft coal in retort ovens those constructed so as to save the by-products formed in the process of coking, the coke has the disadvantage of being more porous and more easily crushed cell-walls than when the same coal is coked in an ordinary beehive-oven.

References: F. W. Luerman, *Verein Deutscher Eisenhüttenleute*, *Iron Age*, March 31, 1892; *Amer. Mfr.*, April 28, 1893. An article on the manufacture of coke, by John Fulton, of the Pennsylvania Coal Co., is published in the *Colliery Engineer*, beginning in January, 1893.

Making Hard Coke.—J. J. Fronheller and C. S. Proctor, of the Erie Iron Co., Johnstown, Pa., have made an improvement in the manufacture by which coke of any degree of hardness may be made. It is accomplished by first grinding the coal to a coarse powder, and then mixing it with a hydrate of lime (air or water slacked) caustic lime in

the coke is very light, 38, 36, and 33 lbs. are regarded as a bushel, from 42 to 50 lbs. are given as the weight of a bushel; in this case could be quite heavy.

Use of the Distillation of Coal.—S. P. Saller's Handbook of Organic Chemistry gives a diagram showing over 50 chemical products derived from distillation of coal. The first derivatives are gas-liquor, coal-tar, and coke. From the gas-liquor are derived sulphate, chloride and carbonate of ammonia. The coal-tar into oils lighter than water or crude naphtha, oils heavier than water, dead oil or tar, commonly called creosote,—and pitch. Two former are derived a variety of chemical products.

From coal-tar there comes an almost endless chain of known combinations. The greatest industry based upon their use is the manufacture of dyes. The enormous extent to which this has grown can be judged from the fact that there are over 600 different coal-tar colors in use, and many more of which are too expensive for this purpose. Many medicinal preparations are derived from the series, pitch for paving purposes, and chemicals for paper, the rubber manufacturers and tanners, as well as for timber and cloths.

The position of the hydrocarbons in a soft coal is uncertain and quite variable, but the ultimate analysis of the average coal shows that it approximates nearly to the composition of CH_4 (marsh-gas). (W. H. Evans. A. I. M. E., xx, 625.)

WOOD AS FUEL.

When newly felled, contains a proportion of moisture which varies in different kinds and in different specimens, ranging between 10% and 40%, and being on an average about 40%. After 8 or 12 months' drying in the air the proportion of moisture is from 20 to 25%. This dryness, or almost perfect dryness if required, can be produced by drying in an oven supplied with air at about 240°F . When used as the fuel for that oven, 1 lb. of fuel suffices to expel 1 lb. of moisture from the wood. This is the result of experiments made by Mr. J. R. Napier. If air dried wood were used as fuel in an oven, from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of wood would probably be required to produce the same effect.

The specific gravity of different kinds of wood ranges from 0.3 to 1.2.

Dry wood contains about 50% of carbon, the remainder consisting chiefly of oxygen and hydrogen in the proportions which form the combustible family contain a small quantity of turpentine, which is carboniferous. The proportion of ash in wood is from 1% to 5%. The heat of combustion of all kinds of wood, when dry, is almost the same, and is that due to the 50% of carbon.

The fuel value is from Rankine; but according to the table by S. P. Sharpless (A. I. W., iv, 36), the ash varies from 0.03% to 1.30% in American woods. The fuel value, instead of being the same for all woods, ranges from 14,000 (white oak) to 5546 calories (for long-leaf pine) = 6600 to 6688 British units for dry wood, the fuel value of 0.50 lbs. carbon being 7272.

Fuel Value of Wood.—The following table is given in several references, authority and quality of coal referred to not stated. That of one cord of different woods (thoroughly air-dried) is about

Hard maple.....	4500 lbs. equal to 1800 lbs. coal. (Others give 3000.)
.....	3850 " " 1540 " " (" 1715.)
.....	3250 " " 1300 " " (" 1450.)
.....	3250 " " 940 " " (" 1050.)
.....	2000 " " 800 " " (" 925.)

As to the figures in the last column, it is said:

above it is safe to assume that $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of dry wood are equal to 1 lb. of soft coal and that the full value of the same weight of wood is very nearly the same—that is, a pound of hickory is more for fuel than a pound of pine, assuming both to be dry. It is not that the wood be dry, as each 10% of water or moisture in wood reduces about 12% from its value as fuel.

An average wood of the analysis C 51%, H 6.5%, O 42.0%, ash 0.5%, dry, its fuel value per pound, according to Dulong's formula, $V =$

$\left[14,500 \text{ C} + 92,000 \left(\text{H} - \frac{\text{O}}{8} \right) \right]$, is 8170 British thermal units. If the wood is air-dried in air, contains 25% of moisture, then the heating value of such wood is three quarters of 8170 = 6127 heat-units. The heat required to heat and evaporate the $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. of water from the atmosphere, and to heat the steam made from this water to the temperature of the chimney gases, say 150 heat-units per pound to heat the water to 212°, 966 units to evaporate it at that temperature, and 100 heat-units to raise the temperature of the steam to 420° F., or 1216 in all = 3311 heat-units which subtracted from the 6127, leaves 2816 heat-units as the net heat value of the wood per pound, or about 0.4 that of a pound of carbon.

Composition of Wood.

(Analysis of Woods, by M. Eugene Chevallier.)

Woods.	Composition.			
	Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Nitrogen
Beech	49.36%	6.01%	42.00%	0.91%
Oak	49.64	5.92	41.16	1.29
Birch	50.20	6.20	41.62	1.15
Poplar	49.37	6.31	41.00	0.96
Willow	49.96	5.96	39.56	0.96
Average	49.70%	6.06%	41.30%	1.0%

The following table, prepared by M. Violette, shows the proportion of water expelled from wood at gradually increasing temperatures.

Temperature.	Water Expelled from 100 Parts of Wood.		
	Oak.	Ash.	Elm.
25° Fahr.	15.26	14.78	15.32
302° Fahr.	17.03	16.19	17.04
347° Fahr.	32.13	21.22	36.91
391° Fahr.	35.80	27.51	32.39
442° Fahr.	44.31	33.38	40.56

The wood operated upon had been kept in store during two years. Wood which has been strongly dried by means of artificial heat exposed to the atmosphere, it reabsorbs about as much water as it lost in its air-dried state.

A cord of wood = $4 \times 4 \times 8 = 128$ cu. ft. About 50% solid wood, the rest being interstitial spaces. (Marcus Ball, Phila. 1829. J. C. I. W., vol. i, p. 10.)

B. E. Fernow gives the per cent of solid wood in a cord as determined by analysis in Prussia (J. C. I. W., vol. iii, p. 20):

Timber cords, 74.05% = 80 cu. ft. per cord;
 Firewood cords (over 6" diam.), 69.14% = 75 cu. ft. per cord;
 " Billet " cords (over 3" diam.), 55.55% = 60 cu. ft. per cord;
 " Brush " woods less than 3" diam., 15.32%; Roots, 37.0%.

CHARCOAL.

Charcoal is made by evaporating the volatile constituents of wood, either by a partial combustion of a conical heap of the material, covered with a layer of earth, or by the combustion of a portion of fuel in a furnace, in which are placed retorts containing wood to be charred.

According to Nolet, 100 parts by weight of wood when charred by the ordinary method yields 17 to 22 parts by weight of charcoal, and when charred by the retort process 25 to 30 parts.

The ordinary condition of the wood used in the manufacture of charcoal consists of moisture 30 to 40 per cent, or 3 to 4 of the green weight of the wood, and in an average nearly half of the

uring the partial combustion in a heap, and about one quarter distillation in a retort.

parts by weight of wood in a retort, 12½ parts of wood must the furnace. Hence in this process the whole expenditure of ice from 28 to 30 parts of charcoal is 112½ parts; so that if the charcoal obtained is compared with the whole weight of wood amount is from 25% to 27%; and the proportion lost is on an $\frac{87\frac{1}{2}}{31\frac{1}{2}} = 0.3$, nearly.

to Peclet, good wood charcoal contains about 0.07 of its weight proportion of ash in peat charcoal is very variable, and is estimated on average at about 0.18. (Rankine.)

information concerning charcoal may be found in the Journal of the Workers' Arsen., vols. i. to vi. From this source the following been taken:

Charcoal from a Cord of Wood.—From 45 to 50 cord in the kiln, and from 30 to 35 in the milder. Prof. Egles, A. I. M. E., viii. 395, says the yield from kilns in the Lake region is often from 50 to 60 bushels for hard wood and 50 for the average is about 50 bushels.

ent yield per cord depends largely upon whether the cord is a 24 cu. ft. or not.

months' test of a kiln at Goodrich, Tenn., Dr. H. M. Pierce found follows: Dimensions of kiln—inside diameter of base, 28 ft. 8 in.; ing of arch, 26 ft. 8 in.; height of walls, 8 ft.; rise of arch, 5 ft.; cords. Highest yield of charcoal per cord of wood (measured) a lowest 50.14 bushels, average 53.65 bushels.

ages 12, length of each turn or period from one charging to days. (J. C. I. W., vol. vi p. 26.)

from Different Methods of Charcoal-making.

Methods.	Character of Wood used.	Yield, per cent. of Volume	Yield, per cent. of Weight	Bushels of Charcoal per Cord of Wood.	Weight in Lbs. per Bushel of Charcoal.
Experiments in retorts, fuel ex-	Birch dried at 290 F.	85.9			
retorts, fuel in-	Air dry, av. good yellow pine weighing abt. 28 lbs. per cu. ft.	77.0	28.9	63.4	15.7
Results, av. results.	Good dry fir and pine, mixed.	85.8	24.2	64.2	15.7
Results, av. results.	Poor wood, mixed fir and pine	81.0	27.7	66.7	19.9
Smelters excep-	Fir and white pine wood, mixed. Av. 25 lbs. per cu. ft.	70.0	25.8	62.0	13.3
Smelters, av. results.	Av. good yellow pine weighing abt. 25 lbs. per cu. ft.	72.2	24.7	50.5	13.3
Smelters, av. re-		52.5	18.3	43.9	13.3
		54.7	22.0	45.0	17.5
		42.9	17.1	35.0	17.5

Consumption of Charcoal in Blast-furnaces per Ton of Pig.—Average consumption according to census of 1880, 1.14 tons per ton of pig. The consumption at the best furnaces is much lower. As low as 0.853 ton, is recorded of the Morgan furnace; as 0.858; Elk Rapids, 0.884. (1892)

Properties of Water and of Gases by Charcoal.—Svedelius, a book for charcoal-burners, prepared for the Swedish Government. Fresh charcoal, also reheated charcoal, contains scarcely any water, but when cooled it absorbs it very rapidly. That after cooling, it may contain 4% to 8% of water. The moisture of charcoal may not increase, but at 100 to 150, or an average of 125 degrees Fahrenheit, then, to contain about 81 parts of water, and 1 part hydrogen.

M. Saussure, operating with blocks of fine boxwood charcoal burnt, found that by simply placing such blocks in contact with gases they absorbed them in the following proportion:

Volumes.	
Ammonia	90.00
Hydrochloric acid gas.....	85.00
Sulphurous acid	65.00
Sulphuretted hydrogen	55.00
Nitrous oxide (laughing-gas) ..	40.00
Carbonic acid.....	35.00
Carbonic oxide.....	30.00
Oxygen.....	25.00
Nitrogen	20.00
Carburated hydrogen.....	15.00
Hydrogen.....	10.00

It is this enormous absorptive power that renders of so much comparative slight sprinkling of charcoal over dead animal and preventive of the escape of odors arising from decomposition.

In a box or case containing one cubic foot of charcoal may without mechanical compression a little over nine cubic feet of gas representing a mechanical pressure of one hundred and twenty to the square inch. From the store thus preserved the oxygen is drawn by a small hand-pump.

Composition of Charcoal Produced at Various Temperatures. (By M. Violette.)

Temperature of Carbonization.		Composition of the Solid Product.			
		Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Nitrogen and Loss.
		Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1	150° Fahr. 302°	47.51	6.12	46.29	0.08
2	210 392	51.82	3.99	43.98	0.23
3	250 482	55.59	4.81	38.97	0.63
4	300 592	73.24	4.25	21.20	0.27
5	350 662	76.64	4.14	18.44	0.61
6	432 810	81.64	4.93	15.34	1.61
7	1023 1873	81.97	2.30	14.15	1.60

The wood experimented on was that of black alder, or alder which furnishes a charcoal suitable for gunpowder. It was dried at 150 deg. C. = 302 deg. F.

MISCELLANEOUS SOLID FUELS.

Dust Fuel Dust Explosions.—Dust when mixed in air in such extreme rapidity as in some cases to cause explosions. Flour-mills have been attributed to ignition of the dust in certain experiments in England in 1876 on the effect of coal dust in carrying travel 50 yards. Prof. F. A. Abel (Trans. A. I. M. E., xii, 391) reports that in mines much promotes and extends explosions, and that dust is brought into operation as a fiercely burning agent which flame rapidly as far as its mixture with air extends, and will operate as an explosive agent though the medium of a very small proportion of dust in the air of the mine. The explosive violence of the combination is largely due to the instantaneous heating and consequent expansion of air. (See also paper on "Coal Dust as an Explosive Agent," by Raymond Trans. A. I. M. E. 1894.) Experiments made in Germany show that pulverized fuel may be burned without smoke, and with economy. The fuel, instead of being introduced into the fire by means of a grate, is first reduced to a powder by pulverization, and then blown into the place of the ordinary boiler fire-box there is a series of a closed furnace lined with fire-brick, and a similar in construction to those used to burn gas, and a constant stream of the fuel is blown into the furnace, and it scatters the powder through

fire-box. When this powder is once ignited, and it is very dry, by first raising the lining to a high temperature by an open furnace continues in an intense and regular manner under the current of air which carries it in. (*Mfrs. Record*, April, 1893.) Fuel was used in the Crompton rotary puddling-furnace at Wensley, England, in 1873. (*Jour. I. & S. I.*, 1873, p. 91.)

Turf, as usually dried in the air, contains from 25% to 30% of water, must be allowed for in estimating its heat of combustion. This water, when evaporated, the analysis of M. Regnault gives, in 100 parts of dry peat of the best quality: C 56%, H 6%, O 31%, Ash 5%. In samples of peat the quantity of ash is greater, amounting to 7% to 11%.

The gravity of peat in its ordinary state is about 0.4 or 0.5. It can be dried by machinery to a much greater density. (Rankine.) An engine, in 1811, gives as the average composition of dried Irish peat: C 56%, H 6%, N 1.35%, Ash 4%.

Applying Dulong's formula to this analysis, we obtain for the heating value of dry peat 10,260 heat-units per pound, and for air-dried peat containing 10% moisture, after making allowance for evaporating the water, 8,300 per pound.

Tan as Fuel.—The heating power of sawdust is naturally the same as that of the wood from which it is derived, but if allowed to become more like spent tan (which see below). The conditions necessitating sawdust are that plenty of room should be given it in the furnace, sufficient air supplied on the surface of the mass. The same savings, refuse lumber, etc. Sawdust is frequently burned in the furnace, by being blown into the furnace by a fan-blast.

Tan in Manufacture. It has been successfully used as fuel by the Cable Railways. It was mixed with soft coal and burned in an ordinary boiler with a fire-brick arch.

Tan Bark as Fuel.—Tan, or oak bark, after having been used in the process of tanning, is burned as fuel. The spent tan consists of the inner part of the bark. According to M. Peclet, five parts of oak bark contain one part of dry tan; and the heating power of perfectly dry tan, of 100 parts of ash, is 6100 English units; whilst that of tan in an ordinary mass, containing 30% of water, is only 4384 English units. The heating power, after evaporating from and at 212° by one pound of tan, equivalent heating powers, is, for perfectly dry tan, 5.46 lbs., for tan with 30% water, 3.84 lbs. Experiments by Prof. R. H. Thurston (*Jour. Frank. Inst.*, 1880) with the Crockett furnace, the wet tan containing 59% of water, evaporated from and at 212° F. of 4.34 lbs. of water per pound of tan, and with the Thompson furnace an evaporation of 3.19 lbs. of water per pound of wet tan containing 55% of water. The Thompson furnace contained four fire-brick ovens, each 9 feet × 4 feet 4 inches, containing 294 lbs. of grate in all, for three boilers with a total heating surface of 1,000 sq. ft., a ratio of heating to grate surface of 9 to 1. The tan was burned in the top. The Crockett furnace was an ordinary fire-brick furnace, 6 × 4 feet, built in front of the boiler, instead of under it, the heating surface to grate being 14.0 to 1. According to Prof. Thurston, the success in burning wet fuel are the surrounding of the fuel with heated surfaces and with burning fuel that it may be dried, and then so arranging the apparatus that thorough combustion be secured, and that the rapidity of combustion be precisely equal to the rapidity of desiccation. Where this rapidity is exceeded the dry portion is consumed completely, leaving a mass of fuel which refuses to take fire.

Wheat as Fuel. (*Eng'g Mechanics*, Feb., 1893, p. 55.)—Experiments in 1884 that winter-wheat straw, dried at 230° F., had the following composition: C, 46.1; H, 5.6; N, 0.42; O, 43.7; Ash, 4.1. Heating value in heat units: dry straw, 6290; with 6% water, 5770; with 10% water, 5250. Straws of other grains the heating value of dry straw ranged from buckwheat to 6750 for flax.

The *Eng'g*, vol. 1, p. 63, gives the mean composition of wheat straw as follows: C, 46.1; H, 5.6; N, 0.42; O, 43.7; Ash, 4.1; water, 15.75. The heating value of straw of this composition is 6290 heat units. The heating value of straw of this composition, by Dulong's formula, and deducting the heat lost in evaporating the water, is 5250 heat units. Clark erroneously gives it as 8144 heat units.

Fuel in Sugar Manufacture. Bagasse, or sugar-cane, after the juice has been extracted, is burned as fuel.

generated for every pound of carbon contained. The loss of generating 297,831 heat units as against 345,200, or a unit in favor of the 72% bagasse.

"Assuming the temperature of the waste gases to be surrounding atmosphere and water in the bagasse at the dry of air necessary for the combustion of one pound, the lost heat will be as follows: In the waste gases, heat 450° F., and in vaporizing the moisture, etc., the loss is 112,546 heat units, and 118,150 for the 72% bagasse.

"Subtracting these quantities from the above, we find it will produce 185,298 available heat units, or nearly 300,000 bagasse, which gives 299,050 units. Accordingly, one ton at 80% mill extraction will produce 680 lbs. bagasse, equal to 107,408,000 heat units, while the same cane at 72% extraction will produce 680 lbs. bagasse, equal to 107,408,000 units.

"A similar calculation for the case of Louisiana cane of fibre, and 10% total solids in the juice, assuming 75% mill extraction, shows that bagasse from one ton of cane contains 157,395,000 heat units, which 56,146,500 have to be deducted.

"This would make such bagasse worth on an average 10¢ per ton of cane ground. Under fairly good conditions, it evaporates 7½ lbs. water, while the best boiler plants evaporate the bagasse from 1 ton of cane at 75% mill extraction shows 680 lbs. to 910 lbs. of water. The juice extracted from under these conditions contain 1800 lbs. of water. If no water added during the process of manufacture is 1000 lbs. juice made, the total water handled is 1410 lbs. From this in this case, the commercial masscoute would be about 1/3 of the original mill juice, or say 235 lbs. Said mill juice, equals 1650 lbs. liquor handled; and 1650 lbs., minus 235 lb. equals 1415 lbs. of water to be evaporated during the process. To effect a 7½-lb. evaporation requires 100 lbs. of coal, and 10 lbs. evaporation.

"To reduce 1650 lbs. of juice to syrup of, say, 7° Baumé, requires evaporation of 1770 lbs. of water, leaving 480 lbs. of syrup. If accomplished in the open air, it will require about 156 lbs. of coal per 1000 lbs. of syrup, and 117 at 10 lbs. evaporation.

PETROLEUM.

Products of the Distillation of Crude Petroleum.

American petroleum of sp. gr 0.800 may be split up by fractional distillation as follows (Robinson's Gas and Petroleum Engines):

Distillate.	Percent-ages.	Specific Gravity.	Flashing Point Deg. F.
Rhigolene. }	traces.	.590 to .635	
Chymogene. }			
Gasolene (petroleum spirit)...	1.5	.630 to .637	
Benzine, naphtha C, benzolene...	10.	.660 to .700	14
(Benzine, naphtha B	2.5	.714 to .718	
A.....	2.	.735 to .737	32
/ Polishing oils.			
Kerosene (lamp-oil).	50.	.802 to .830	100 to 122
Lubricating oil.....	15.	.850 to .915	230
Paraffine wax.....	16.		
Residue and Loss.....	2.		

Petroleum, produced at Lima, Ohio, is of a dark green color, and marks 48° Baumé at 15° C. (sp. gr., 0.792).

distillation in fifty parts, each part representing 2% by volume, gave the following results:

[illegible]

RETURNS.

per cent naphtha. 70° Baumé.

burning oil.

6 per cent paraffine oil.

10 " residuum

distillation started at 230° C., this being due to the large amount of water present, and when 60% was reached, at a temperature of 310° C., the hydrocarbons remaining in the retort were dissociated, then gases and lighter distillates were obtained, and, as usual in such cases, the vapors were decreased from 310° C. down gradually to 200° C., until 75% of the material had been obtained, and from this point the temperature remained constant to the end of the distillation. Therefore these hydrocarbons in statu nascendi absorbed much heat. (*Jour. Am. Chem. Soc.*)

Petroleum as Fuel.--Thos. Ughart, of Russia (Proc. E., Jan. 1889), gives the following table of the theoretical evaporation of petroleum in comparison with that of coal, as determined by Faeke & Silbermann:

Fuel.	Specific Gravity at 32° F., Water = 1,000.	Chem. Comp.			Heating-power, British Thermal Units.	Theoret. Evap., lbs. Water per lb. Fuel, from and at 212° F.
		C.	H.	O.		
Heavy crude oil ...	S. G. 0.886	p. c. 84.9	p. c. 13.7	p. c. 1.4	Units. 20,786	lbs. 21.48
Lean light crude oil ...	0.884	80.8	13.6	0.1	22,027	22.79
Heavy " " " " "	0.928	80.6	12.3	1.1	20,153	20.25
Refuse, " " " " "	0.928	87.1	11.7	1.2	19,832	
English Coal, Mean	1.350	80.0	5.0	8.0	14,112	

Experiments in the use of burning the two gases, the
 In 1892 there were reported in the Engineering Journal of
 comparative figures, from tests undertaken to ascertain
 of coal, petroleum and gas.

1 lb. anthracite coal compressed	
1 lb. bituminous coal	
1 lb. fuel oil, 80° gravity	
1 cubic foot gas, 50° F.	

The gas used was that obtained in the distillation of
 about the same fuel value as natural or coal gas of equal

Taking the efficiency of bituminous coal as a basis, the
 petroleum is more than 60 per cent greater than that of coal, while
 petroleum exceeds coal only about 45—the one containing
 and the other 25 per cent.

Crude Petroleum vs. Indiana Block Coal
raising at the South Chicago Steel Works.
 Trans. A. I. M. E., xvii, 85. — While a set of 14 furnaces
 required 25 men to operate them with fuel oil, 6 men were
 of 19 men at \$2 per day, or \$36 per day.

For one week's work 22½ barrels of oil were used, amounting
 required for the same work, requiring 3.25 barrels of oil to
 ton of coal. With oil at 60 cents per barrel and coal at \$2.10
 alive cost of oil to coal is as \$1.35 to \$2.15. No savings
 made.

Petroleum as a Metallurgical Fuel.—C. E. F.
 M., p. xiv, 89, reports a series of trials with oil as fuel in
 open-hearth steel-furnaces, and in raising steam with coal.
 In a run of six weeks the consumption of oil, partly refined
 and some of the naphtha being removed, in heating 14-inch
 furnaces was about 6½ gallons per ton of blooms. 2. In an
 open hearth furnace 48 gallons of oil were used per ton in
 six weeks' trial with Lima oil from 47 to 54 gallons of oil a
 ton of ingots. 4. In a six months' trial with Siemens heat
 consumption of Lima oil was 6 gallons per ton of ingots.

producer, and by utilizing the sensible heat of the gas in place. It ought to be possible to oxidize one out of every eight pounds of oxygen derived from water-vapor. The thermic values are as follows:

	Heat-units.
10 (3 lbs. gasified with air and 1 lb. with water)	17,600
which furnish 1.33 lbs. of oxygen to combine with 1 lb. of carbon by dissociation	10,833
of 9.333 lbs. CO, 0.167 lb. H, and 13.99 lbs. N, heated	3,748
and loss	3,519
	17,600

When blown into a producer with the air is almost all condensed water before entering the fuel, and consequently is not in these calculations.

Water liberates 167 lb. of hydrogen, which is delivered to the combustion the same heat that it absorbs in the process. According to this calculation, therefore, 60% of the heat is theoretically recovered by the dissociation of all the sensible heat of the gas be counted, with radiator items, as loss, yet the gas must carry $4 \times 14,500 = 58,000$ heat-units, or 87% of the calorific energy of the carbon. As a loss in conversion of 13% without crediting the gas with, or charging it with the heat required for generating, or taking into account the loss due to oxidizing some of the hydrogen.

In good producer-practice the proportion of CO_2 in the gas is from 4% to 7% of the C burned to CO_2 , but the extra heat should be largely recovered in the dissociation of more carbon. Therefore does not represent as much loss as it would indicate of energy, this gas has the advantage of carrying 4.45 times as much heat as the steam which would be present if the fourth pound of coal had been used in the producer.

Example.—In anthracite coal there is a volatile combustible matter from 1.5% to over 7%. The amount of energy derived from the following theoretical gasification made with the composition: Carbon, 85%; vol. HC, 5%; ash, 10%; 80 lbs. carbon burned to CO; 5 lbs. carbon burned to CO_2 ; three-fourths of the hydrogen derived from air, and one-fourth from water.

	Pounds.	Cubic Feet.	Anal. by Vol.
CO	186.66	2529.24	33.4
CO_2	18.33	157.64	2.0
(filled)	5.00	116.80	1.6
required, of which			
liberate.....H	3.75	712.50	9.4
associated with N	301.05	4064.17	53.6
	514.79	7560.15	100.0

The gas obtained from 100 lbs. anthracite:

85 lbs. CO.....	807,304 heat-units.
10 " CH_4	117,500 "
5 " H.....	232,500 "

	1,357,304 "
in gas per lb.....	2,948 "
" 100 lbs. of coal.....	1,349,500 "
if the conversion.....86%.	

and H exceeds the results obtained in practice. The same will probably account for this discrepancy, and, therefore, assume the possibility of delivering at least 80% of the heat.

Example.—A theoretical gasification of 100 lbs. of coal, and 3% of volatile combustible (which is made in the following table) burned to CO and 5 lbs. to CO_2 ; one-fourth

weight and energy of 1000 cubic feet, of the four types of heating and illuminating purposes:

	Natural Gas.	Coal-gas.	Water-gas.	Producer-gas.	
				Anthra.	Bitu.
.....	0.50	6.0	45.0	27.0	27.0
.....	2.18	46.0	45.0	12.0	12.0
.....	92.6	40.0	2.0	1.2	2.5
.....	0.31	4.0	0.4
.....	0.26	0.5	4.0	2.5	2.5
.....	8.61	1.5	2.0	57.0	56.9
.....	0.34	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3
.....	1.5	1.5
1000 cubic feet.....	445.6	32.0	45.6	65.6	65.9
1000 cubic feet.....	1,100,000	735,000	822,000	137,455	156,917

Natural Gas in Ohio and Indiana.

(Eng. and M. J., April 21, 1894.)

	Ohio.			Indiana.			
	Fos-toria.	Findlay	St. Mary's.	Muncie.	Ander-son.	Koko-mo.	Mar-lon.
.....	1.80	1.04	1.94	1.35	1.86	1.42	1.20
.....	92.84	93.35	97.05	94.67	93.07	94.16	93.57
.....	.20	.35	.30	.25	.47	.30	.15
.....	.55	.41	.44	.45	.73	.55	.60
.....	.20	.25	.25	.26	.29	.29	.30
.....	.37	.39	.37	.35	.42	.30	.35
.....	3.92	8.41	9.98	3.53	3.02	2.80	3.42
.....	.15	.20	.21	.15	.15	.18	.20

30,000 cubic feet of gas have the heating power of one

Producer-gas from One Ton of Coal.

(W. H. Blauvelt, Trans. A. I. M. E., xviii. 614.)

Per Cent.	Cubic Feet.	Lbs.	Equal to—
25.3	33,213.84	2451.20	1050.51 lbs. C + 1400.7 lbs. O.
9.2	12,077.76	83.56	83.56 " H.
3.1	4,069.68	174.66	174.66 " CH ₄ .
0.8	1,060.94	77.78	77.78 " C ₂ H ₄ .
8.4	4,403.52	519.02	141.54 " C + 377.44 lbs. O.
58.2	76,404.96	5659.63	7850.17 " Air.
100.0	131,280.00	8945.85	

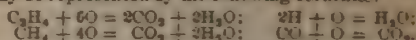
on this basis, the 131,280 ft. of gas from the ton of coal con-
B.T.U., or 155 B.T.U. per cubic ft., or 2270 B.T.U. per lb.
ton of the coal from which this gas was made was as follows:
volatile matter, 36.22%; fixed carbon, 57.98%; sulphur, 0.70%;
ton contains 1159.6 lbs. carbon and 734.4 lbs. volatile com-
pound of which is 31,302,300 B.T.U. Hence, in the processes of
purification there was a loss of 35.2% of the energy of the

of the hydrocarbons in a soft coal is uncertain and quite
ultimate analysis of the average coal shows that
nearly to the composition of (H₂, marsh-gas).
has the following points as highly important
vice:

First. That a large percentage of the energy of the coal is lost if gas is made in the ordinary low producer and cooled to the temperature of the air before being used. To prevent these sources of loss, the producer should be placed so as to lose as little as possible of the sensible heat of the gas, and prevent condensation of the hydrocarbon vapors. A blast of steam should be carried, keeping the producer cool on top, thereby preventing the breaking-down of the hydrocarbons and the deposit of soot, as well as keeping the carbonic acid low.

Second. That a producer should be blown with as much steam as the air as will maintain incandescence. This reduces the percentage of nitrogen and increases the hydrogen, thereby greatly enriching the gas. The temperature of the producer is kept down, diminishing the loss by radiation through the walls, and in a large measure preventing the breaking-down of the hydrocarbons.

The Combustion of Producer-gas. (H. H. Campbell, A. I. M. E., xix, 128.)—The combustion of the components of producer-gas may be represented by the following formulae:



AVERAGE COMPOSITION BY VOLUME OF PRODUCER-GAS: A. MADE WITH GRATES, NO STEAM IN BLAST; B. OPEN GRATES, STEAM-JET IN BLAST. SAMPLES OF EACH.

	CO ₂ .	O.	C ₂ H ₄ .	CO.	H.	CH ₄ .
A min	3.6	0.4	0.2	20.0	5.3	3.9
A max.	5.6	0.4	0.4	24.8	8.5	5.2
A average... 4.84		0.4	0.34	22.1	6.8	3.74
B min	4.6	0.4	0.2	20.8	6.9	3.5
B max	6.0	0.8	0.4	24.0	9.8	3.4
B average... 5.3		0.54	0.30	22.74	8.37	3.30

The coal used contained carbon 82%, hydrogen 4.7%.

The following are analyses of products of combustion:

	CO ₂ .	O.	CO.	CH ₄ .	H.
Minimum.....	15.2	0.2	trace.	trace.	0.1
Maximum	17.2	1.6	2.0	0.6	2.0
Average	16.3	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.2

Use of Steam in Producers and in Boiler-furnaces.

W. Raymond, Trans. A. I. M. E., xx, 635.)—No possible use of steam can cause a gain of heat. If steam be introduced into a bed of incandescent carbon it is decomposed into hydrogen and oxygen.

The heat absorbed by the reduction of one pound of steam to hydrogen is much greater in amount than the heat generated by the union of one pound of oxygen thus set free with carbon, forming either carbonic oxide or carbonic acid. Consequently, the effect of steam alone upon a bed of incandescent carbon is to chill it. In every water-gas apparatus, designed to produce gas by means of the decomposition of steam a fuel gas relatively free from hydrogen, the loss of heat in the producer must be compensated by some heating device.

This loss may be recovered if the hydrogen of the steam is subsequently burned, to form steam again. Such a combustion of the hydrogen is contemplated, in the case of fuel-gas, as secured in the subsequent section. Assuming the oxidation of H to be complete, the use of steam causes neither gain nor loss of heat, but a simple transference of heat. The heat absorbed by steam decomposition being restored by hydrogen combustion. In practice, it may be doubted whether this restoration is ever complete. But it is certain that an excess of steam would defeat the results sought, and that there must be a certain proportion of steam to carbon, to permit the realization of important advantages, without too great a loss of heat.

The advantage to be secured (in boiler furnaces using small quantities of anthracite) consists principally in the transfer of heat from the bed of the fire, where it is not wanted, to the upper side, where it is wanted. The decomposition of the steam below cools the fuel and the carbon, whereas a blast of air alone would produce, at that point, a high temperature (from the first CO₂), to the injury of the grate, the furnace, and the fuel.

The use of steam most economical is not easily determined. It depends upon itself, the nature of the fuel, the nature of the air supply, introduced into the producer.

the fire-bed, are factors affecting the problem. (See Trans. I. X. 625.)

Analysis by Volume and by Weight.—To convert an analysis of mixed gas by volume into analysis by weight: Multiply the percentage of each constituent gas by the density of that gas (see p. 166). Divide the sum of the products to obtain the percentages by weight.

Gas for Small Furnaces.—E. P. Reichhelm (*Am. Mach.*, 1895) discusses the use of gaseous fuel for forge fires, for dropping, annealing-ovens and furnaces for melting brass and copper, for tanning, muffle-furnaces, and kilns. Under ordinary conditions, in furnaces he estimates that the loss by draught, radiation, and the space not occupied by work is, with coal, 80%, with petroleum 70%, and gas above the grade of producer-gas 35%. He gives the following comparative cost of fuels, as used in these furnaces:

Kind of Gas.	No. of Heat-units in 1,000 cu. ft. used.	No. of Heat-units in Furnaces after deducting 25% Loss.	Average Cost per 1,000 Ft.	Cost of 1,000 Heat-units Obtained in Furnaces.
Gas	1,000,000	750,000		
20 candle-power	675,000	506,250	\$1.25	\$2.46
Bed water-gas	645,000	484,500	1.00	2.06
Gas, 20 candle-power	490,000	367,500	.90	1.73
Gas from coke	313,000	234,750	.40	1.70
Gas from bituminous coal	377,000	282,750	.45	1.59
Gas and producer-gas mixed	185,000	138,750	.30	1.44
Gas	150,000	112,500	.15	1.33
Gas, fuel $2\frac{1}{2}$ gals. per 1000 ft.	306,367	229,774	.15	.65
per ton, per 1,000,000 heat-units utilized				.73
Petroleum, 3 cts. per gal., per 1,000,000 heat-units				.73

Reichhelm gives the following figures from practice in melting brass and with naphtha converted into gas: 1800 lbs. of metal require 1 ton of coal, at \$4.65 per ton, equal to \$2.51, or, say, 15 cents per 100 lbs. report : 2500 lbs. of metal require 47 gals. of naphtha, at 6 cents per gal to \$2.82, or, say, 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents per 100 lbs.

ILLUMINATING-GAS.

Gas is made by distilling bituminous coal in retorts. The retort is a long horizontal semi-cylindrical or \square shaped chamber, holding 40 to 300 lbs. of coal. The retorts are set in "benches" of from 10 to 20, heated by one fire, which is generally of coke. The vapors distilled from the coal are converted into a fixed gas by passing through the retort, which is heated almost to whiteness.

The gas passes out of the retort through an "ascension-pipe" into a long vertical pipe called the hydraulic main, where it deposits a portion of the tar it contains; thence it goes into a condenser, a series of iron tubes cooled by cold water, where it is freed from condensable vapors, as tar-water, then into a washer, where it is exposed to jets of water, then to a scrubber, a large chamber partially filled with trays made of iron, containing coke, fragments of brick or paving-stones, which are washed with a spray of water. By the washer and scrubber the gas is freed from the last portion of tar and ammonia and from some of the sulphur compounds. The gas is then finally purified from sulphur compounds by passing it through lime or oxide of iron. The gas is drawn from the hydraulic main and forced through the washer, scrubber, etc., by an exhaust pump.

The coal used is generally caking bituminous, but as the gas is used in cases of high illuminating power, there is added a small amount of coal or other enricher.

The following table, abridged from one in Johnson's Cyclopaedia, gives the candle power, etc., of some gas coals and enrichers.

Gas coals, etc.	Vol. Matter.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Gas per ton of 2400 lbs. in cu. ft.	Calor. power of Gas.	Candle power per cu. ft.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	30.76	51.93	7.07	10,642	16.62	144
Westmoreland, Pa.	26.00	58.00	6.00	10,642	16.62	144
Stirling, O.	37.50	56.50	5.60	10,525	18.81	162
Dempard, W. Va.	40.00	53.30	6.70	10,765	20.41	174
Darlington, O.	43.00	40.00	17.00	9,800	34.95	299
Petonia, W. Va.	46.00	41.00	13.00	13,300	42.75	360
Grahamite, W. Va.	53.50	44.50	2.00	15,000	58.70	502

The products of the distillation of 100 lbs. of average gas-coal are as follows: They vary according to the quality of coal and the temperature of distillation.

Coke, 64 to 65 lbs.; tar, 6.5 to 7.5 lbs.; ammonia liquor, 10 to 12 lbs.; gaseous gas, 15 to 12 lbs.; impurities and loss, 4.5% to 3.5%.

The composition of the gas by volume ranges about as follows: hydrogen, 3% to 4%; carbonic oxide, 5% to 14%; marsh gas (Methane, CH_4), 31% to 45%; heavy hydrocarbons (C_2H_6 , ethylene, propylene, benzole, &c.), 7.5% to 4.5%; nitrogen, 1% to 3%.

In the burning of the gas the nitrogen is inert; the hydrogen and carbonic oxide give heat but no light. The luminosity of the flame is due to the composition by heat of the heavy hydrocarbons into lighter hydrocarbons and carbon, the latter being separated in a state of incandescence. By the heat of the flame this separated carbon is heated to incandescence, and the illuminating effect of the flame is due to the light of the particles of carbon.

The attainment of the highest degree of luminosity of the flame upon the proper adjustment of the proportion of the heavy gas (with due regard to their individual character) to the nature of the mixed therewith.

Investigations of Percy F. Frankland show that mixtures of all hydrogen cease to have any luminous effect when the proportion of ethylene does not exceed 10% of the whole. Mixtures of ethylene and carbonic oxide cease to have any luminous effect when the proportion of ethylene does not exceed 2%, while all mixtures of ethylene and marsh gas do have a luminous effect. The luminosity of a mixture of 10% ethylene and marsh gas being equal to about 15 candles, and that of a mixture of 2% ethylene and marsh gas about 25 candles. The illuminating effect of gas alone, when burned in an argand burner, is by no means luminous.

For further description, see the Treatises on Gas by King, Richards, Hughes, also Appleton's Cyc. Mech., vol. I, p. 900.

Water-gas.—Water gas is obtained by passing steam through red-hot coal, coke, or charcoal heated to redness or beyond. The steam is decomposed, its hydrogen being liberated and its oxygen combining with the fuel, producing carbonic oxide gas. The chemical reaction is $\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{CO} + 2\text{H}$, or $2\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{C} + \text{CO}_2 + 4\text{H}$, followed by a reaction of the CO_2 , making $2\text{CO} + 4\text{H}$. By weight the normal gas ($\text{CO} + 2\text{H}$) is composed of $\text{C} + \text{O} + \text{H} = 28$ parts CO and 2 parts H, or 56 parts CO and 12 parts H, or 12 + 16 + 2. By volume it is composed of equal parts of carbonic oxide and hydrogen. Water gas produced as above described has great heating and illuminating power. It may, however, be used for lighting by passing heat to whiteness some solid substance, as is done in the Water-gas descent light.

An illuminating gas is made from water-gas by adding to it the gases or vapors, which are usually obtained from petroleum or coal products. A history of the development of synthetic illuminating gas processes, together with a description of the most recent American process, is given by John C. Ruppel, in a paper on "Water-gas and its products," presented to the Mechanical Section of the World's Fair at Philadelphia, 1876, and published in 1877. After describing some of the processes for the manufacture of water-gas, he says:

on the process of T. S. C. Lowe was introduced. All the later processes are the modifications of Lowe's, the essential which were "an apparatus consisting of a generator and superheater, the generator being heated by the secondary coal in the generator, the heat so stored up in the loose brick or being used, in the second part of the process, in the fixing permanent of the hydrocarbon gases; the second part of the process being in the passing of steam through the generator fire, and of oil or hydrocarbon at some point between the fire of the generator and the loose filling of the superheater."

The process thus has two periods: first the "blow," during which steam is blown through the bed coal in the generator, and the partially gas products are completely burned in the superheater, giving up their heat to the fire-brick work contained in it, and then to a chimney; second, the "run" during which the air blast is opening to the chimney closed, and steam is blown through the bed of fuel. The resulting water-gas passing into the chamber in the base of the superheater is there charged with hydrogen, or spray (such as naphtha and other distillates or crude oil) through the superheater, where the hydrocarbon vapors are broken into fixed illuminating gases. From the superheater the gases are passed, as in the coal-gas process, through washers, and then to the gas-holder. In this case, however, there is no ammonia removed.

The gravity of water-gas increases with the increase of the heavy gases which give it illuminating power. The following figures, taken from authorities, are given by F. H. Shelton in a paper on Water-gas presented to the Ohio Gas Light Association, in 1894:

W. ...	19.5	20.	22.5	24.	25.4	26.3	28.3	29.6	30 to 31.9
Sp. gr.571	.690	.689	.60 to .67	.64	.602	.50	.65	.65 to .51

Comparison of Water-gas and Coal-gas Compared.

The following analyses are taken from a report of Dr. Gideon E. Moore on Water-gas, 1885:

	Composition by Volume.			Composition by Weight.		
	Water-gas.		Coal-gas Heidel- berg.	Water-gas.		Coal- gas.
	Wor- cester.	Lake.		Wor- cester.	Lake.	
Hydrogen	2.64	3.85	2.15	0.04402	0.06175	0.04569
Carbonic oxide	0.14	0.30	2.01	0.00365	0.00753	0.09992
Carbonic dioxide	0.06	0.01	0.05	0.00114	0.00018	0.01560
Nitrogen	11.29	12.80	2.55	0.18759	0.20454	0.05380
Oxygen	0.00	0.00	1.21	0.03834
Water vapor	1.53	2.65	1.35	0.07077	0.11700	0.07825
Total	28.26	25.66	8.88	0.40834	0.37664	0.18758
Impurities	18.88	20.05	54.02	0.17928	0.19135	0.41087
.....	57.20	35.68	40.20	0.04421	0.04103	0.06987
.....	100.00	100.00	100.00	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000
Theory	0.5825	0.6057	0.4580
Practice	0.5915	0.6018
At 1 cu. foot	660.1	688.7	642.0
Liquid vapor	597.0	646.6	577.0
.....	5311.3°F.	5281.1°F.	5202.4°F.
.....	22.06	26.71

The values (B. T. U.) of the gases are calculated using the multipliers given below (multiplied by 1000)

J. Thomsen), and multiplying the result by the weight of 1 cu. ft. at 62° F., and atmospheric pressure.

The flame temperatures, theoretical, are calculated on the basis of the complete combustion of the gases in air, without excess of air.

The candle-power was determined by photometric tests, using of 14-in. water column, a candle consumption of 130 grains of wax per hour, and a meter rate of 5 cu. ft. per hour; the result being for a temperature of 62° F. and a barometric pressure of 30 in. Hg. that the candle-power may be regulated at the pleasure of the charge of the apparatus, the range of candle-power being five candles, according to the manipulation employed.

Calorific Equivalents of Constituents of Illuminating Gas.

	Heat-units from 1 lb.			Heat-units from 1 cu. ft.	
	Water Liquid.	Water Vapor.		Water Liquid.	Water Vapor.
Ethylene.....	21,594.4	50,184.8	Carbonic oxide..	4,356.8	11,211.8
Propylene.....	21,292.0	19,534.2	Marsh gas.....	24,061.8	11,211.8
Benzole vapor....	18,934.0	17,547.0	Hydrogen.....	61,211.8	11,211.8

Efficiency of a Water-gas Plant.—The practical efficiency of an illuminating water-gas setting is discussed in a paper by A. (Proc. Am. Gaslight Assn., 1888), from which the following is taken.

The results refer to 1000 cu. ft. of unpurified carburetted gas at 60° F. The total anthracite charged per 1000 cu. ft. of gas was 150 lbs. and unconsumed coal removed 2.0 lbs., leaving total combustible 148 lbs., which is taken to have a fuel-value of 1450 B. T. U. per lb., a total of 340,750 heat-units.

		Composition by Volume.	Weight per 100 cu. ft.	Composition by Weight.
I. Carburetted Water-gas.	CO ₂ + H ₂ S..	3.8	465842	.0064
	C ₂ H ₂	14.6	1,136668	.0265
	CO.....	28.0	2,1868	.0225
	CH ₄	17.0	75854	.0776
	H.....	35.8	1991664	.0413
	N.....	1.0	078596	.0197
		100.0	4,8266244	1.0000
II. Uncarburetted gas.	CO ₂	3.6	429065	.0101
	CO.....	48.4	3,389540	.0831
	H.....	51.8	280621	.0699
	N.....	1.3	102175	.0247
		100.0	4,210901	1.0000
III. Blast products escaping from superheater.	CO ₂	17.4	2,135096	.0414
	O.....	3.2	244606	.0052
	N.....	79.4	6,2405221	.7977
		100.0	8,6501983	1.0000
IV. Generator blast-gases.	CO ₂	9.7	1,188123	.0246
	CO.....	17.8	1,300180	.0290
	N.....	72.5	5,698210	.0864
		100.0	8,276513	1.0000

70% heat energy absorbed by the apparatus is 23.5 × 14,500 = 340,750 heat-units. Its disposition is as follows:

1. Heat energy of the C₂ produced;
2. Heat absorbed in the decomposition of the steam;
3. Heat between the sensible heat of the escaping gas and the entering air;
4. Heat lost by the escaping blast products;
5. Heat lost by the steam from the shells;

heat carried away from the shells by convection (air-currents);
 heat rendered latent in the gasification of the oil;
 sensible heat in the ash and unconsumed coal recovered from the air.

The heat equation is $A = B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I$; A being

A comparison of the CO in Tables I and II show that $\frac{280}{434}$, or 64.5%

volume of carburetted gas is pure water-gas, distributed thus: CO_2 , 1.28.0%; H, 33.4%; N, 0.8%; = 64.5%. 1 lb. of CO at 60°F. = 13.531 cu. ft. per 1000 cu. ft. of gas = 380 + 13.531 = 20.094 lbs. Energy of the CO at $\times 4395.6 = 91,043$ heat-units, = B . 1 lb. of H at 60°F. = 189.2 cu. ft. per M of gas = 334 + 189.2 = 1.7653 lbs. Energy of the H per lb. according to Thomsen, considering the steam generated by its combustion condensed to water at 75°F. = 61,534 B. T. U. In Mr. Glasgow's experiments the steam entered the generator at 331°F. ; the heat required to the product of combustion of 1 lb. of H, viz., 8.98 lbs. H_2O , from water to steam at 331° must therefore be deducted from Thomsen's figure, or $(8.98 \times 1140.2) = 51,285$ B. T. U. per lb. of H. Energy of the H, then, $\times 51,285 = 90,533$ heat-units, = C . The heat lost due to the sensible heat of the illuminating-gases, their temperature being 1450°F. , and that of entering oil 235°F. , is 48.29 (weight) $\times .45786$ sp. heat $\times 1215$ (rise of temperature) = 36,864 heat-units = D .

The specific heat of the entering oil is approximately that of the issuing

heat carried off in 1000 cu. ft. of the escaping blast products is 66,592 $(.23645 \text{ (sp. heat)} \times 1474^\circ \text{ (rise of temp.)} = 30,180$ heat-units: the nature of the escaping blast gases being 1550°F. , and that of the entering air 70°F. But the amount of the blast gases, by registration of an anemometer, checked by a calculation from the analyses of the gases, was 2457 cubic feet for every 1000 cubic feet of carburetted gas.

Hence the heat carried off per M. of carburetted gas is $30,180 \times .74152$ heat-units = E .

Experiments made by a radiometer covering four square feet of the shell apparatus gave figures for the amount of heat lost by radiation 251 heat-units = F , and by convection = 15,606 heat-units = G .

Heat rendered latent by the gasification of the oil was found by taking the difference between all the heat fed into the carburetter and superheater and the total heat dissipated therefrom to be 12,811 heat-units = H . Sensible heat in the ash and unconsumed coal is $9.9 \text{ lbs.} \times 1500^\circ \times .25$ = 3712 heat-units = I .

The sum of all the items $B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I = 337,395$ heat-units, which subtracted from the heat energy of the combustible consumed, 362,000 heat-units, leaves 13,455 heat-units, or 4 per cent, unaccounted for.

The total heat energy of the coal consumed, or 340,750 heat-units, the waste is the sum of items D, E, F, G , and I , amounting to 132,878 heat-units, or 39 per cent; the remainder, or 207,872 heat-units, or 61 per cent, being utilized. The efficiency of the apparatus as a heat machine is 61 per cent.

20 gallons, or 35 lbs. of crude petroleum were fed into the carburetter 1000 cu. ft. of gas made; deducting 5 lbs. of tar recovered, leaves 30 lbs. of oil = 800,000 heat-units as the net heating value of the petroleum used. If this to the heating value of the coal, 340,750 B. T. U., gives 940,750 heat-units, of which there is found as heat energy in the carburetted gas, as is table below, 764,050 heat-units, or 81 per cent, which is the commercial efficiency of the apparatus, i.e., the ratio of the energy contained in the gaseous product to the total energy of the coal and oil consumed.

Heating power per M. cu. ft. of the carburetted gas is	The heating power per M. of the uncarburetted gas is
35.0	CO_2 35.0
$46.0 \times .117220 \times 21252.0 = 365300$	CO $484.0 \times .078100 \times 4395.6 = 148$
$280.0 \times .078100 \times 4395.6 = 90120$	H $518.0 \times .005594 \times 61524.0 = 178$
$170.0 \times .044020 \times 24021.0 = 182210$	N 12.0
$256.0 \times .005594 \times 61524.0 = 122520$	1000.0
764050	

Heat value of the illuminants C_mH_{2n} is as usual

The candle-power of the gas is 31, or 0.2 candle-power per cubic foot used. The calculated specific gravity is .6355, air being 1.

For description of the operation of a modern carburetted gas plant, see paper by J. Stelfox, *Eng'g*, July 20, 1894, p. 58.

Space required for a Water-gas Plant.—Mr. Shelton gives 15 modern plants of the form requiring the most floor-space. The average floor-space required per 1000 cubic feet of daily capacity is:

Water-gas Plants of Capacity in 24 hours of	Require an Area of Floor each 1000 cu. ft. of gas
100,000 cubic feet.	4 square feet.
200,000 " "	3.5 " "
400,000 " "	2.75 " "
600,000 " "	2 to 2.5 sq. ft.
7 to 10 million cubic feet.	1.25 to 1.5 sq. ft.

These figures include scrubbing and condensing rooms, but not the engine rooms. In coal-gas plants of the most modern and compact with 10 benches of 9 retorts each, with a capacity of 1,500,000 cu. ft. in 24 hours, will require 4.8 sq. ft. of space per 1000 cu. ft. of gas, and 10 benches of 6 retorts each, with 900,000 cu. ft. capacity per 24 hours, require 6 sq. ft. of space per 1000 cu. ft. The storage-room required for gas-making materials is: for coal-gas, 1 cubic foot of room for 1 cubic foot of gas made; for water-gas made from coke, 1 cubic foot for every 373 cu. ft. of gas made; and for water-gas made from coal, 1 cu. ft. of room for every 645 cu. ft. of gas made.

The comparison is still more in favor of water-gas if the case is made of a water-gas plant added as an auxiliary to an existing coal-gas plant, instead of requiring further space for storage of coke, previously required for storage of coke produced and not at once sent off, by reason of the water-gas plant creating a constant demand more or less of the coke so produced.

Mr. Shelton gives a calculation showing that a water-gas of 31 would require gas-mains eight per cent greater in diameter than quantity coal-gas of .435 sp. gr. if the same pressure is maintained. The same quantity may be carried in pipes of the same diameter if the pressure is increased in proportion to the specific gravity. At the same pressure the increase of candle-power about balances the flow. With five feet of coal-gas, giving, say, eighteen candle-power per foot equals 3.6 candle-power; with water-gas of 25 candle-power per foot equals 4.6 candle-power, and 4 cubic feet gives 18.4 candles more than is given by 5 cubic feet of coal-gas. Water-gas may be made from oven-coke or gas-house coke as well as from anthracite. A coal-gas plant may be conveniently run in connection with a water-gas plant, surplus retort coke of the latter being used as the fuel of the former.

In coal-gas making it is impracticable to enrich the gas to candle-power without causing too great a tendency to smoke, but of as high as thirty candle-power is quite common. A mixture of coal and water-gas of a higher C.P. than 20 can be advantageously used.

Fuel-value of Illuminating-gas.—E. G. Love (School Quarterly, January, 1892) describes F. W. Hartley's calorimeter for the calorific power of gases, and gives results obtained in tests of carburetted water-gas made by the municipal branch of the Consolidated Gas Co. of New York. The tests were made from time to time during the years, and the figures give the heat-units per cubic foot at 60° inches pressure: 715, 692, 735, 739, 691, 738, 735, 703, 734, 739, 731, 727, 731 heat units. Similar tests of mixtures of coal and water-gas and other branches of the same company give 691, 715, 694, 692, 727, 698, 680 heat-units per foot, or an average of 694.7. The average of tests was 719.5 heat-units, and thus we may fairly take as representative calorific power of the illuminating gas of New York. One thousand cubic feet of this gas, costing \$1.25, would therefore yield 719,500 heat-units, which is equivalent to 568,400 heat-units for \$1.00.

The common coal-gas of London, with an illuminating power of 15, has a calorific power of about 665 units per foot, and costs 10 cents per thousand.

The heat obtained by decomposing steam by incandescence in the Mouton process, consists of about 65% of CO, and

A mixture would have a heating-power of about 300 units per cubic foot, and at 50 cents per 1000 cubic feet would furnish 600,000 units for \$1.00, compared with 568,400 units for \$1.00 from illuminating gas at \$1.25 per 1000 feet. This illuminating-gas if sold at \$1.15 per thousand would therefore be a more economical heating agent than the fuel-gas mentioned, at 50 cents per thousand, and be much more advantageous than the latter, in that main, service, and meter could be used to furnish gas for both lighting and heating.

A large number of fuel-gases tested by Mr. Love gave from 184 to 470 heat-units per foot, with an average of 300 units.

Comparing the cost of heat from illuminating gas at the lowest figure given by Mr. Love, viz., \$1.00 for 600,000 heat-units, it is a very expensive fuel, equal to \$40 per ton of 2000 lbs., the coal having a calorific power of only 10,000 heat-units per pound, or about 83% of that of pure carbon:

$$600,000 : (12,000 \times 2000) :: \$1 : \$40.$$

FLOW OF GAS IN PIPES.

The rate of flow of gases of different densities, the diameter of pipes, steel, etc., are given in King's Treatise on Coal Gas, vol. ii. 374, as follows:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} d = \text{diameter of pipe in inches,} \\ Q = \text{quantity of gas in cu. ft. per} \\ \quad \text{hour,} \\ l = \text{length of pipe in yards,} \\ h = \text{pressure in inches of water,} \\ \rho = \text{specific gravity of gas, air be-} \\ \quad \text{ing 1,} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{Q^2 \rho l}{(1350)^2 h}}, \\ h = \frac{Q^2 \rho l}{(1350)^2 d^3}, \\ Q = 1350 d^3 \sqrt{\frac{dh}{sl}} = 1350 \sqrt{\frac{d^3 h}{sl}}. \end{array}$$

$$\text{Molesworth gives } Q = 1000 \sqrt{\frac{d^3 h}{sl}}.$$

$$\text{E. Gill, } \textit{Am. Gas-light Jour. 1894, gives } Q = 1291 \sqrt{\frac{d^3 h}{s(l+d)}}.$$

The formula is said to be based on experimental data, and to make allowance for obstructions by tar, water, and other bodies tending to check the flow of gas through the pipe.

A set of tables in Appleton's Cyc. Mech. for flow of gas in 2, 6, and 12 in. pipes is calculated on the supposition that the quantity delivered varies as the square of the diameter instead of as $d^2 \times \sqrt{d}$, or $\sqrt[3]{d^5}$.

These tables give a flow in large pipes much less than that calculated by the formulae above given, as is shown by the following example. Length of pipe 100 yds., specific gravity of gas .042, pressure 1-in. water-column.

	2-in. Pipe.	6-in. Pipe.	12-in. Pipe.
$Q = 1350 \sqrt{\frac{d^3 h}{sl}}$	1178	18,368	108,912
$Q = 1000 \sqrt{\frac{d^3 h}{sl}}$	873	12,504	76,072
$Q = 1291 \sqrt{\frac{d^3 h}{s(l+d)}}$	1116	16,827	93,845
Table in App. Cyc.	1290	11,057	46,628

An experiment made by Mr. Clegg, in London, with a 4-in. pipe, 6 miles long, pressure 3 in. of water, specific gravity of gas .398, gave a discharge of the atmosphere of 832 cu. ft. per hour, after a correction of 33 cu. ft. made for leakage.

Substituting this value, 832 cu. ft., for Q in the formula $Q = C \sqrt[3]{\frac{d^5 h}{sl}}$, we find C , the coefficient, = .997, which corresponds nearly with the value given by Molesworth.

Services for Lamps. (Molesworth.)

Lamps	Ft. from Main.	Require Pipe—feet.	Lamps	Ft. from Main.
3	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	25	30
4	40	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	30	150
6	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	35	250
10	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	40	250

In cold climates no service less than $\frac{1}{2}$ in. should be used.

Maximum Supply of Gas through Pipe in cu. ft. per Hour, Specific Gravity being taken at .45, calculated from the Formula $g = 1000 \sqrt{d^5 h} = s l$. (Molesworth.)

LENGTH OF PIPE = 10 YARDS.

Diameter of Pipe in Inches.	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\frac{1}{8}$	13	18	22	26	29	31	34	36
$\frac{1}{4}$	36	47	56	65	72	78	84	89
$\frac{3}{8}$	73	96	115	135	152	167	182	195
1	143	191	229	267	298	325	350	374
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	260	346	411	476	526	572	614	653
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	371	491	585	679	754	820	878	927
2	543	719	856	993	1108	1206	1291	1366

LENGTH OF PIPE = 50 YARDS.

	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches									
	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.75	1.0	1.25	1.5	2
$\frac{1}{8}$	6	12	14	17	19	23	26	29	32	37
$\frac{1}{4}$	23	32	38	46	51	63	73	81	89	104
$\frac{3}{8}$	47	67	80	94	105	129	149	167	183	214
1	92	136	163	195	214	265	300	334	367	428
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	190	284	345	411	450	556	630	700	769	900
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	267	377	456	538	586	730	825	927	1027	1200
2	466	679	820	982	1082	1376	1573	1767	1949	2280
3	735	1089	1310	1570	1714	2142	2425	2704	2969	3480
4	1000	1482	1781	2161	2364	2958	3416	3830	4194	4920
5	1500	2233	2713	3217	3573	4431	5070	5683	6259	7320

LENGTH OF PIPE = 1000 YARDS.

	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches.					
	.5	.75	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5
1	33	41	47	58	67	73
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	92	113	130	159	184	203
2	189	231	267	327	377	422
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	329	403	466	571	659	737
3	520	636	735	900	1039	1162
4	767	936	1082	1317	1521	1700
5	1067	1300	1508	1847	2121	2387
6	1417	1735	2000	2437	2809	3120

LENGTH OF PIPE = 5000 YARDS.

Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches.					
1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	
119	146	174	189	207	
329	402	465	520	569	
675	826	955	1067	1168	
1179	1443	1667	1863	2041	
1859	2277	2629	2939	3220	
2733	3347	3865	4321	4734	
3816	4674	5307	6034	6610	
5123	6274	7245	8100	8873	
6667	8125	9428	10541	11547	
10516	12880	14872	16628	18215	

C. Humphreys says his experience goes to show that these tables are small a flow, but it is difficult to accurately check the tables, on account of the extra friction introduced by rough pipes, bends, etc. For one rule is to allow 1/42 of an inch pressure for each right-angle bend. There is apt to be trouble from frost if it is well to use no service of water than $\frac{3}{4}$ in., no matter how short it may be. In extremely cold weather this is now often increased to 1 in., even for a single lamp. The best in the U. S. now condemns any service less than $\frac{3}{4}$ in.

STEAM.

Temperature of Steam in contact with water depends upon pressure under which it is generated. At the ordinary atmospheric pressure (14.7 lbs. per sq. in.) its temperature is 212° F. As the pressure is increased, as by the steam being generated in a closed vessel, its temperature, that of the water in its presence, increases.

Saturated Steam is steam of the temperature due to its pressure—saturated.

Superheated Steam is steam heated to a temperature above that due to its pressure.

Dry Steam is steam which contains no moisture. It may be either saturated or superheated.

Wet Steam is steam containing intermingled moisture, mist, or spray. It has the same temperature as dry saturated steam of the same pressure.

Introduced into the presence of superheated steam will flash into water until the temperature of the steam is reduced to that due to its pressure. Water in the presence of saturated steam has the same temperature as the steam. Should cold water be introduced, lowering the temperature of the whole mass, some of the steam will be condensed, reducing the pressure and temperature of the remainder, until an equilibrium is established.

Temperature and Pressure of Saturated Steam.—The relation between the temperature and the pressure of steam, according to Clark's experiments, is expressed by the formula (Buchanan's, as given by Clark, 1893, 15)

$t = 6.1693544 - \log p - 371.85$, in which p is the pressure in pounds per square inch and t the temperature of the steam in Fahrenheit degrees, with accuracy between 120° F. and 446° F., corresponding to pressures from 1.68 lbs. to 445 lbs. per square inch. (For other formulas see Rankine and Peabody's Thermodynamics.)

Heat of Saturated Steam (above 32° F.).—According to Clark's experiments, the formula for total heat of steam is $H = 1001.7 + 0.0005(t - 32)^2$, in which t is temperature Fahr., and H the heat-units. (Rankine gives many others; Clark gives 1001.16 instead of 1001.7.)

Latent Heat of Steam.—The formula for latent heat of steam, as given by Rankine and others, is $L = 1001.7 - .005(t - 32^2)$. (Clark's formula, in Fahrenheit units, as given by Clark, is $L = 1002.6 - .005(t - 32^2)$.)

Work.)—The following formulas are sufficiently accurate within the given ranges of pressure (Clark, S. E.):

From 14.7 lbs. to 50 lbs. total pressure per square inch,
 From 50 lbs. to 200 lbs. total pressure per square inch,

Heat required to Generate 1 lb. of Steam

Sensible heat, to raise the water from 32° to 212° = . . .

Latent heat, 1, of the formation of steam at 212° = . . .

2, of expansion against the atmospheric
 pressure, 2116.4 lbs. per sq. ft. \times 26.36 cu. ft.
 = 55,786 foot-pounds \div 778 =

Total heat above 32° F

The Heat Unit, or British Thermal Unit,

the heat-unit used in this work is that of Rankine, according to writers, viz., the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of water 1° F. at or near its temperature of maximum density. Peabody's definition, the heat required to raise a pound of water 1° F. is not generally accepted. (See Thurston, Trans. A.S.M.E., xlii, 351.)

Specific Heat of Saturated Steam.—The specific heat of saturated steam is .305, that of water being 1; or it is 1.281. The expression .305 for specific heat is taken in a composition which changes both of volume and of pressure which takes into account the variation of temperature of saturated steam. (Clark, S. E.)

This statement by Clark is not strictly accurate. When the temperature of saturated steam is elevated, water being present and being saturated, water is evaporated. To raise the temperature of water 1° F. requires 1 thermal unit, and to evaporate it all requires 0.605 less thermal unit, the latent heat of saturation being 0.605 B.T.U. for each increase of temperature of 1° F. the specific heat of water and its saturated vapor combined

of water, the volume of water being measured at the temperature of the steam. The relative volume is found by multiplying the volume in cu. ft. of steam by the weight of a cu. ft. of water at 32° F., or 62.425 lbs.

Gaseous Steam. When saturated steam is superheated, or supplied with heat, it advances from the condition of saturation into that of the gaseous state. The gaseous state is only arrived at by considerably elevating the temperature, supposing the pressure remains the same. Steam thus sufficiently superheated is known as gaseous steam or steam gas.

Total Heat of Gaseous Steam.—Regnault found that the total heat of gaseous steam increased, like that of saturated steam, uniformly with the temperature, and at the rate of .475 thermal units per pound for each degree of temperature, under a constant pressure.

A general formula for the total heat of gaseous steam produced from 1 lb. of water at 32° F. is $H = 1074.6 + .475t$. [This formula is for vapor generated at 32°. It is not true if generated at 212°, or at any other temperature than 32°. (Prof. Wood.)]

Specific Heat of Gaseous Steam is .475, under constant pressure, as found by Regnault. It is identical with the coefficient of increase of total heat for each degree of temperature. [This is at atmospheric pressure and 212° temperature. He found it not true for any other pressure. It indicates that it would be less at higher temperatures. (Prof. Wood.)]

Specific Density of Gaseous Steam is .623, that of air being taken as unity, that is to say, the weight of a cubic foot of gaseous steam is about five sixths of that of a cubic foot of air, of the same pressure and temperature. The density or weight of a cubic foot of gaseous steam is expressible by the same formula as that of air, except that the multiplier or coefficient is in proportion to the less specific density. Thus,

$$D' = \frac{2.7074p \times .623}{t + 461} = \frac{1.684p}{t + 461}$$

in which D' is the weight of a cubic foot of gaseous steam, p the total pressure per square inch, and t the temperature Fahrenheit.

Superheated Steam. The above remarks concerning gaseous steam taken from Clark's Steam-engine. Wood gives for the total heat (above 212°) of superheated steam $H = 1091.7 + 0.48(t - 32°)$.

The following is abridged from Peabody (Therm., p. 115, etc.).

As far removed from the temperature of saturation, superheated steam obeys the laws of perfect gases very nearly, but near the temperature of saturation the departure from those laws is too great to allow of calculations for engineering purposes.

The specific heat at constant pressure, C_p , from the mean of three experiments by Regnault, is 0.4805.

The ratio of the ratio of C_p to specific heat at constant volume:

Pressure p , pounds per square inch..	5	50	100	200	300
Ratio $C_p + C_v = k =$	1.335	1.332	1.330	1.334	1.316

Waller takes k as a constant = 1.333.

SPECIFIC HEAT AT CONSTANT VOLUME, SUPERHEATED STEAM.

Pressure, pounds per square inch.....	5	50	100	200	300
Specific heat C_v	0.351	.348	.340	.344	.341

It is quite as reasonable to assume that C_v is a constant as to suppose that it is constant, as has been assumed. If we take C_v to be constant, then C_p appears as a variable.

p = pressure in lbs. per sq. ft., v = volume in cubic feet, and T = temperature in degrees Fahrenheit + 460.7, then $pv = 93.5T - 571pi$.

Total heat of superheated steam, $H = 0.4805(T - 10.83pi) + 657.3$.

The Rationalization of Regnault's Experiments on Steam. (J. McFarlane Gray, Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1880.) The formulas derived by Regnault are strictly empirical, and were based entirely on experiments. They are therefore not valid beyond the range of temperature and pressures observed.

Gray has made a most elaborate calculation, based not on experimental data, but on the fundamental principles of thermodynamics, from which he derives formulas for the pressure and total heat of steam, and presents to

lated therefrom which show substantial agreement with Regnault's. He gives the following examples of steam-pressures calculated for temperatures beyond the range of Regnault's experiments.

Temperature.		Pounds per sq. in.	Temperature.		Pounds per sq. in.
C.	Fahr.		C.	Fahr.	
230	446	406.9	340	644	716
240	464	458.9	360	680	732
250	482	579.9	380	716	779
260	500	591.6	400	752	800.6
280	536	940.0	415	779	
300	572	1261.8	427		
320	608	1661.9			

These pressures are higher than those obtained by Regnault's which gives for 415° C. only 4067.1 lbs. per square inch.

Table of the Properties of Saturated Steam.—In the following pages the figures of properties of saturated steam on the following pages the figures of temperature, total heat, and latent heat are taken, up to 210 lbs. absolute pressure, from the tables in Porter's Steam-engine Indicator, which have been widely accepted as standard by American engineers. The figures of total heat, given in the original as from 0° F., have been changed to above 32° F. The figures for weight per cubic foot and for cubic foot per pound have been taken from Dwellshauwers-Dery's table, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xi, as being probably more accurate than those of Porter. The figures for relative volume are from Buel's table, in Dubois's translation, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. ii. They agree quite closely with the relative volumes calculated from weights as given by Dery. From 211 to 219 lbs. the figures for temperature, total heat, and latent heat are from Dery's table; and from 220 lbs. all the figures are from Buel's table. The figures have not been carried out to as many decimal places as they are in most of the tables of different authorities; but any figure beyond the fourth significant figure is unnecessary in practice, and beyond the limit of error of the data and of the formulæ from which the figures were derived.

Weight of 1 Cubic Foot of Steam in Decimals of a Pound. Comparison of Different Authorities.

Absolute Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Weight of 1 cubic foot according to—					Absolute Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Weight of 1 cubic foot according to—		
	Porter.	Clark	Buel.	Dery.	Peabody.		Porter.	Clark	Buel.
1	.0030	.003	.00303	.00309	.00393	120	.27428	.2738	.2736
14	.03797	.0380	.037930376	140	.31386	.3162	.3162
20	.0511	.0507	.0507	.0507	.0502	160	.35200	.3500	.3500
40	.0994	.0974	.0972	.0972	.0964	180	.38895	.4000	.4000
60	.1457	.1425	.1424	.1422	.1409	200	.42490	.4431	.4431
80	.19015	.1867	.1866	.1862	.1843	2204842	.4842
100	.23302	.2307	.2303	.2303	.2271	2405245	.5270

There are considerable differences between the figures of weight of steam as given by different authorities. Porter's figures are from the experiments of Fairbairn and Tate. The figures given by other authorities are derived from theoretical formulæ which are based on more reliable results than the experiments. The figures for total heat, and latent heat as given by different authorities show agreement, all being derived from Regnault's experiments. See Tables of Saturated Steam, also Jacobus, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vi.

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Fahrenheit.	Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L , Heat-units.	Relative Volume of Water at 32° F. = 1.	Volume, cu. ft. in lb. of Steam.	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
			In the Water h , Heat-units.	In the Steam H , Heat-units.				
27	.069	32	0	1001.7	1001.7	208060	3333.3	.00030
28	.122	40	8	1094.1	1094.1	151330	2472.2	.00040
29	.176	50	18	1097.2	1079.2	107630	1724.1	.00058
30	.234	60	28.01	1100.2	1073.2	76370	1223.4	.00082
35	.359	70	38.02	1103.3	1065.3	54000	875.61	.00115
40	.502	80	48.04	1106.3	1056.3	39240	635.80	.00158
45	.662	90	58.06	1109.4	1051.3	29290	409.20	.00213
50	.912	100	68.08	1112.4	1044.4	21830	349.70	.00286
55	1	102.1	70.09	1118.1	1041.0	20623	334.23	.00299
60	1.26	104.4	74.44	1120.5	1036.0	10730	173.23	.00577
65	1.51	109.9	109.9	1125.1	1015.3	7325	117.98	.00812
70	1.76	112.4	121.4	1128.0	1007.3	5588	89.20	.01112
75	2	122.3	130.7	1131.4	1000.7	4530	72.50	.01373
80	2.26	128.6	138.8	1133.8	995.2	3816	61.10	.01631
85	2.51	145.4	145.4	1135.9	990.5	3302	53.00	.01887
90	2.76	151.5	151.5	1137.7	986.2	2912	46.00	.02140
95	3	156.9	156.9	1139.4	982.4	2607	41.82	.02391
100	3.26	161.9	161.9	1140.9	979.0	2361	37.80	.02641
105	3.51	168.5	168.5	1142.3	975.8	2130	34.61	.02899
110	3.76	170.7	170.7	1143.5	973.8	1990	31.40	.03196
115	4	174.7	174.7	1144.7	970.0	1846	29.58	.03381
120	4.26	178.4	178.4	1145.9	967.4	1721	27.59	.03625
125	4.51	180.9	180.9	1146.6	965.7	1646	26.36	.03794
130	4.76	181.9	181.9	1146.9	965.0	1614	25.87	.03868
135	5	185.3	185.3	1147.9	962.7	1519	24.33	.04110
140	5.26	188.4	188.4	1148.9	960.5	1434	22.98	.04352
145	5.51	191.4	191.4	1149.8	958.3	1359	21.78	.04592
150	5.76	194.3	194.3	1150.6	956.3	1292	20.70	.04831
155	6	197.0	197.0	1151.5	954.4	1231	19.72	.05070
160	6.26	199.7	199.7	1152.2	952.5	1176	18.84	.05308
165	6.51	202.2	202.2	1153.0	950.8	1126	18.04	.05545
170	6.76	204.7	204.7	1153.7	949.1	1080	17.30	.05782
175	7	207.0	207.0	1154.5	947.4	1039	16.62	.06018
180	7.26	209.3	209.3	1155.1	945.8	998.4	15.98	.06253
185	7.51	211.5	211.5	1155.8	944.3	962.9	15.42	.06487
190	7.76	213.7	213.7	1156.4	942.8	924.8	14.88	.06721
195	8	215.7	215.7	1157.1	941.3	887.6	14.38	.06955
200	8.26	217.8	217.8	1157.7	939.9	850.8	13.91	.07188
205	8.51	219.7	219.7	1158.3	938.9	814.3	13.46	.07420
210	8.76	221.6	221.6	1158.8	937.2	781.8	13.07	.07652
215	9	223.5	223.5	1159.4	935.9	751.8	12.73	.07884
220	9.26	225.3	225.3	1160.0	934.0	724.2	12.42	.08115
225	9.51	227.1	227.1	1160.5	932.4	700.0	12.14	.08346
230	9.76	228.8	228.8	1161.0	931.2	677.9	11.89	.08576
235	10	230.5	230.5	1161.5	930.1	658.8	11.66	.08805
240	10.26	232.1	232.1	1162.0	929.8	640.8	11.45	.09034

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Gauge Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature, Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L , $H - h$, Heat units.	Relative Volume Vol. of Water at 39° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam.	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
			In the Water h , Heat-units.	In the Steam H , Heat-units.				
25.3	34	261.0	233.8	1162.5	928.7	673.7	10.79	.9287
24.3	39	265.6	235.4	1162.9	927.6	667.5	10.53	.9046
23.3	40	267.1	236.0	1163.4	926.5	642.0	10.32	.8871
22.3	41	268.6	236.5	1163.9	925.4	627.3	10.05	.8692
21.3	42	270.1	240.0	1164.3	924.4	613.3	9.83	.8518
20.3	43	271.5	241.4	1164.7	923.3	596.9	9.61	.8341
19.3	44	272.9	242.9	1165.2	922.3	585.0	9.41	.8163
18.3	45	274.3	244.3	1165.6	921.3	573.7	9.21	.7988
17.3	46	275.7	245.7	1166.0	920.4	563.0	9.02	.7810
16.3	47	277.0	247.0	1166.4	919.4	551.7	8.84	.7631
15.3	48	278.3	248.4	1166.8	918.5	540.9	8.67	.7453
14.3	49	279.6	249.7	1167.2	917.5	530.5	8.50	.7276
13.3	50	280.9	251.0	1167.6	916.6	520.5	8.34	.7100
12.3	51	282.1	252.2	1168.0	915.7	510.9	8.19	.6925
11.3	52	283.3	253.5	1168.4	914.9	501.7	8.04	.6750
10.3	53	284.5	254.7	1168.8	914.0	492.8	7.90	.6576
9.3	54	285.7	256.0	1169.1	913.1	484.2	7.76	.6403
8.3	55	286.9	257.2	1169.5	912.3	475.9	7.63	.6231
7.3	56	288.1	258.3	1169.9	911.5	467.9	7.50	.6060
6.3	57	289.1	259.5	1170.1	910.6	460.2	7.38	.5890
5.3	58	290.3	260.7	1170.5	909.8	452.7	7.26	.5721
4.3	59	291.4	261.8	1170.8	909.0	445.5	7.14	.5553
3.3	60	292.5	262.9	1171.2	908.2	438.5	7.03	.5386
2.3	61	293.6	264.0	1171.5	907.5	431.7	6.92	.5220
1.3	62	294.7	265.1	1171.8	906.7	425.2	6.82	.5055
0.3	63	295.7	266.2	1172.1	905.9	418.8	6.72	.4891
0.3	64	296.8	267.2	1172.4	905.2	412.6	6.62	.4728
0.3	65	297.8	268.3	1172.7	904.5	406.6	6.53	.4566
0.3	66	298.8	269.3	1173.1	903.7	400.8	6.43	.4405
0.3	67	299.8	270.4	1173.4	903.0	395.2	6.34	.4245
0.3	68	300.8	271.4	1173.7	902.3	389.8	6.25	.4086
0.3	69	301.8	272.4	1174.0	901.6	384.5	6.17	.3928
0.3	70	302.7	273.4	1174.3	900.9	379.3	6.09	.3771
0.3	71	303.7	274.4	1174.6	900.2	374.2	6.01	.3615
0.3	72	304.6	275.3	1174.9	899.5	369.4	5.93	.3460
0.3	73	305.6	276.3	1175.1	898.8	364.6	5.85	.3306
0.3	74	306.5	277.2	1175.4	898.2	360.0	5.78	.3153
0.3	75	307.4	278.2	1175.7	897.5	355.5	5.71	.2999
0.3	76	308.3	279.1	1176.0	896.9	351.1	5.63	.2847
0.3	77	309.2	280.0	1176.3	896.2	346.8	5.57	.2695
0.3	78	310.1	280.9	1176.6	895.6	342.6	5.50	.2544
0.3	79	310.9	281.8	1176.8	895.0	338.5	5.43	.2393
0.3	80	311.8	282.7	1177.1	894.3	334.5	5.37	.2243
0.3	81	312.7	283.6	1177.4	893.7	330.6	5.31	.2094
0.3	82	313.5	284.5	1177.7	893.1	326.8	5.25	.1946
0.3	83	314.4	285.3	1178.0	892.5	323.1	5.19	.1799
0.3	84	315.3	286.2	1178.3	891.9	319.5	5.13	.1653
70.3	85	316.0	287.0	1178.6	891.3	316.0	5.07	.1508

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L_e , $= H - h$, Heat-units.	Relative Volume Vol. of Water at 32° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam.	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
		In the Water h , Heat-units.	In the Steam H , Heat-units.				
86	316.8	297.9	1178.6	880.7	312.5	5.04	1.093
87	317.7	298.7	1179.1	880.1	309.1	4.96	1.015
88	318.5	299.5	1179.1	880.5	305.8	4.91	1.036
89	319.3	299.4	1179.1	880.9	302.5	4.86	1.058
90	320.0	299.2	1178.6	880.4	299.4	4.81	1.080
91	320.8	299.0	1178.6	880.8	296.3	4.76	1.102
92	321.6	298.8	1180.0	887.2	293.2	4.71	1.123
93	322.4	298.6	1180.0	886.7	290.2	4.66	1.145
94	323.1	298.4	1180.0	886.1	287.3	4.62	1.168
95	323.9	298.1	1181.0	885.6	284.5	4.57	1.188
96	324.6	298.9	1181.0	885.0	281.7	4.53	1.210
97	325.4	298.7	1181.0	884.5	279.0	4.48	1.231
98	326.1	298.4	1181.0	884.0	276.3	4.44	1.253
99	326.8	298.2	1181.0	883.4	273.7	4.40	1.271
100	327.6	298.0	1181.0	882.9	271.1	4.36	1.296
101	328.3	297.7	1182.1	882.4	268.5	4.32	1.317
102	329.0	297.4	1182.1	881.9	266.0	4.28	1.339
103	329.7	297.1	1182.1	881.4	263.6	4.24	1.360
104	330.4	296.9	1182.1	880.8	261.2	4.20	1.382
105	331.1	296.6	1183.1	880.3	258.9	4.16	1.403
106	331.8	296.3	1183.1	879.8	256.6	4.12	1.425
107	332.5	296.0	1183.1	879.3	254.3	4.09	1.446
108	333.2	295.7	1183.1	878.8	252.1	4.05	1.467
109	333.9	295.4	1183.1	878.3	249.9	4.02	1.489
110	334.5	295.1	1184.0	877.9	247.8	3.98	1.510
111	335.2	294.8	1184.0	877.4	245.7	3.95	1.531
112	335.9	294.5	1184.0	876.9	243.6	3.92	1.553
113	336.5	294.2	1184.0	876.4	241.6	3.88	1.574
114	337.2	293.9	1184.0	875.9	239.6	3.85	1.596
115	337.8	293.5	1185.0	875.5	237.6	3.82	1.617
116	338.5	293.2	1185.0	875.0	235.7	3.79	1.638
117	339.1	292.8	1185.0	874.5	233.8	3.76	1.660
118	339.7	292.5	1185.0	874.1	231.9	3.73	1.681
119	340.4	292.1	1185.0	873.6	230.1	3.70	1.704
120	341.0	291.8	1186.0	873.2	228.3	3.67	1.724
121	341.6	291.4	1186.0	872.7	226.5	3.64	1.745
122	342.2	291.1	1186.0	872.3	224.7	3.61	1.766
123	342.9	290.7	1186.0	871.8	223.0	3.59	1.788
124	343.5	290.3	1186.0	871.4	221.3	3.56	1.809
125	344.1	290.0	1187.1	870.9	219.6	3.53	1.830
126	344.7	289.6	1187.1	870.5	218.0	3.51	1.851
127	345.3	289.2	1187.1	870.0	216.4	3.48	1.872
128	345.9	288.8	1187.1	869.6	214.8	3.46	1.894
129	346.5	288.4	1187.1	869.2	213.2	3.43	1.915
130	347.1	288.1	1188.0	868.7	211.6	3.41	1.936
131	347.6	287.7	1188.0	868.3	210.1	3.39	1.957
132	348.2	287.3	1188.0	867.9	208.6	3.37	1.978
133	348.7	286.9	1188.0	867.5	207.1	3.35	1.999
134	349.3	286.5	1188.0	867.1	205.7	3.33	2.020

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Gauge Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L_v $= H - h$ Heat-units.	Relative Volume Vol. of water at 32° F. = 1.	Volume Cub. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam	Weight of 1 cu. ft.
			In the Water h Heat-units.	In the Steam H Heat-units.				
120.3	135	350.0	322.1	1188.7	866.6	204.2	3.23	3.07
121.3	136	350.5	322.6		866.2	202.6	3.25	
122.3	137	351.1	323.2	1189.0	865.8	201.4	3.26	
123.3	138	351.6	323.8		865.4	200.0	3.27	
124.3	139	352.2	324.4	.4	865.0	198.7	3.29	
125.3	140	352.8	325.0	.5	864.6	197.3	3.30	
126.3	141	353.3	325.5	.7	864.2	196.0	3.31	
127.3	142	353.9	326.1	.0	863.8	194.5	3.32	
128.3	143	354.4	326.7	1190.0	863.4	193.4	3.33	
129.3	144	355.0	327.2	.2	863.0	192.2	3.34	
130.3	145	355.5	327.8	.4	862.6	190.9	3.35	
131.3	146	356.0	328.4	.5	862.2	189.7	3.36	
132.3	147	356.6	328.9	.7	861.8	188.3	3.37	
133.3	148	357.1	329.5	.9	861.4	187.0	3.38	
134.3	149	357.6	330.0	1191.0	861.0	185.1	3.40	
135.3	150	358.2	330.6	.2	860.6	184.9	3.41	
136.3	151	358.7	331.1	.3	860.2	183.7	3.42	
137.3	152	359.2	331.6	.5	859.9	182.6	3.43	
138.3	153	359.7	332.2	.7	859.5	181.5	3.44	
139.3	154	360.2	332.7	.8	859.1	180.4	3.45	
140.3	155	360.7	333.2	1192.0	858.7	179.2	3.46	
141.3	156	361.3	333.8	.1	858.4	178.1	3.47	
142.3	157	361.8	334.3	.3	858.0	177.0	3.48	
143.3	158	362.3	334.8	.4	857.6	176.0	3.49	
144.3	159	362.8	335.3	.6	857.2	174.9	3.50	
145.3	160	363.3	335.9	.7	856.9	173.9	3.51	
146.3	161	363.8	336.4	.9	856.5	172.9	3.52	
147.3	162	364.3	336.9	1193.0	856.1	171.9	3.53	
148.3	163	364.8	337.4	.2	855.8	171.0	3.54	
149.3	164	365.3	337.9	.3	855.4	170.0	3.55	
150.3	165	365.7	338.4	.5	855.1	169.0	3.56	
151.3	166	366.2	338.9	.6	854.7	168.1	3.57	
152.3	167	366.7	339.4	.8	854.4	167.1	3.58	
153.3	168	367.2	339.9	.9	854.0	166.2	3.59	
154.3	169	367.7	340.4	1194.1	853.6	165.3	3.60	
155.3	170	368.2	340.9	.1	853.3	164.3	3.61	
156.3	171	368.6	341.4	.4	852.9	163.4	3.62	
157.3	172	369.1	341.9	.5	852.6	162.5	3.63	
158.3	173	369.6	342.4	.7	852.3	161.6	3.64	
159.3	174	370.0	342.9	.8	851.9	160.7	3.65	
160.3	175	370.5	343.4	.9	851.6	159.8	3.66	
161.3	176	371.0	343.9	1195.1	851.2	158.9	3.67	
162.3	177	371.4	344.3	.1	850.9	158.1	3.68	
163.3	178	371.9	344.8	.4	850.5	157.2	3.69	
164.3	179	372.4	345.3	.5	850.2	156.4	3.70	
165.3	180	372.8	345.8	.7	849.9	155.6	3.71	
166.3	181	373.3	346.3	.8	849.5	154.8	3.72	
167.3	182	373.7	346.7	.9	849.2	154.0	3.73	
168.3	183	374.2	347.2	1196.1	848.9	153.2	3.74	
169.3	184	374.6	347.6	.1	848.6	152.4	3.75	

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat $L = H - h$, Heat-units.	Relative Volume, Vol. of water at 32° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
		In the Water h Heat-units.	In the Steam H Heat-units.				
184	374.0	347.7	1196.2	848.5	152.4	2.39	.4066
185	375.1	348.1	.3	848.2	151.6	2.45	.4087
186	375.5	348.6	.5	847.9	150.8	2.43	.4108
187	375.9	349.1	.6	847.6	150.0	2.42	.4129
188	376.4	349.5	.7	847.2	149.2	2.41	.4150
189	376.9	350.0	.9	846.9	148.5	2.40	.4170
190	377.3	350.4	1197.0	846.6	147.8	2.39	.4191
191	377.7	350.9	.1	846.3	147.0	2.37	.4212
192	378.2	351.3	.3	845.9	146.3	2.36	.4233
193	378.6	351.8	.4	845.6	145.6	2.35	.4254
194	379.0	352.2	.5	845.3	144.9	2.34	.4275
195	379.5	352.7	.7	845.0	144.2		.4296
196	380.0	353.1	.8	844.7	143.5		.4317
197	380.3	353.6	.9	844.4	142.8		.4337
198	380.7	354.0	1198.1	844.1	142.1	2.29	.4358
199	381.2	354.4	.2	843.7	141.4	2.28	.4379
200	381.6	354.9	.3	843.4	140.8	2.27	.4400
201	382.0	355.3	.4	843.1	140.1	2.26	.4420
202	382.4	355.8	.6	842.8	139.5	2.25	.4441
203	382.8	356.2	.7	842.5	138.8	2.24	.4462
204	383.2	356.6	.8	842.2	138.1	2.23	.4482
205	383.7	357.1	1199.0	841.9	137.5	2.22	.4503
206	384.1	357.5	.1	841.6	136.9	2.21	.4523
207	384.5	357.9	.2	841.3	136.3	2.20	.4544
208	384.9	358.3	.3	841.0	135.7	2.19	.4564
209	385.3	358.8	.5	840.7	135.1	2.18	.4585
210	385.7	359.2	.6	840.4	134.5	2.17	.4605
211	386.1	359.6	.7	840.1	133.9	2.16	.4626
212	386.5	360.0	.8	839.8	133.3	2.15	.4646
213	386.9	360.4	.9	839.5	132.7	2.14	.4667
214	387.3	360.9	1200.1	839.2	132.1	2.13	.4687
215	387.7	361.3	.2	838.9	131.5	2.12	.4707
216	388.1	361.7	.3	838.6	130.9	2.12	.4728
217	388.5	362.1	.4	838.3	130.3	2.11	.4748
218	388.9	362.5	.6	838.1	129.7	2.10	.4768
219	389.3	362.9	.7	837.8	129.2	2.09	.4788
220	389.7	363.2	1200.8	837.6	128.7	2.06	.4808
220	389.6	363.2	1202.0	837.8	128.3	1.98	.5061
240	397.3	370.0	1203.1	833.1	118.5	1.90	.5270
250	400.9	373.8	1204.3	830.5	114.0	1.83	.5478
260	404.4	377.4	1205.3	827.9	109.8	1.75	.5696
270	407.8	380.9	1206.3	825.4	105.9	1.70	.5904
280	411.0	384.3	1207.3	823.0	102.3	1.64	.6101
290	414.2	387.7	1208.3	820.6	99.0	1.585	.6298
300	417.4	390.9	1209.2	818.3	95.8	1.535	
350	432.0	406.3	1213.7	807.5	82.7	1.325	

Reparancies at 205.3 lbs. gauge are due to the change in area.

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Gauge Pressure, lbs per sq. in.	Absolute Press- ure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat h. h. Heat units.	Relative Volume, Vol. of water at 32° F. = 1	Volume, Cu. Ft. of steam in 1 lb.
			In the Water h. Heat- units.	In the Steam H. Heat- units.			
345.3	400	444.9	419.3	1217.7	787.2	26.6	1.15
435.3	450	456.6	432.2	1221.3	786.1	26.1	1.03
495.3	500	467.4	443.5	1224.5	781.0	26.0	.92
545.3	550	477.5	454.1	1227.6	774.5	25.6	.82
585.3	600	486.9	464.2	1230.5	768.3	25.2	.74
625.3	650	495.7	473.6	1233.2	762.6	24.8	.67
685.3	700	504.1	482.3	1235.7	755.2	24.4	.61
735.3	750	512.1	490.9	1238.0	747.2	24.0	.56
785.3	800	519.6	498.9	1240.3	741.4	23.6	.52
835.3	850	526.8	506.7	1242.5	735.8	23.9	.48
885.3	900	533.7	514.0	1244.7	730.6	23.0	.45
935.3	950	540.3	521.3	1246.7	725.4	22.4	.42
985.3	1000	546.8	528.3	1248.7	720.3	22.0	.40

FLOW OF STEAM.

Flow of Steam through a Nozzle. (From Clark's *Chemical Engineering*.)—The flow of steam of a greater pressure into an atmosphere of less pressure increases as the difference of pressure is increased. The external pressure becomes only 58% of the absolute pressure. The flow of steam is neither increased nor diminished by the fall of internal pressure below 58%, or about $4\frac{1}{7}$ ths of the inside pressure, or the extent of a perfect vacuum. In flowing through a nozzle of the size the steam expands to the external pressure, and to the volume of the pressure, so long as it is not less than 58% of the internal pressure. The external pressure of 58%, and for lower percentages, the ratio of discharge is 1 to 1.024. The following table is selected from Mr. Brown's *Steam Engineering*, giving the rates of discharge under a constant internal pressure of various external pressures:

**Outflow of Steam; from a Given Initial Pressure
Various Lower Pressures.**

Absolute initial pressure in boiler, 75 lbs. per sq. in.

Absolute Pressure in Boiler per square inch.	External Pressure per square inch.	Ratio of Expansion in Nozzle.	Velocity of Outflow at Constant Density.	Actual Velocity of Outflow Expanded.	Feet per sec.
lbs.	lbs.	ratio.	feet per sec.	feet p. sec.	
75	74	1.013	227.5	226	
75	73	1.027	286.7	401	
75	70	1.063	480	541	
75	65	1.136	680	749	
75	61.64	1.198	736	876	
75	60	1.219	765	969	
75	50	1.494	875	1222	
75	45	1.675	900	1300	
75	43.10	1.694	890.0	1446.5	
75	40	1.624	900.5	1445.5	
75	35	1.624	900.5	1445.5	

steam of varying initial pressures is discharged into the atmosphere, the pressure being not more than 58% of the initial pressure, the velocity of outflow at constant density, that is, supposing the density to be maintained, is given by the formula $V = 3.5853 \sqrt{p}$.

Velocity of outflow in feet per minute, as for steam of the initial pressure p .

Height in feet of a column of steam of the given absolute initial pressure of uniform density, the weight of which is equal to the pressure on the unit of base.

Initial pressure to which the formula applies, when the steam is discharged into the atmosphere at 14.7 lbs. per square inch, is (14.7×2.37) lbs. per square inch. Examples of the application of the formula are given in the table below.

From the contents of this table it appears that the velocity of outflow into the atmosphere, of steam above 25 lbs. per square inch absolute pressure, is not very effective, increases very slowly with the pressure, obviously because of the weight to be moved, increase with the pressure. At a pressure of 900 feet per second may, for approximate calculations, be taken as the velocity of outflow as for constant density, that is, taking the steam at the initial volume.

Flow of Steam into the Atmosphere.—External pressure 14.7 lbs. absolute. Ratio of expansion in nozzle, 1.634

Initial Pressure.	Actual Velocity of Outflow Expanded.	Discharge per square inch of Orifice per min.	Horse-power per sq. in. of Orifice if H. P. = 30 lbs. per hour.	Absolute Initial Pressure per square inch.	Velocity of Outflow as at Constant Density.	Actual Velocity of Outflow Expanded.	Discharge per square inch of orifice per minute.	Horse-power per sq. in. of Orifice if H. P. = 30 lbs. per hour.
at 14.7 lbs. p. sq. in.	feet per sec.	lbs.	H. P.	lbs.	feet p. sec.	feet p. sec.	lbs.	H. P.
25	1401	92.81	45.6	90	895	1454	77.94	155.9
30	1408	90.84	58.7	100	898	1459	80.34	172.7
40	1419	35.18	70.4	115	902	1466	88.76	197.5
50	1429	44.06	88.1	135	906	1472	115.61	231.2
60	1437	52.58	105.2	155	910	1479	132.21	264.4
70	1444	61.07	122.1	175	913	1481	149.40	280.9
80	1447	65.30	130.6	215	919	1483	181.58	363.2

Approximate Rule.—Flow in pounds per second = absolute pressure in square inches $\div 70$. This rule gives results which correspond with those in the above table, as shown below.

lbs. p. sq. in.	25.37	40	60	75	100	135	165	215
per min., by rule.....	22.81	35.18	52.59	65.80	86.34	115.61	140.46	181.58
rule.....	21.74	34.23	51.43	64.39	85.71	115.71	141.48	184.29

body. In Trans A. S. M. E., xl, 187, reports a series of experiments of steam through tubes $\frac{1}{4}$ inch in diameter, and $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ inch rounded entrances, in which the results agreed closely with formula, the greatest difference being an excess of the experimental calculated result of 3.3%. An equation derived from the theory of flow is given by Prof. Peabody, but it does not agree with the experimental results as well as Napier's rule, the excess of the actual flow

Flow of Steam in Pipes.—A formula commonly used for velocity of steam in pipes is the same as Downing's for the flow of water in

iron pipes, viz., $V = 50 \sqrt{\frac{H}{L}} D$, in which V = velocity in feet

L = length and D = diameter of pipe in feet, H = pressure of steam, of the pressure of the steam at

which would produce a pressure equal to the difference of pressure at the two ends of the pipe. (For derivation of the coefficient 50, see Babcock's "Warming Buildings by Steam," Proc. Inst. C. E. 1884.)

If Q = quantity in cubic feet per minute, d = diameter in inches, L being in feet, the formula reduces to

$$Q = 4.733 \sqrt{\frac{H}{L d^5}}, \quad H = .0449 \frac{Q^2 L}{d^5}, \quad d = .5374 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 L}{H}}$$

(These formulae are applicable to air and other gases as well as steam.)

If p_1 = pressure in pounds per square inch of the steam or gas at entrance to the pipe, p_2 = the pressure at the exit, then $144(p_1 - p_2)$ = difference in pressure per square foot. Let w = density or weight per cubic foot of steam at the pressure p_1 , then the height of column equivalent to difference in pressures

$$= H = \frac{144(p_1 - p_2)}{w}, \quad \text{and} \quad Q = 60 \times .7854 \times 50 D^2 \sqrt{\frac{144(p_1 - p_2)}{wL}}$$

If W = weight of steam flowing in pounds per minute = Qw , d being taken in inches, L being in feet,

$$W = 56.68 \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{L}}; \quad Q = 56.68 \sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{Lw}}$$

$$d = 0.199 \sqrt[5]{\frac{W^2 L}{w(p_1 - p_2)}} = 0.199 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 w L}{p_1 - p_2}}$$

$$\text{Velocity in feet per minute} = V = Q + .7854 \frac{d^2}{144} = 10392 \sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - p_2)}{wL}}$$

$$\text{For a velocity of 6000 feet per minute, } d = \frac{wL}{3(p_1 - p_2)}; \quad p_1 - p_2 = \frac{wL}{3d}$$

For a velocity of 6000 feet per minute, a steam-pressure of 100 lbs. gauge or $w = .264$, and a length of 100 feet, $d = \frac{8.8}{p_1 - p_2}$; $p_1 - p_2 = \frac{8.8}{d}$. Then a pipe 1 inch diameter, 100 feet long, carrying steam of 100 lbs. gauge pressure at 6000 feet velocity per minute, would have a loss of pressure of 8.8 lb. per square inch, while steam travelling at the same velocity in a pipe 2 inches diameter would lose only 1 lb. pressure.

G. H. Babcock, in "Steam," gives the formula

$$W = 87 \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{L(1 + \frac{8.8}{d})}}$$

In earlier editions of "Steam" the coefficient is given as 200,—without error,—and this value has been reprinted in Clark's Pocket-Book (2nd edition). It is apparently derived from one of the numerous formulae for flow of water in pipes, the multiplier of L in the denominator being an expression of the increased resistance of small pipes. Putting this

in the form $W = c \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{L}}$, in which c will vary with the diameter of the pipe, we have,

For diameter, inches.....	1	2	3	4	6	8
Value of c	40.7	53.1	58.8	62	66.6	73.7

instead of the constant value 56.68, given with the simpler formula. Use of the most widely accepted formula for flow of water in pipes

$$W = \frac{10.47}{\sqrt{f}} \sqrt{\frac{p_1 - p_2}{L}}$$

in which f = values ranging from .65 for a $\frac{1}{2}$ inch pipe to

34-inch. Using D'Arcy's coefficients, and modifying his formula to apply to steam, to the form

$$Q = c \sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{wL}}, \text{ or } W = c \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{L}},$$

0.

Water, inches....	1/4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
.....	36.8	45.8	52.7	56.1	57.8	58.4	59.5	60.1	60.7
Water, inches....	9	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
.....	61.2	61.8	62.1	62.3	62.6	62.7	62.9	63.2	63.3

In the absence of direct experiments these coefficients are probably as near as any that may be derived from formulae for flow of water.

Pressure in lbs. per sq. in. = $p_1 - p_2 = \frac{Q^2 w L}{c^2 d^5}$.

of Pressure due to Radiation as well as Friction. - Reiger (*Mechanics*, June 30, 1883) gives the following formulae and flow of steam in pipes. He takes into consideration the losses in due both to radiation and to friction.

Power, expressed in heat-units due to friction, $H_f = \frac{W^2 f l}{10 p^2 d^5}$.

Loss to radiation, $H_r = 0.362 r l d$.

W is the weight in lbs. of steam delivered per hour, f the coefficient of friction of the pipe, l the length of the pipe in feet, p the absolute pressure, d the diameter of the pipe in inches, and r the coefficient of radiation. f is taken as from .0165 to .0175, and r varies as follows:

TABLE OF VALUES FOR r .

Pipe Covering.	Absolute Pressure.			
	40 lbs.	65 lbs.	90 lbs.	115 lbs.
Lead pipe	437	555	630	684
Sheet composition	146	173	193	209
Asbestos	157	192	202	223
Asbestos flock	160	195	197	210
Wooden log	100	122	141	151
Mineral wool	61	76	85	93
Air felt	48	58	66	73

The appended table shows the loss due to friction and radiation in a steam pipe the quantity of steam to be delivered is 1000 lbs. per hour, $l = 100$ ft., the pipe being so protected that loss by radiation $r = 64$, and the terminal pressure being 90 lbs.:

Loss by Friction, H_f .	Loss by Radiation, H_r .	Total Loss, L.	Diam. of Pipe, inches.	Loss by Friction, H_f .	Loss by Radiation, H_r .	Total Loss, L.
197,531	16,768	214,300	3 1/4	376	58,688	59,064
64,727	20,960	85,687	4	193	67,072	67,265
28,012	25,152	53,164	5	63	83,410	83,473
12,025	29,344	41,370	6	25	100	100
6,173	33,536	39,709	7	12	11	11
2,023	41,920	43,943	8	6	13	13
878	50,304	51,117				

If the pipes are carrying steam with minimum loss, then for any and all the loss of pressure L for pipes of different diameters is constant as the parameter.

The general equation for the loss of pressure for the minimum friction and radiation is

$$L = \frac{0.0000035 \cdot d \cdot W^2}{W}$$

The loss of pressure for pipes of 1 inch diameter for different terminal pressures when steam is flowing with minimum loss is given by the formula $L = C \sqrt{P}$, in which the coefficient C has the following

For 65 lbs. abs. term. pressure	$C = 0.0000035$
75 " " " "	0.0000035
85 " " " "	0.0000035
95 " " " "	0.0000035
105 " " " "	0.0000035

In order to find the loss of pressure for any other diameter, divide the pressure in a 1 inch pipe for the given terminal pressure by the diameter, and the quotient will be the loss of pressure for that diameter.

The following is a general summary of the results of Mr. Rankine's researches.

The flow of steam in a pipe is determined in the same manner as of water, the formula for the flow of steam being modified only by using the equivalent loss of pressure, divided by the density of the steam, for the loss of head.

The losses in the flow of steam are two in number—the loss by friction of flow and that due to radiation from the sides of the pipe. Of these is a minimum when the equivalent of the loss by friction of flow is equal to one-fifth of the loss of heat by radiation—i.e., for a less or greater diameter—the total loss increases very rapidly.

For delivering a given quantity of steam at a given terminal pressure with minimal loss, the better the non-conducting material of the larger the diameter of the steam pipe to be used.

The most economical loss of pressure for a pipe of given diameter is the most economical loss of pressure in a pipe of 1 inch diameter in conditions, divided by the diameter of the given pipe in inches.

The following table gives the capacity of pipes of different diameters to deliver steam at different terminal pressures through a pipe and a long for loss of pressure of 10 lbs., and a mean value of $f = 0.007$ denote the number of pounds of steam delivered per hour:

Diameter of Pipe, inches.	Abs. Term. Pressure.			Diameter of Pipe, inches.	Abs. Term.	
	65 lbs.	80 lbs.	100 lbs.		65 lbs.	80 lbs.
	W	W	W		W	W
1	102	113	125	4½	4,307	4,600
1¼	170	198	219	5	5,721	6,000
1½	282	312	340	6	9,224	10,000
1¾	415	459	508	7	13,268	14,000
2	570	641	710	8	17,526	18,500
2½	1,011	1,121	1,240	9	21,870	23,000
3	1,595	1,768	1,950	10	27,304	28,500
3½	2,346	2,590	2,850	11	33,081	34,500
4	3,275	3,629	4,012	12	39,049	40,500

Resistance to Flow by Bends, Valves, etc. (from Engineering Buildings by Steam.)—The resistance at the entrance to a special bell given consists of two parts. The first

is in g

of flow, and the head is 2.5 ft.

distance of the mouth of the tube. Hence the whole loss of resistance is $1.505 \frac{v^3}{2g}$. This resistance is equal to the resistance of a tube of a length equal to about 60 times its diameter.

Each sharp right-angled elbow is the same as in flowing of straight tube equal to about 40 times its diameter. For stop-valve the resistance is taken to be $1\frac{1}{2}$ times that of the elbow.

Steam-pipes for Stationary Engines.—Authorities generally agree that steam-pipes supplying engines should be such size that the mean velocity of steam in them does not exceed 40 feet per minute, in order that the loss of pressure due to friction be not excessive. The velocity is calculated on the assumption that the steam is cut off at each stroke. In very long pipes, 100 feet and upward, it is better to make them larger than this rule would give, and to place a large stop-valve on the pipe near the engine, especially when the engine cuts off steam at each stroke.

Power, May, 1893, on proper area of supply-pipes for engines following the practice of leading builders. To facilitate comparison engines have been rated in horse-power at 30 pounds mean pressure. The table contains all the varieties of simple engines, from the Corliss, and it appears that there is no general rule as to the sizes of pipe used in the different types.

The sizes selected from this table are as follows:

Inches	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6	7	8	9	10
H.P.	25	30	36	44	53	64	77	92	109	128	148	169
Formula (1)	23	28	34	41	49	58	69	82	96	112	129	147
Formula (2)	24	29.5	35	42	50	60	71	84	99	115	133	151

Note: 1 H.P. requires .1375 sq. in. of steam-pipe area.

Formula: Horse-power = $6d^2$. d = diam. of pipe in inches.

Formula (1) is thus derived: Assume that the linear area of the pipe should not exceed 6000 feet per minute, then $\pi d \times \text{area} \times \text{piston-speed} = 6000 (a)$. Assume that the av. mean pressure is 40 lbs. per sq. in., then $\pi d \times \text{area} \times \text{piston-speed} = 40 \times \text{H.P.} (b)$. Dividing (a) by (b) and cancelling, we have $\text{area} = .1375 \text{ sq. in.}$. If we use 8000 ft. per min. as the allowable piston-speed, the factor .1375 becomes .1091; that is, pipe area + H.P. = $\text{area} \times .97 = \text{horse-power}$. This, however, gives areas of pipe not used in the most recent practice. A formula which gives results agreeing with practice, as shown in the above table is

$$\text{H.P.} = 6d^2, \text{ or } \text{pipe diameter} = \sqrt[4]{\frac{\text{H.P.}}{6}} = .408 \sqrt[4]{\text{H.P.}}$$

TABLE OF CYLINDERS CORRESPONDING TO VARIOUS SIZES OF STEAM-ENGINES ON PISTON-SPEED OF ENGINE OF 600 FT. PER MINUTE, AND MEAN VELOCITY OF STEAM IN PIPE OF 4000, 6000, AND 8000 FT. (STEAM ASSUMED TO BE ADMITTED DURING FULL STROKE.)

Inches	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
4000 ft.	2.2	2.8	3.5	4.2	5.0	5.8	6.7	7.8
6000 ft.	1.5	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.0	4.6	5.3
8000 ft.	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.4	3.9

plan is followed, the pipe fills with water whenever this boiler is on and the others are running, and breakage of the pipe may cause serious suits. Never let a junction-pipe run into the bottom of the main into the side or top. Always use an angle-valve where convenient, as it is more room in them. Never use a gate-valve under high pressure; by-pass is used with it. Never open a blow-off valve on a boiler, and then shut it; it is sure to catch the sediment and ruin the valve. It will open before closing. Never use a globe-valve on an indicator pipe; water, always use gate or angle valves or stop-cocks to obtain a passage. Buy if possible valves with renewable disks. Lastly, never go inside a boiler to work, especially if he is to hammer on it, unless break the joint between the boiler and the valve and put a plate between the flanges.

Flanges for Steam-nozzles and Steam-pipe, used on Gill Water-tube Boiler, Phila., 1892.

Size of pipe.....	3	4	5	6	7	8
Outside diameter of flange, inches..	9	10	11	12	13	14
Pitch-circle for bolts, diam., " ..	7	8	9	10	11	12
Outside diam. of gaskets, " ..	5½	6½	7½	8½	9½	10½
Inside diam. of gaskets, " ..	3½	4½	5½	6½	7½	8½
Number of bolts ..	5	6	7	8	9	10

Size of pipe.....	10	11	12	13	14	15
Outside diameter of flange, inches..	16	17	18	19	20	21
Pitch-circle for bolts, diam., " ..	14	15	16	17	18	19
Outside diam. of gaskets, " ..	12½	13½	14½	15½	16½	17½
Inside diam. of gaskets, " ..	10½	11½	12½	13½	14½	15½
Number of bolts ..	12	13	14	15	16	17

All holes drilled 15/16 in., with a jig accurately laid out.

All bolts to be ¾ in. diam. by 3¼ in. long under the head.

All bolts to have square heads and hexagon nuts

The "Steam Loop" is a system of piping by which water of condensation in steam-pipes is automatically returned to the boiler. In simplest form it consists of three pipes, which are called the riser, the zonal, and the drop-leg. When the steam-loop is used for returning to the boiler the water of condensation and entrainment from the steam-pipes through which the steam flows to the cylinder of an engine, the riser is usually attached to a separator; this riser empties at a suitable point in the horizontal, and from thence the water of condensation is fed in the drop-leg, which is connected to the boiler, into which the water of condensation is fed as soon as the hydrostatic pressure in drop-leg in connection with the steam-pressure in the pipes is sufficient to overcome the back pressure. The action of the device depends on the following principles: Inflow of steam may be balanced by a water-column; vapors or liquids tend to rise to the point of lowest pressure; rate of flow depends on difference of pressure and mass; decrease of static pressure in a steam-pipe or other pipe is proportional to rate of condensation; in a steam-current water carried or swept along rapidly by friction. (Illustrated in Modern Mechanical Engineering, p. 507.)

Loss from an Uncovered Steam-pipe. (Bjorkling on the subject of steam-pipes.)—The amount of loss by condensation in a steam-pipe carrying a deep mine-shaft has been ascertained by actual practice at the New York Colliery, near Chesterfield, where there is a pipe 7½ in. internal diameter, 100 ft. long. The loss of steam by condensation was ascertained by measurement of the water deposited in a receiver, and was found to be equivalent to about 1 lb. of coal per I.H.P. per hour for each foot of steam-pipe; but there is no doubt that if the pipes had been in the mine-shaft, and well covered with a good non-conducting material, the loss would have been less. (For Steam-pipe Coverings, see p. 468, ante.)

THE STEAM-BOILER.

Horse-power of a Steam-boiler.—The term horse power has many meanings in engineering: *First*, an absolute unit or measure of the work, that is, of the work done in a certain definite period of time, such as energy, as a steam-boiler, a waterfall, a current of air or water, or by a prime mover, as a steam-engine, a water-wheel, or a wind-mill; the value of this unit, whenever it can be expressed in foot-pounds of energy, as in the case of steam-engines, water-wheels, and waterfalls, is foot-pounds per minute. In the case of boilers, where the work done, the conversion of water into steam, cannot be expressed in foot-pounds of energy, the usual value given to the term horse-power is the evaporation of 30 lbs. of water of a temperature of 100° F. into steam at 70 lbs. above the atmosphere. Both of these units are arbitrary; the first, foot-pounds per minute, first adopted by James Watt, being considered tantamount to the power exerted by a good London draught-horse, and the second, of water evaporated per hour being considered to be the steam represented per indicated horse-power of an average engine.

A second definition of the term horse-power is an *approximate measure of the capacity, value, or "rating" of a boiler, engine, water-wheel, or source or conveyer of energy, by which measure it may be described, and sold, advertised, etc.* No definite value can be given to this term, which varies largely with local custom or individual opinion of makers and users of machinery. The nearest approach to uniformity which has arrived at in the term "horse power," used in this sense, is to say that a boiler, engine, water-wheel, or other machine, "rated" at a certain horse-power, should be capable of steadily developing that horse-power for a period of time under ordinary conditions of use and practice, leaving the exact amount to the judgment of the buyer and seller, to written contracts of purchase and sale, or to legal decisions upon such contracts, the interpretation of what is meant by the term "ordinary conditions of use and practice." (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vii. p. 236.)

The committee of the A. S. M. E. on Trials of Steam-boilers in 1884 (Trans., p. 265) discussed the question of the horse-power of boilers as follows: "The Committee of Judges of the Centennial Exhibition, to whom the trials of steam-boilers at that exhibition were intrusted, met with this same question, and finally agreed to solve it, at least so far as the work of that committee was concerned, by the adoption of the unit, 30 lbs. of water evaporated into dry steam per hour from feed-water at 100° F., and under a pressure of 70 lbs. per square inch above the atmosphere; these conditions were considered by them to represent fairly average practice. The quantity of heat demanded to evaporate a pound of water under these conditions is 1,149.6 British thermal units, or 1.1496 units of evaporation. The unit of heat proposed is thus equivalent to the development of 33,305 heat units per hour, or 34,188 units of evaporation. . . .

The committee, after due consideration, has determined to accept the above as the Standard, the first above mentioned, and to recommend that in all trials the commercial horse-power be taken as an evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per hour from a feed-water temperature of 100° F. into steam at 70 lbs. gauge pressure, which shall be considered to be equal to 34½ units of evaporation, that is, to 34½ lbs. of water evaporated from a feed-water temperature of 212° F. into steam at the same temperature. This unit of heat is equal to 33,305 thermal units per hour.

The opinion of this committee that a boiler rated at any stated number of horse-powers should be capable of developing that power with easy fuel, such as draught and ordinary fuel, while exhibiting good economy; and that the boiler should be capable of developing at least one third more than its rated power to meet emergencies at times when maximum power or is not the most important object to be attained.

Unit of Evaporation.—It is the custom to reduce results of boiler-trials to a common standard of weight of water evaporated by the unit of heat of the combustible portion of the fuel, the evaporation being considered to have taken place at mean atmospheric pressure, and at the temperature of 212° F. at that pressure, the feed-water being also assumed to have been at that temperature. This is, in technical language, said to be the unit of evaporation from and at the boiling point at atmospheric pressure, and at 212° F. This unit of evaporation, or on

water evaporated from and at 212° , is equivalent to 965.7 British thermal units.

Measures for Comparing the Duty of Boilers.—The measure of the efficiency of a boiler is the number of pounds of water evaporated per pound of combustible, the evaporation being reduced to the standard "from and at 212° ," that is, the equivalent evaporation from feed water at temperature of 212° F. into steam at the same temperature.

The measure of the capacity of a boiler is the amount of "boiler power" developed, a horse-power being defined as the evaporation of water per hour from 100° F. into steam at 70 lbs. pressure, or 212° F. from and at 212° .

The measure of relative rapidity of steaming of boilers is the number of pounds of water evaporated per hour per square foot of water-heating surface.

The measure of relative rapidity of combustion of fuel in boiler is the number of pounds of coal burned per hour per square foot of grate surface.

STEAM-BOILER PROPORTIONS.

Proportions of Grate and Heating Surface required for a given Horse-power.—The term horse-power here means the power to evaporate 30 lbs. of water from 100° F., temperature of feed water, at steam of 70 lbs., gauge-pressure = 34.5 lbs. from and at 212° F.

Average proportions for maximum economy for land boilers fired with good anthracite coal:

Heating surface per horse-power	11.3 sq. ft.
Grate	1.3 "
Ratio of heating to grate surface	8.43 "
Water evap'd from and at 212° per sq. ft. H.S. per hour	3 lbs.
Combustible burned per H.P. per hour	3 "
Coal with 1/6 refuse, lbs. per H.P. per hour	1.6 "
Combustible burned per sq. ft. grate per hour	9 "
Coal with 1/6 refuse, lbs. per sq. ft. grate per hour	10.8 "
Water evap'd from and at 212° per lb. combustible	11.3 "
Coal (1/6 refuse)	9.6 "

The rate of evaporation is most conveniently expressed in pounds of water evaporated from and at 212° per sq. ft. of water-heating surface per hour, and the rate of combustion in pounds of coal per sq. ft. of grate-surface per hour.

Heating-surface.—For maximum economy with any kind of fuel, the boiler should be proportioned so that at least one square foot of heating-surface should be given for every 3 lbs. of water to be evaporated from and at 212° F. per hour. Still more liberal proportions are required if the efficiency of the heating-surface has its efficiency reduced by: 1. Tendency of the heated gases to short-circuit, that is, to select passages of least resistance and flow through them with high velocity, to the neglect of other passages; 2. Deposition of soot from smoky fuel. 3. Incrustation. If the heating-surfaces are clean, and the heated gases pass over it uniformly, the increase in economy can be obtained by increasing the heating-surface beyond the proportion of 1 sq. ft. to every 3 lbs. of water to be evaporated, with all conditions favorable but little decrease of economy will result if the proportion is 1 sq. ft. to every 4 lbs. evaporated; but in order to avoid for driving of the boiler beyond its rated capacity, and for decrease of efficiency due to the causes above named, it is better to proportion the heating-surface to the evaporation per hour as the minimum standard proportion, that is, 1 sq. ft. to 3 lbs. evaporation per hour as the minimum standard proportion.

Where economy may be sacrificed to capacity, as where fuel is cheap, it is customary to proportion the heating-surface much less liberally. The following table shows approximately the relative results that can be expected with different rates of evaporation, with anthracite coal.

Lbs. water evap'd from and at 212° per sq. ft. heating surface per hour		2	2.5	3	3.5	4	5	6	7	8	9
Sq. ft. heating surface required per horse-power:		17.3	13.8	11.5	9.8	8.6	6.8	5.8	4.9	4.3	3.8
Ratio of heating to grate surface if 1/3 sq. ft. of G. S. is required per horse-power		22	41.4	34.5	29.4	25.8	30.4	17.4	13.7	12.3	11.4
Probable relative economy:		100	100	100	95	90	85	80	75	70	65
Estimated temperature of chimney gases, degrees F.:		450	565	602	632	662	700	731	761	782	803

economy will vary not only with the amount of heating-surface, but with the efficiency of that heating-surface as facility for transfer of heat from the heated gases to the water, and on its freedom from soot and incrustation, and upon the water and the heated gases.

ons coal the efficiency will largely depend upon the thoroughness of the combustion is effected in the furnace.

with any kind of fuel will greatly depend upon the amount of air to the furnace in excess of that required to support combustion, strong draught and thin fires this excess may be very great, and the loss of economy.

Measurement of Heating-surface.—Authorities are not agreed as to the method of measuring the heating-surface of steam-boilers. The general practice is to consider as heating-surface all the surfaces that are exposed to the fire on one side and by flame or heated gases on the other, but there is some difference of opinion as to whether tubular heating-surface should be measured on the inside or from the outside diameter. Some writers say, that the heating-surface always on the smaller side—the fire side of the internal return tubular boiler and the water side in a water-tube boiler would deduct from the heating-surface thus measured all portions supposed to be ineffective on account of being covered by the direct current of the gases.

of uniformity, however, it would appear to be the best method to consider all surfaces as heating-surfaces which transmit heat from the fire to the water, making no allowance for different degrees of efficiency, but also, to use the external instead of the internal diameter for the greater convenience in calculation, the external diameter of all tubes being made in even inches or half inches. There would be no good reason for considering the smaller surface in a tube as the heating-surface, for the transmission of heat through plates that are heated on one side does not appear to be proportional to the thickness of the plate, but rather to the larger. Thus the Serre ribbed tube transmits more heat to the water per foot of length than a plain tube of same diameter, and a ribbed steam-radiator radiates more heat than a plain radiator having the same internal or smaller surface.

Finding the heating-surface of vertical tubular boilers: Multiply the area of the fire-box (in inches) by its height above the grate; add the combined circumference of all the tubes by their length, and the area of the lower tube-sheet; from this sum subtract the area of all the tubes, and divide by 144: the quotient is the square feet of heating-surface.

Finding the heating-surface of horizontal tubular boilers: Take the diameter in inches. Multiply two thirds of the circumference of the tubes by their length; multiply the sum of the circumferences of all the tubes by their length; to the sum of these products add two thirds of the area of the tube-sheets; from this sum subtract twice the combined area of all the tubes; divide the remainder by 144 to obtain the result in square feet. **Finding the square feet of heating-surface in tubes:** Multiply the circumference of a tube in inches, by its length in feet,

Builder's Rating. Heating-surface per horse-power. It is a general practice among builders to furnish about 12 square feet of heating-surface per horse-power, but as the practice is not uniform, and contracts should always specify the amount of heating-surface to be furnished. Not less than one third square foot of grate-surface should be allowed per horse-power.

News, July 5, 1894, gives the following rough-and-ready rule for finding approximately the commercial horse-power of tubular or water-tube boilers: Number of tubes \times their length in feet \times their nominal diameter $\div 50 = nLd + 50$. The number of square feet of surface

$$nLd + 50 = \frac{nLd}{3.83} + 50$$
 and the horse-power at 12 square feet of surface per horse-power, not counting the shell, $= nLd + 45.8$. If 15 square feet of tubes be taken, it is $nLd + 57.3$. Making allowance for the heating-surface in the shell will reduce the divisor to about 50.

Rating of Marine and Locomotive Boilers.—The rating of marine boilers is not generally used in connection with boilers in locomotives. The boilers are designed to suit the service, and the extent of grate and heating-surface only.

go chiefly through the upper rows of tubes; sometimes also in boiler-boilers, where the gases are apt to pass most rapidly in tubes nearest to the centre.

Passages through Grate-bars.—The usual practice is, air-30% to 50% of area of the grate; the larger the better, to avoid of the air supply by clinker; but with coal free from clinker much space may be used without detriment. See paper by F. A. Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xv. p. 503.

PERFORMANCE OF BOILERS.

Rankine, *Eng. Eng.*, vol. i. p. 327) gives the following formulas for the coal and water consumed in steam-boilers per square foot of grate per hour, and the ratio of the heating-surface to the area of the Water taken as evaporated from and at 212° F.

Boilers.....	$w = .0723r^2 + 9.50c$
Boilers.....	$w = .016r^2 + 10.35c$
Boilers.....	$w = .008r^2 + 8.6c$
Boilers (coal-burning).....	$w = .009r^2 + 8.7c$
Boilers (coke-burning).....	$w = .0178r^2 + 7.94c$

w = weight of water in pounds per square foot of grate per hour;
 c = pounds of fuel per square foot of grate per hour;
 r = ratio of heating to grate surface.

The minimum rates of consumption of fuel below which these are not applicable. The limit varies for each kind of boiler, and it is the surface-ratio. It is imposed by the fact that the maximum power of fuel is a fixed quantity, and is naturally at that point reduction of the rate of combustion for a given ratio procures the into the boiler of the whole of the proportion of the heat which for evaporation. In the combustion of good coal the limit of efficiency may be taken as measured by 12½ lbs. of water from 212° F.; and in that of good coke by 12 lbs. of water from and at based on these formulae Clark gives the following table:

Relative Performance of Steam-boilers for Increasing Rates of Combustion and Different Surface-ratios.

For best coal: surface-ratio 30.

	Water from and at 212° F. per hour.	Fuel per Square Foot of Grate per hour, in pounds.						
		5	10	15	20	30	40	50
		lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
Y.	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5°	116	163	211	307	402	498
	Per lb. of coal...	12.5	11.56	10.89	10.56	10.23	10.06	9.96
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5°	117	168	219	322	424	527
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	11.69	11.25	10.95	10.60	10.61	10.54
ve.	Per sq. ft. of grate	50	98	136	179	265	351	437
	Per lb. of coal....	10	9.8	9.01	8.95	8.83	8.77	8.74
	Per sq. ft. of grate	57	105	151	202	299	396	493
	Per lb. of coal....	11.4	10.5	10.26	10.10	9.97	9.90	9.86

Surface-ratio 50.

		5	10	15	20	30	40	50
		lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
Y.	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5°	125°	187.5°	247	342	439	534
	Per lb. of coal....	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.33	11.41	10.95	10.67
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5°	125°	187.5°	245	348	450	552
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.25	11.58	11.25	11.05
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5°	106	149	192	278	364	450
	Per lb. of coal....	12.5	10.6	9.93	9.6	9.27	9.10	9.00
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5°	120	168	217	314	411	508
	Per lb. of coal....	12.5	11.25	11.20	10.85	10.47		

quantities fall below the scope of the formulas for in the text.

Surface ratio 75.

		30	40	50	60	71
		lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
Locomotive.	Per sq. ft. of grate.	342	439	546	639	750
"	Per lb. of coal.	11.39	10.97	10.71	10.67	9.8

General Conditions which secure Economy of boilers.—In general, the highest results are produced where the temperature of the escaping gases is the least. An examination of the made by Mr. G. H. Barrus in his book on "Boiler Tests," in which tests made by him, six in number, in which the temperature of the escaping gases, on an average, that is, 375° F., and comparing with five tests in which the temperature is less than 375° . The boilers are all of the common type, and all use anthracite coal of either egg or broken size. The temperatures in the two series was 443° and 343° respectively, a difference was 101° . The average evaporations are 10.40 lbs. and 10.67 lbs. respectively, and the lowest result corresponds to the case of the lowest temperature. In these tests it appears, therefore, that a reduction in the temperature of the waste gases secured an increase in the rate of 6%. This result corresponds quite closely to the effect of a temperature of the gases by means of a flue-heater where a 10% was attended by an increase of 7% in the evaporation per pound of coal.

A similar comparison was made on horizontal tubular boilers burning coal. The average flue temperature in four tests is 443, and the average evaporation is 11.34 lbs. Six boilers have temperatures of the flue gases the average of which is 389° , and these give an average evaporation of 12.42 lbs. With 87° less temperature of the escaping gases the evaporation is higher by about 4%.

The wasteful effect of a high flue temperature is exhibited by the results of the horizontal tubular class. This source of waste is to be the main cause of the low economy produced in those boilers which are deficient in heating-surface.

Relation between the Heating-surface and Grate-surface for Highest Efficiency.—A comparison of three tests of horizontal tubular boilers with anthracite coal, the ratio of heating-surface to grate-surface being 36.4 to 1, with three other tests of similar boilers, in which the ratio was 48 to 1, showed practically no difference in the results. This shows that a ratio of 36 to 1 provides a sufficient quantity of heating-surface to secure the full efficiency of anthracite coal where the rate of combustion is not more than 12 lbs. per sq. ft. of grate per hour.

In tests with bituminous coal an increase in the ratio from 36 to 48 secured a small improvement in the evaporation per pound of coal, but the temperature of the escaping gases indicated that a still further increase would be beneficial. Among the high results produced on horizontal tubular boilers using bituminous coal, the highest occurs where the ratio is 53.1 to 1. This boiler gave an evaporation of 12.45 lbs. Another boiler furnishes another example of high performance, an evaporation of 12.42 lbs. having been obtained with bituminous coal and a ratio is 65 to 1. These examples indicate that a much larger heating-surface is required for obtaining the full efficiency of bituminous coal than for boilers using anthracite coal. The temperature of the escaping gases in the same boiler is invariably higher when bituminous is used than when anthracite coal is used. The deposit of soot on the heating-surface, when bituminous coal is used interferes with the full efficiency of the heating-surface, and an increased area is demanded as an offset to the loss of efficiency on deposit occasions. It would seem, then, that if a ratio of 36 to 1 is provided for anthracite coal, from 45 to 50 should be provided when bituminous coal is burned, especially in cases where the rate of combustion is 12 lbs. per sq. ft. of grate per hour.

The number of tubes controls the ratio between the area of the heating-surface and area of tube opening. A certain minimum amount of heating-surface is required for efficient work.

The best results obtained with anthracite coal in the common horizontal boiler are in cases where the ratio of area of grate-surface to heating-surface is less than 36 to 1. The conclusion is drawn, that the economy with bituminous coal is obtained when the tube-opening is 10% of the grate-surface.

ous coal is burned the requirements appear to be different. Large tube opening does not seem to make the extra tubes of a bituminous coal is used. The highest result on any boiler of tubular class, fired with bituminous coal, was obtained where the tube opening was the largest. This gave an evaporation of 12.47 lbs. the surface to tube-opening being 5.4 to 1. The next highest result, the ratio being 5.2 to 1. Three high results, averaging obtained when the average ratio was 7.1 to 1. Without going into the ratio to be desired when bituminous coal is used is that tube-opening having an area of from 1/6 to 1/7 of the grate-applies to medium rates of combustion of, say, 10 to 12 lbs. per hour, 12 sq. ft. of water-heating surface being allowed per

of results obtained from different types of boilers leads to the conclusion that the economy with which different types of boilers depends much more upon their proportions and the conditions in which they work, than upon their type; and, moreover, that the proportions are suitably carried out, and when the conditions are the various types of boilers give substantially the same economy.

of a Steam-boiler.—The efficiency of a boiler is the ratio of the total heat generated by the combustion of the fuel in heating the water and in raising steam. With anthracite the heating-value of the combustible portion is very nearly 14,500 Btu., equal to an evaporation from and at 212° of 14,500 ÷ 900 (Btu. per lb. of water) = 16.11 lbs. of water per lb. of combustible. A boiler which when tested with anthracite coal shows an evaporation of 12 lbs. of water per lb. of combustible, has an efficiency of 12 ÷ 16.11 = .745, a figure which is approximated, but scarcely ever quite reached in best practice. With bituminous coal it is necessary to have a test of its heating-power made by a coal calorimeter before the efficiency of the boiler using it can be determined, but a close estimate may be obtained from the chemical analysis of the coal. (See Coal.)

The difference between the efficiency obtained by test and 100% is the sum of the wastes of heat, the chief of which is the necessary loss due to the escape of the chimney-gases. If we have an analysis and a determination of the heating-power of the coal (properly standardized) and an analysis of the chimney-gases, the amounts of the waste may be determined with approximate accuracy by the method

ANALYSIS OF THE COAL.

Semi-bituminous.

.....	80.55
.....	4.50
.....	2.70
.....	1.08
.....	2.92
.....	8.25

100.00

2. ANALYSIS OF THE DRY CHIMNEY-GASES, BY WEIGHT.

	C.	O.	N.
CO ₂ = 18.0 =	8.71	9.80
CO = .2 =	.09	.11
O = 11.2 =	11.20
N = 75.0 =	75.00
.....	100.0	21.30	75.00

of the coal by Dulong's formula, 11,243 heat-units.

being collected over water, the moisture in them is not deter-

mine as determined by boiler-test, 10.25, or 2% more than that found in the ashes obtained by test.

ture of external atmosphere, 60° F.

humidity of air, 60%, corresponding (see air tables) to .007 lb. of water per lb. of air.

ture of chimney-gases, 560° F.

results:

In the chimney-gases being 3.8% of their weight, the total weight of gases per lb. of carbon burned is 100 ÷ 3.8 = 26.32 lbs. Since the weight of the coal is 80.55 ÷ 2 = 78.55% of the weight of the coal, the weight of coal per lb. of coal is 26.32 × 78.55 ÷ 100 = 20.67 lb. of coal furnishes to the dry chimney-gases .78

(.78 ÷ 100 = .0078 lb. O; a total of .8177, say .82

tracted from 20.67 lbs. leaves 19.85 lbs. as the quantity of dry air and moisture which enters the furnace per pound of coal, but a small amount of air is required to burn the available hydrogen, that is, the hydrogen and eighth of the oxygen chemically combined in the coal. Each lb. of coal burned contained .045 lb. H, which requires $.045 \times 8 = .36$ lb. O for combustion. Of this, .025 lb. is furnished by the coal itself, leaving .335 lb. to come from the air. The quantity of air needed to supply this oxygen containing 23% by weight of oxygen is $.335 \div .23 = 1.45$ lb., which added to the 19.85 lbs. already found gives 21.30 lbs. as the quantity of air supplied to the furnace per lb. of coal burned.

The air carried in as vapor is .071 lb. for each lb. of dry air, or $.071 \times 21.30 = 1.51$ lb. for each lb. of coal. Each lb. of coal contained .025 lb. of moisture, which was evaporated and carried into the chimney-gases. The weight of H per lb. of coal when burned formed $.045 \times 9 = .405$ lb. of H_2O .

From the analysis of the chimney-gas it appears that $.02 + 2.10 = 2.12$ lb. of carbon in the coal was burned to CO_2 instead of to CO .

We now have the data for calculating the various losses of heat as follows for each pound of coal burned:

	Heat-units	Percentage of total
20.67 lbs. dry gas $\times (560^\circ - 60^\circ) \times$ sp. heat 0.24	= 2680.0	100.0
.15 lb. vapor in air $\times (560^\circ - 60^\circ) \times$ sp. heat .48	= 38.0	1.4
.025 lb. moisture in coal heated from 60° to 212°	= 4.6	.2
" evaporated from and at 212° ; $.029 \times 966$	= 28.0	1.0
" steam heated from 212° to 560° ; $.348 \times .48$	= 4.6	.2
.405 lb. H_2O from H in coal $\times (560^\circ - 60^\circ) \times .48 \div 18$	= 520.0	19.4
.025 lb. C burned to CO ; loss by incomplete combustion, $.025 \times (14544 - 4451)$	= 200.0	7.5
.02 lb. coal lost in ashes; $.02 \times 14544$	= 290.9	10.9
Radiation and unaccounted for, by difference	= 420.0	15.7
Utilized in making steam, equivalent evaporation		
19.37 lbs. from and at 212° per lb. of coal	= 10,004.0	375.0
	14,244.0	100.0

The heat lost by radiation from the boiler and furnace is not easily determined directly, especially if the boiler is enclosed in brickwork or protected by non-conducting covering. It is customary to estimate the heat lost by radiation by difference, that is, to charge radiation with all the heat which is not otherwise accounted for.

One method of determining the loss by radiation is to block off a portion of the grate surface and build a small fire on the remainder, and let the fire with just enough draught to keep up the steam-pressure and estimate the heat lost by radiation without allowing any steam to be discharged, and the coal consumed for this purpose during a test of several hours.

Estimates of radiation by difference are apt to be greatly in error, since this difference are accumulated all the errors of the analyses of the coal and of the gases. An average value of the heat lost by radiation from a boiler set in brickwork is about 4 per cent. When several boilers are in a battery and enclosed in a boiler-house the loss by radiation may be much less, since much of the heat radiated from the boiler is received in the air supplied to the furnace, which is taken from the boiler room.

An important source of error in making a "heat balance" is the one above given, especially when highly inflammable coal is used, due to the non-combustion of part of the hydrogen-gases, the loss of the coal immediately after firing, when the temperature of the furnace is reduced below the point of ignition of the gases. Each pound of hydrogen which escapes burning is equivalent to a loss of heat in the furnace of 62,500 heat-units.

In analyzing the chimney gases by the usual method the percentages of the constituent gases are obtained by volume instead of by weight, and the percentages by volume of each gas by its specific gravity as compared with air, and divide each by the sum of the products.

of air required to burn a pound of carbon may be obtained from the analysis by volume by the following formula:

$$\text{of air required to burn } \left\{ = \frac{4}{3} \left\{ \frac{2(\text{CO}_2 + \text{O}) + \text{CO}}{\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}} \right\} + 0.23; \right.$$

CO₂, and CO are the per cents, by volume, of the several constituents of the flue gases.

$$\text{per pound } \left\{ = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Lbs. of air per pound} \\ \text{of carbon} \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Per cent of carbon} \\ \text{in coal.} \end{array} \right.$$

to volume at temperature of 32° F. make use of the formula
 $V_0 = 13.37 \times \text{lbs. of air per pound of coal.}$

TESTS OF STEAM-BOILERS.

Tests at the Centennial Exhibition, Philadelphia, 1876.—(See Reports and Awards Group XX, International Exhibition, 1876; also, Clark on the Steam-engine, vol. i, page 253.)

Five tests were made of fourteen boilers, using good anthracite coal, the Galloway, being tested with both anthracite and semi-coal. Two tests were made with each boiler: one called the "economy" trial, to determine the economy and capacity at a rapid rate of fire, the other called the economy trial, to determine the economy at a rate supposed to be near that of maximum economy and efficiency. The following table gives the principal results obtained in the trials, together with the capacity and economy figures of the Galloway for comparison.

	Economy Tests.										Capacity Tests.	
	Ratio Water-heating Surface to Grate-surface.	Coal burned per sq. ft. Grate per hour.	Per cent Ash and Refuse.	Water evap. from 100° to 70 lbs. p. s. ft. H. S. per hr.		Water evap. from and at 212° p. lb. comb'ble, cor. for Quality of Steam.		Temperature in Uptake.	Moisture in Steam.	Superheating of Steam.	Horse power.	Horse power.
		lbs.	per cent	lbs.	lbs.	degs.	%	degs.			H.P.	lbs.
.....	34.6	9.1	10.4	2.25	12.004	393	...	41.3	119.8	148.6	10.441	
.....	64.3	12.0	10.4	1.68	11.988	415	...	32.6	57.8	68.4	11.064	
.....	30.6	6.8	11.3	1.87	11.924	398	...	0.4	47.0	69.7	11.163	
.....	45.8	12.1	11.1	2.42	11.906	411	1.3	...	99.8	125.0	11.925	
.....	37.7	10.0	11.0	2.43	11.822	396	2.7	...	135.6	186.6	10.330	
.....	23.7	0.6	11.1	3.63	11.583	308	...	1.4	103.3	133.8	11.216	
.....	23.7	7.9	8.8	3.20	12.125	325	0.8	...	90.9	125.1	11.602	
.....	15.6	8.0	10.3	2.32	11.030	420	...	71.7	42.6	58.7	9.745	
.....	27.3	12.4	8.5	2.75	10.930	517	0.9	...	82.4	108.4	9.860	
.....	30.7	12.3	6.5	3.20	10.834	524	...	20.5	147.5	162.8	9.715	
.....	17.5	9.7	9.3	2.61	10.618	417	...	15.7	98.0	132.8	9.568	
.....	20.9	10.8	9.0	3.82	10.812	...	5.6	...	81.9	99.9	8.397	
.....	33.3	9.3	11.4	1.38	10.041	430	4.2	...	72.1	108.0	9.974	
.....	11.0	8.0	11.0	4.41	10.021	374	5.2	...	51.7	67.8	8.865	
.....	19.0	8.6	9.9	3.12	9.613	372	2.1	...	45.7	67.2	9.429	
.....	2.77	11.123	85.0	110.8	10.2	

Comparison of the economy and capacity trials shows that an average capacity of 30 per cent was attended by a decrease in economy of 11, but the relation of economy to rate of driving varied greatly in the different boilers. In the Kelly boiler an increase in capacity was attended by a decrease in economy of over 18 per cent, while in the Galloway with an increase of 25 per cent in capacity a decrease in economy.

One of the most important lessons gained from the above table is that there is no necessary relation between the type of a boiler and the results. Of the five boilers that gave the best results, the total range of variation between the highest and lowest of the five being only 2.3%, three were vertical tube boilers, one was a horizontal tubular boiler, and the fifth was a combination of the two types. The next boiler on the list, the Galloway internally fired boiler, all of the others being externally fired. This is a brief description of the principal constructive features of the boilers:

Root.....	4-in. water-tubes, inclined 20° to horizontal draught.
Firmenich.....	8 in. water-tubes, nearly vertical; reversed draught.
Lowe.....	Cylindrical shell, multitubular fire.
Smith.....	Cylindrical shell, multitubular fire—water-tubes on side flues.
Babcock & Wilcox.....	3½-in. water-tubes, inclined 15° to horizontal draught.
Galloway.....	Cylindrical shell, furnace-tubes and water-tubes.
Andrews.....	Square fire-box and double return multitubular.
Harrison.....	8 slabs of cast-iron spheres, 8 in. in diameter, reversed draught.
Wiegand.....	4-in. water tubes, vertical, with internal diaphragms.
Anderson.....	3-in. flue-tubes, nearly horizontal; return draught.
Kelly.....	8-in. water-tubes, slightly inclined, each with an internal diaphragm to promote circulation.
Exeter.....	27 hollow rectangular cast iron slabs.
Pierce.....	Rotating horizontal cylinder, with flue-tubes.
Rogers & Black.....	Vertical cylindrical boiler, with external water-tubes.

Tests of Tubular Boilers.—The following tables are given by H. Leonard, Asst. Engr. U. S. N., in *Four Am. Soc. Naval Engrs.* The tests were made at different times by boards of U. S. Naval Engineers, except the test of the locomotive-torpedo boiler, which was made in 1881.

No.	Type.	Coal burned per sq. ft. Grate per hour.	Evaporation from and at 212° F.			Weights, lbs.			Air pressure, in. of water.	
			Per lb. Comb'le.	Per sq. ft. H. Surface.	Per cu. ft. Space.	E. Empty. S. Steaming Level.	Per I.H.P.	Per sq. ft. H. Surface.		
1	Belleville ..	12.8	10.44	5.2	6.4	E 40,670 S 42,770	204	33.2	10.1	N
2	Herreshoff ..	9.3	10.23	8.1	9.1	E 2,945 S 3,050	35	14.8	4.8	J
3	Towne.....	4.3	13.4	2.7	10	E 1,380 S 1,640	172	21.8	8.3	N
4	Ward	24.5	6.77	3.2	30.4	E 1,682 S 1,930	50	21.8	12.6	N
5	Scotch.....	7.9	10.77	1.7	5.8	E 1,682 S 1,930	82	13.2	4.07	J
6	Locomotive torpedo.	62.5	7.01	10	34.2	E 18,000 S 20,000	120	41.2	4.7	J
7	Ward	24.8	9.29	8.6	11	E 26,533 S 30,174	20	12.8	1.3	J
8	Thornycroft (U. S. S. Cushing)	38	9.06	12.8	16.8	E 31,060 S 24,640	47	31.3	1.2	J

* Approximate.

† Belleville 0.31; Herreshoff 0.34; others not given.

DIMENSIONS OF THE BOILERS.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
and in..	8' 6"	4' 9"	2' 6"	3' 2"	9' 0"	16' 8"	10' 3"	10' 0"
" "	7 0	3 8	2 6	1 7	9 0	6 4	4 6	7 0
" "	11 0	4 0	3 3	7 2	7 6	11 8	8 0
" "	615.5	69.6	30.3	42.7	572.5	630.3	739.3	560
sq. ft..	34.17	9	4.25	5.68	31.16	28	66.5	35.2
Face.								
G	804	508	75	146	727	1116	2490	2375
" "	22.5	22	17.6	39.5	23.3	39.8	37.4	62

1 Diameter. † Diam. of drum. ‡ Approximate.

per I. H. P. is estimated on a basis of 20 lbs. of water per hour expecting the Scotch boiler, where 35 lbs. have been used, as this is limited to 80 lbs. pressure of steam.

ing approximation is made from the large table, on the assumption that evaporation varies directly as the combustion, and 25 lbs. of grate per foot of grate per hour used as the unit.

Boiler.	Combustion.	Evaporation per cu. ft. of Space.	Weight per I. H. P.	Weight per sq. ft. Heating-surface.	Weight per lb. Water Evaporated.
.....	0.50	0.50	2.02	2.10	2.50
.....	1.00	0.95	0.72	0.62	0.62
.....	1.00	1.20	1.19	0.87	1.30
.....	1.00	0.44	2.40	1.64	2.30
.....	3.90	0.31	8.70	1.25	8.50
.....	2.20	0.58	1.27	0.50	1.53

while boiler has no practical advantage over the Scotch either in fuel or weight. All the other tubulous boilers given greatly exceed in these advantages of weight and space.

High Rates of Evaporation. — Eng'g, May 9, 1884, p. 415.

	Locomotive.	Torpedo-boat.
per sq. ft. H.S. per hour. . .	12.57	13.73
lb. fuel from and at 212° . .	8.22	8.94
lbs trans'd per sq. ft. of H.S.	12,142	13,263
.....	586	542
.....	.637	.468

If these figures were corrected for priming.

by Effected by Heating the Air Supplied to Furnaces. (Clark, S. E.)—Meunier and Scheurer-Kestner obtain 1% greater evaporative efficiency in summer than in winter, the boilers under like conditions,—an excess which had been explained by the difference of loss by radiation and conduction. But Mr. Meunier, assuming that the gain might be due in some degree also to the temperature of the air in summer, made comparative trials with three boilers, each working one week with the heated air, and one week with cold air. The following were the several efficiencies.

FIRST TRIALS: THREE BOILERS; RONCHAMP COAL.

	Water per lb. of Coal.	Water per lb. of Combustible.
heated air (123° F.)	7.77 lbs.	8.95 lbs.
cold air (59° F.)	7.38 "	8.68 "
ence in favor of heated air . . .	0.44 "	"

SECOND TRIALS: SAME COAL; THREE OTHER

heated air (130° F.)	8.70 lbs.
cold air (75° F.)	8.09 "
ence in favor of heated air . . .	0.61 "

These results show economies in favor of heating the air of 6% and 7%. Mr. Poupardin believes that the gain in efficiency is due chiefly to better combustion of the gases with heated air. It was observed that heated air the flames were much shorter and whiter, and that there was notably less smoke from the chimney.

An extensive series of experiments was made by J. C. Hadley, T. A. S. M. E., vol. vi., 676) on a "Warm-blast Apparatus," for heating the heat of the waste gases in heating the air supplied to the furnace. The apparatus, as applied to an ordinary horizontal tubular boiler 20 in. diameter, 21 feet long, with 65 $3\frac{1}{2}$ -inch tubes, consisted of 240 2-inch tubes, 18 feet through which the hot gases passed while the air circulated around them. The net saving of fuel effected by the warm blast was from 10.7% to 15.4% the fuel used with cold blast. The comparative temperatures were as follows, in degrees F.:

	Cold-blast Boiler.	Warm-blast Boiler.	Difference.
In heat of fire.....	2493	2703	210
At bridge wall.....	1340	1600	260
In smoke box.....	373	375	2
Air admitted to furnace.....	32	282	250
Steam and water in boiler.....	300	300	0
Gases escaping to chimney.....	373	169	204
External air.....	32	32	0

With anthracite coal the evaporation from and at 212° per lb. coal was, for the cold blast boiler, days 10.85 lbs., days and nights 10.51, and the warm-blast boiler, days 11.83, days and nights 11.03.

Results of Tests of Heine Water-tube Boilers with Different Coals.

(Communicated by E. D. Meier, C.E., 1894.)

Number.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kind of Coal.	Cumberland, Semi-bitumin.	2d Pool, Youghiogheny.	Turkey Hill, Ill.	Carbon Hill, Wash.	Hocking Val., Ohio.	Chillicothe, Tenn.	
Per cent ash.....	5.1	4.89	...	11.0	16.1	11.5	...
Heating-surface, sq. ft. . .	2900	2040	3040	2940	1260	3750	1100
Grate-surface, sq. ft. . .	54	44.8	44.8	50	21	73.7	27.6
Ratio H. S. to G. S. . . .	53.7	45.5	45.5	46	60	40.2	41.5
Coal per sq. ft. G. per hr. .	24.7	23.5	22.7	35	53.7	16.2	27.7
Water per sq. ft. H. S. per hr. from and at 212° . . .	5.03	5.14	5.24	5.56	4.26	4.23	4.64
Water evap. from and at 212° per lb. coal.....	10.91	9.91	10.51	7.31	7.99	7.33	7.26
Per lb. combustible. . .	11.50	10.48	...	8.37	9.06	9.41	9.41
Temp. of chimney gases . .	530°	...	300	607	551	...	607
Calorific value of fuel. . .	13,800	12,936	12,936	10,487	11,785	11,646	7,500
Efficiency of boiler per cent.	77.0	74.3	78.5	67.2	62.5	69.3	71.0

Tests Nos. 7 and 8 were made with the Hawley Down-draft Furnace, the others with ordinary furnaces.

These tests confirm the statement already made as to the difference obtaining with ordinary grate furnaces, as high a percentage of the calorific value of the fuel with the Western as with the Eastern coals.

Test No. 3, 78.5% efficiency, is remarkably good for Pittsburgh (Youghiogheny) coal. If the Washington coal had given equal efficiency the same coal would be $\frac{78.5}{62.5} = 20\%$. The results of tests Nos. 7 and 8 show

the down-draft furnace is well adapted for burning

Iron Boiler Efficiency with Cumberland Coal.—
 lbs. of water per lb. combustible from and at 212° is about the
 ration that can be obtained from the best steam fuels in the
 ea, such as Cumberland, Pocahontas, and Clearfield. In excep-
 13 lbs. has been reached, and one test is on record (E. W. Dean,
 Feb. 1, 1894) giving 13.23 lbs. The boiler was internally fired,
 dry type, 82 inches diameter, 31 feet long, with 160 3-inch tubes
 2. Heating surface, 1998 square feet; grate surface, 15 square feet,
 ing the test to 30½ square feet. Double furnace, with fire-brick
 a long combustion chamber. Feed-water heater in smoke-box.
 ng are the principal results:

	1st Test.	2d Test.
ned per sq. ft. of grate per hour, lbs.	8.85	16.06
per sq. ft. of heating-surface per hour, lbs	1.63	3.00
from and at 212° per lb. combustible, in-		
feed-water heater.....	13.17	13.23
rated, excluding feed-water heater.....	12.88	12.90
of gases after leaving heater, F.....	360°	463°

BOILERS USING WASTE GASES.

Proportioning Boilers for Blast-Furnaces.—(E. W. Gordon,
 Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xii., 1883.)

on's recommendation for proportioning boilers when properly set
 blast-furnace gas is, for coke practice, 30 sq. ft. of heating-sur-
 of iron per 24 hours, which the furnace is expected to make,
 the heating-surface thus: For double-flued boilers, all shell-
 posed to the gases, and half the fire-surface; for the French type,
 posed surface of the upper boiler and half the lower boiler;
 cylindrical boilers, not more than 60 ft. long, all the heating-

ore must be added a battery for relay in case of cleaning, repairs,
 ore than one battery extra in large plants, when the water carries

acite practice add 50% to above calculations. For charcoal prac-
 20%.

er to the author in May, 1894, Mr. Gordon says that the blast-
 urties at the time when his article (from which the above extract
 is written was very different from that existing at the present
 na, more economical engines are being introduced, so that less
 ft. of boiler-surface per ton of iron made in 24 hours may now be
 he says further: Blast-furnace gases are seldom used for other
 e requirements, which of course is throwing away good fuel. In
 furnace in an ordinary good condition, and a condition where it
 maximum of blast, which is in the neighborhood of 300 to 225
 inospheric measurement, per sq. ft. of sectional area of hearth,
 is the necessary H.P. with very small heating-surface, owing to
 out of the escaping gases from the boilers, which frequently is

making 200 tons of iron a day will consume about 900 H.P. in
 engine. About a pound of fuel is required in the furnace per
 metal.

it requires 70 cu. ft. of air-piston displacement per lb. of fuel
 22,400 cu. ft. per minute for 200 tons of metal in 1400 working
 day, at, say, 10 lbs. discharge pressure. This is equal to 3½ lbs.
 steam-piston of equal area to the blast piston, or 900 I. H. P. To
 for hoisting, pumping and other purposes for which steam is em-
 and blast-furnaces, and we have 1100 H.P., or say 5½ H.P. per
 per day. Dividing this into 30 gives approximately 5½ sq. ft. of
 face of boiler per H.P.

Tube Boilers using Blast-furnace Gases.—(D. S.
 ons. A. I. M. E., xvi., 50) reports a test of a water tube boiler using
 gas as fuel. The heating surface was 2535 sq. ft. It develops
 (antennal standard), or 5.01 lbs. of water per sq. ft. of heating-
 ating-surface per hour. Some of the pr
 ows: Calorific value of 1 lb. of the gas 1
 Its initial temperature, which was 650° F
 of the gas = 0.9 lb. Chimney draught, 1½
 sq. in.; of air inlet, 100 sq. in. Temper

gases, 775° F. Efficiency of the boiler calculated from the tests and analyses of the gases at exit and entrance, 61%. The average were as follows, hydrocarbons being included in the nitrogen.

	By Weight.		By Volume.	
	At Entrance.	At Exit.	At Entrance.	At Exit.
CO ₂	10.69	26.37	7.08	18.10
O.....	.11	3.05	.10	2.70
CO.....	26.71	1.78	27.90	1.80
Nitrogen.....	62.43	68.80	65.02	71.40
C in CO.....	2.62	7.19	2.62	7.19
C in CO.....	11.45	.76	11.45	.76
Total C.....	14.07	7.95	14.07	7.95

Steam-boilers Fired with Waste Gases from Puddling and Heating Furnaces.—The *Iron Age*, April 6, 1892, contains a number of tests of steam-boilers utilizing the waste heat from puddling and heating furnaces in rolling-mills. The following principal results were selected: In Nos. 1, 2, and 4 the boiler is a Babcock & Wilcox boiler, and in No. 3 it is a plain cylinder boiler, 42 in diam and 20 ft long. No. 4 boiler was connected with a heating-furnace, the others with puddling-furnaces.

	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.
Heating-surface, sq. ft.....	1036	1196	143
Grate-surface, sq. ft.....	10.6	13.6	13.6
Ratio H.S. to G.S.....	32	87.2	10.5
Water evap. per hour, lbs.....	9358	2159	1819
" " per sq. ft. H.S. per hr., lbs....	3.3	1.8	12.7
" " per lb. coal from and at 212°.....	5.9	6.28	3.73
" " " " comb.....	7.00	6.41	

In No. 2, 1.38 lbs. of iron were puddled per lb. of coal.

In No. 3, 1.14 lbs. of iron were puddled per lb. of coal.

No. 3 shows that an insufficient amount of heating-surface was provided for the amount of waste heat available.

RULES FOR CONDUCTING BOILER-TESTS.

The Committee of the A. S. M. E. on Boiler-tests, consisting of (chairman), J. C. Hoadley, R. H. Thurston, Chas. E. Emery, and J. B. Porter, recommended the following code of rules for boiler-tests (vol. vi, p. 286):

PRELIMINARIES TO A TEST.

I. In preparing for and conducting trials of steam-boilers the object of the proposed trial should be clearly defined and steadily in view.

II. Measure and record the dimensions, position, etc., of grate and heating surfaces, flues and chimneys, proportion of air-space in the grate, kind of draught, natural or forced.

III. Put the boiler in good condition. Have heating surface clean and out, grate bars and sides of furnace free from clinkers that are removed from back connections, leaks in masonry stopped, and all draughts to draught removed. See that the damper will open to full extent that it may be closed when desired. Test for leaks in masonry or little smoky fuel and immediately closing damper. The ends of escape through the leaks.

IV. Have an understanding with the parties in whose interest the test is made as to the character of the coal to be used. The coal must be of a sample must be dried carefully and a determination of the amount of moisture in the coal made, and the calculation of the test corrected accordingly. Wherever possible the test should be with standard coal of a known quality. For that portion of the test of the A. S. M. E. Committee good anthracite egg coal, of the best quality, should be taken as the standard for most tests.

Meighan Mountains and east of the Missouri River, Pittsburgh lump
be used.
all important tests a sample of coal should be selected for chemical

establish the correctness of all apparatus used in the test for weighing
measuring. These are: 1. Scales for weighing coal, ashes, and water.
2. or water-meters for measuring water. Water-meters, as a rule,
only be used as a check on other measurements. For accurate work
should be weighed or measured in a tank. 3. Thermometers and
bars for taking temperatures of air, steam, feed-water, waste gases,
Pressure-gauges, draught-gauges, etc.
Before beginning a test, the boiler and chimney should be thoroughly
to their usual working temperature. If the boiler is new, it should
continuous use at least a week before testing, so as to dry the mortar
and heat the walls.

Before beginning a test, the boiler and connections should be free
pipes, and all water connections, including blow and extra feed pipes,
be disconnected or stopped with blank flanges, except the particular
rough which water is to be fed to the boiler during the trial. In lo-
where the reliability of the power is so important that an extra feed-
be kept in position, and in general when for any other reason
pipes other than the feed-pipes cannot be disconnected, such pipes
drilled so as to leave openings in their lower sides, which should be
throughout the test as a means of detecting leaks, or accidental
unauthorized opening of valves. During the test the blow-off pipe should
be exposed.

Injector is used it must receive steam directly from the boiler being
and not from a steam-pipe or from any other boiler.
the steam-pipe is so arranged that water of condensation cannot
into the boiler. If the steam-pipe has such an inclination that the
of condensation from any portion of the steam-pipe system may run
to the boiler, it must be trapped so as to prevent this water getting
the boiler without being measured.

STARTING AND STOPPING A TEST.

should last at least ten hours of continuous running, and twenty-
hours whenever practicable. The conditions of the boiler and furnace
aspects should be, as nearly as possible, the same at the end as at
beginning of the test. The steam-pressure should be the same, the
level the same, the fire upon the grates should be the same in quan-
condition, and the walls, flues, etc., should be of the same tempera-
to secure as near an approximation to exact uniformity as possible
tions of the fire and in temperatures of the walls and flues, the
method of starting and stopping a test should be adopted:

Standard Method.—Steam being raised to the working pressure, re-
qually all the fire from the grate, close the damper, clean the ash-pit,
quickly as possible start a new fire with weighed wood and coal,
the time of starting the test and the height of the water-level while
the boiler is in a quiescent state, just before lighting the fire.

At the end of the test remove the whole fire, clean the grates and ash-pit,
the water-level when the water is in a quiescent state; record the
hauling the fire as the end of the test. The water-level should be
as possible the same as at the beginning of the test. If it is not
a correction should be made by computation, and not by opera-
after test is completed. It will generally be necessary to regulate
change of steam from the boiler tested by means of the stop-valve
the whole fires are being hauled at the beginning and at the end of
in order to keep the steam-pressure in the boiler at those times up
average during the test.

Alternate Method.—Instead of the Standard Method above described,
may be employed where local conditions render it necessary:
a regular time for slicing and cleaning fires have them burned rather
usual before cleaning, and then thoroughly cleaned; note the
of coal left on the grate as nearly as it can be estimated; note the

the coals are selected because they are about the only
the essentials of excellence of quality, adaptability to
uses, grates, boilers, and methods of firing, and wide dis-
accessibility in the markets.

main made by the boiler) of the total heat imparted to the

the flue-gases is an especially valuable method of determining the value of different methods of firing, or of different kinds of fuel. In making these analyses great care should be taken to properly mix the samples—since the composition is apt to vary at different times—and the analyses should be intrusted only to a thoroughly competent person, who is provided with complete and accurate apparatus. Variations of the other variables mentioned above are not taken except by engineers of high scientific attainments. The method for making them is likely to be improved in the course of time, but it is not deemed advisable to include in this code any provision for making them.

RECORD OF THE TEST.

The record of the test should be kept on properly prepared blanks, and in the following form:

No.	Boiler-gauge.	Temperatures.					Fuel.		Feed water.	
		External Air.	Boiler-room.	Flue.	Feed-water.	Steam.	Time.	Lbs.	Time.	Lbs. or cu. ft.

REPORTING THE TRIAL.

The results should be recorded upon a properly prepared form, and include as many of the following items as are adapted for the trial for which the trial is made. The items marked with a * are for ordinary trials, but are desirable for comparison with other sources.

Name of the trials of a.....
 Date.....
 Terminate.....

Trial	hours.		
BOILER AND PROPORTIONS.			
Complete description.			
Boiler—width.....long.....area.....	sq. ft.		
Heating surface.....	sq. ft.		
Grate-heating surface to grate-surface.....	sq. ft.		
PRESSURES.			
Pressure in boiler, by gauge.....	lbs.		
Steam pressure.....	lbs.		
Water pressure, per barometer.....	in.		
Height in inches of water.....	in.		
TEMPERATURES.			
Boiler.....	deg.		
Flue.....	deg.		
Feed-water.....	deg.		
Steam.....	deg.		
Grate.....	deg.		

See reference in paragraph preceding table

of water evaporated per pound of from and at 212° F. §.....	lbs.		
of water evaporated per pound of from and at 212° F. §.....	lbs.		
COMMERCIAL EVAPORATION.			
of water evaporated per pound of with one-sixth refuse, at 70 pounds pressure, from temperature of 100° in 33 × 0.7249	lbs.		
RATE OF COMBUSTION.			
actually burned per square foot of surface per hour.....	lbs.		
consumption of dry per hour. Coal with one refuse. §	Per sq. ft. of grate- surface	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of water- heating surface..	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of least area for draught.	lbs.	
RATE OF EVAPORATION.			
evaporated from and at 212° F. per of heating-surface per hour.....	lbs.		
of water evaporated from tem- perature of 100° F. steam of 70 lbs. pressure. §	Per sq. ft. of grate- surface.....	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of water- heating surface..	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of least area for draught.	lbs.	
COMMERCIAL HORSE-POWER.			
of thirty pounds of water per hour rated from temperature of 100° F. steam of 70 pounds gauge-pressure lbs. from and at 212° F.....		H.P.	
power, builders' rating, at..... square of horse-power.....		H.P.	
developed above, or below, ratings, §.		per cent	

of Evaporation.—The table on the following pages was
published by the author in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vi., 1884, under
titles for Facilitating Calculations of Boiler-tests. The tables
are for every 3° of temperature of feed-water from 32° to 212°
at every two pounds pressure of steam within the limits of ordinary
pressures.

due in the factor corresponding to a difference of 3° tempera-
ture is always either .0031 or .0032. For interpolation to find a factor
for temperature between 32° and 212°, not given in the table,
or for the nearest temperature and add or subtract, as the case
may be, if the difference is .0031, and .0032 if the difference is .0032. As
these are factors of evaporation to three decimal places is accu-
rate, any error which may be made in the fourth decimal place by
this method is of no practical importance.

used in calculating these factors of evaporation are those given
in Porter's Treatise on the Richards' Steam-engine Indicator.

Factor = $\frac{H - h}{965.7}$, in which H is the total heat of steam at the
pressure, and h the total heat of feed-water of the observed

Gas-pressures.	22 -	23 -	24 -	25 -	26 -	27 -	28 -
Absolute pressures.	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
Feed-water Temperature.	RATES OF EVAPORATION.						
212° F.	1.0003	1.0088	1.0171	1.0257	1.0341	1.0424	1.0507
205	35	1.0120	80	1.0226	135	1.0342	1.0459
206	66	51	1.0212	60	99	1.0317	51
202	28	84	43	91	1.0331	49	65
200	1.0129	1.0214	55	1.0323	62	80	97
197	60	46	1.0306	54	94	1.0412	1.0428
194	92	77	38	85	1.0425	43	60
191	1.0223	1.0308	60	1.0417	57	74	91
188	55	40	1.0400	48	88	1.0505	1.0522
185	86	71	32	80	1.0519	37	54
182	1.0317	1.0403	63	1.0511	51	68	85
179	49	34	95	42	82	1.0600	1.0616
176	80	65	1.0506	74	1.0613	31	48
173	1.0411	97	57	1.0605	45	62	79
170	43	1.0528	89	36	76	94	1.0710
167	74	59	1.0620	68	1.0707	1.0725	42
164	1.0505	91	51	99	39	56	73
161	37	1.0622	82	1.0730	70	88	1.0804
158	68	53	1.0714	62	1.0801	1.0819	36
155	99	84	45	93	32	50	67
152	1.0631	1.0716	78	1.0824	64	82	99
149	62	47	1.0818	55	95	1.0913	1.0930
146	93	78	39	87	1.0926	44	61
143	1.0724	1.0810	70	1.0918	58	75	92
140	50	41	1.0901	49	89	1.1007	1.1025
137	87	72	33	80	1.1020	38	55
134	1.0818	1.0903	64	1.1012	51	69	86
131	49	34	95	43	83	1.1100	1.1117
128	81	66	1.1026	74	1.1114	32	49
125	1.0912	97	57	1.1105	45	63	80
122	48	1.1028	89	36	76	94	1.1211
119	74	59	1.1120	68	1.1207	1.1225	42
116	1.1005	90	51	99	39	56	73
113	36	1.1122	82	1.1230	70	88	1.1324
110	68	53	1.1213	61	1.1301	1.1319	36
107	99	84	45	92	32	50	67
104	1.1130	1.1215	76	1.1323	63	81	98
101	61	46	1.1307	55	94	1.1412	1.1429
98	92	77	38	86	1.1426	43	60
95	1.1223	1.1309	69	1.1417	57	75	92
92	55	40	1.1400	48	88	1.1506	1.1522
89	86	71	31	79	1.1519	37	54
86	1.1317	1.1402	63	1.1510	50	68	85
83	48	33	94	41	81	1.1611	1.1627
80	79	64	1.1525	72	1.1612	1.1630	47
77	1.1410	95	56	1.1604	44	61	78
74	41	1.1526	87	35	75	92	1.1709
71	72	58	1.1618	66	1.1706	1.1723	40
68	1.1504	80	49	97	37	55	72
65	35	1.1620	80	1.1728	68	86	1.1823
62	66	51	1.1711	59	99	1.1817	31
59	97	82	43	90	1.1830	48	64
56	1.1628	1.1713	74	1.1821	61	79	96
53	59	44	1.1805	52	92	1.1910	1.1927
50	90	75	36	84	1.1923	41	58
47	1.1721	1.1806	67	1.1915	51	72	89
44	62	47	98	46	86	1.2003	1.2020
41	93	78	1.1920	77	1.2017	34	51
38	1.1814	1.1900	60	1.2009	48	67	84
35	54	39	91	38	73	96	1.2103
32	85	70	1.2010	69	1.2103	44	61

Pressure 73.	60 +	61 +	62 +	63 +	64 +	65 +	66 +	67 +	68 +	69 +	70 +	71 +	72 +	73 +	74 +	75 +
73.	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90

FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.

1.0285	1.0801	1.0807	1.0812	1.0818	1.0823	1.0829	1.0834	1.0839	1.0844							
33	34	34	44	49	55	60	65	70	75							
54	64	71	75	81	86	91	97	1.0402	1.0407							
83	96	1.0401	1.0407	1.0412	1.0418	1.0423	1.0428	33	38							
1.0421	1.0427	33	38	44	49	54	59	65	69							
53	58	64	70	75	80	86	91	96	1.0501							
84	90	96	1.0501	1.0507	1.0512	1.0517	1.0522	1.0527	32							
1.0515	1.0521	1.0527	83	88	93	99	54	59	64							
47	53	58	64	69	75	80	85	90	95							
78	84	90	95	1.0601	1.0606	1.0611	1.0616	1.0622	1.0627							
1.0610	1.0615	1.0621	1.0627	32	37	43	48	53	58							
41	47	53	58	63	69	74	79	84	89							
72	78	84	89	95	1.0700	1.0705	1.0711	1.0716	1.0721							
1.0704	1.0709	1.0715	1.0721	1.0726	32	37	42	47	52							
35	41	46	52	57	63	68	73	78	83							
62	72	78	83	89	94	99	1.0805	1.0810	1.0815							
1.0803	1.0809	1.0815	1.0821	1.0826	1.0831	1.0836	36	41	46							
1.0829	35	40	46	51	57	62	67	72	77							
60	66	72	77	83	88	93	98	1.0904	1.0909							
92	97	1.0903	1.0909	1.0914	1.0919	1.0925	1.0930	35	40							
1.0923	1.0929	34	40	45	51	56	61	66	71							
54	60	66	71	77	82	87	92	97	1.1002							
85	91	97	1.1002	1.1008	1.1013	1.1018	1.1024	1.1029	34							
1.1017	1.1022	1.1028	31	39	44	50	55	60	65							
86	54	59	65	70	76	81	86	91	96							
79	85	91	96	1.1102	1.1107	1.1112	1.1117	1.1122	1.1127							
1.1110	1.1116	1.1122	1.1127	33	38	43	49	54	59							
42	47	53	59	64	69	75	80	85	90							
73	79	84	90	95	1.1201	1.1206	1.1211	1.1216	1.1221							
1.1204	1.1210	1.1215	1.1221	1.1226	32	37	42	47	52							
85	41	47	52	58	63	68	73	78	83							
66	53	58	63	69	74	79	84	89	94							
98	1.1303	1.1309	1.1315	1.1320	1.1325	1.1331	36	41	46							
1.1329	34	40	46	51	57	62	67	72	77							
60	66	71	77	82	88	93	98	1.1403	1.1408							
91	97	1.1403	1.1408	1.1414	1.1419	1.1424	1.1429	34	39							
1.1422	1.1428	34	39	45	50	55	60	65	70							
53	59	65	70	76	81	86	92	97	1.1502							
85	90	96	1.1502	1.1507	1.1512	1.1518	1.1523	1.1528	33							
1.1516	1.1521	1.1527	33	38	43	49	54	59	64							
47	53	58	64	69	75	80	85	90	95							
78	84	89	95	1.1600	1.1606	1.1611	1.1616	1.1621	1.1626							
1.1609	1.1615	1.1621	1.1626	32	37	42	47	52	57							
40	46	52	57	63	68	73	78	83	88							
71	77	83	88	94	99	1.1704	1.1710	1.1715	1.1720							
1.1702	1.1708	1.1714	1.1719	1.1725	1.1730	35	41	46	51							
34	39	45	51	56	61	67	72	77	82							
65	70	76	82	87	92	98	1.1803	1.1808	1.1813							
96	1.1802	1.1807	1.1813	1.1818	1.1824	1.1829	34	39	44							
1.1827	33	38	44	49	55	60	65	70	75							
58	61	69	75	80	86	91	96	1.1901	1.1906							
89	95	1.1901	1.1906	1.1912	1.1917	1.1922	1.1927	32	37							
1.1920	1.1926	32	37	43	48	53	58	63	68							
51	57	63	68	74	79	84	89	94	99							
82	88	94	99	1.2005	1.2010	1.2015	1.2021	1.2026	1.2031							
1.2013	1.2019	1.2025	1.2030	36	41	47	52	57	62							
44	50	56	61	67	72	78	83	88	93							
76	81	87	93	98	1.2103	1.2108	1.2113	1.2118	1.2123							
1.2107	1.2112	1.2118	1.2123	1.2129	31	36	41	46	51							
38	43	48	53	58	63	68	73	78	83							
69	75	80	85	90	95	100	1.2201	1.2206	1.2211							

Gauge-pressure		FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.											
The ... 75 +		80 +	82 +	84 +	86 +	88 +	90 +	92 +	94 +	96 +	98 +	100 +	102 +
Absolute Pressure, 93		95	97	99	101	103	105	107	109	111	113	115	117
Feed-water Temp.													
212	1.0349	1.0353	1.0358	1.0363	1.0367	1.0372	1.0376	1.0381	1.0385	1.0389	1.0393	1.0397	1.0401
209	80	85	90	94	99	1.0403	1.0408	1.0412	1.0416	1.0420	1.0424	1.0428	1.0432
206	1.0411	1.0416	1.0421	1.0426	1.0430	35	39	43	47	51	55	59	63
203	43	48	52	57	62	66	71	75	79	83	87	91	95
200	74	79	84	89	93	98	1.0392	1.0396	1.0400	1.0404	1.0408	1.0412	1.0416
197	1.0506	1.0511	1.0515	1.0520	1.0525	1.0529	33	38	42	46	50	54	58
194	45	49	53	57	61	65	69	73	77	81	85	89	93
191	49	53	57	61	65	69	73	77	81	85	89	93	97
188	1.0600	1.0605	1.0610	1.0614	1.0619	1.0623	1.0628	32	36	40	44	48	52
185	31	35	39	43	47	51	55	59	63	67	71	75	79
182	63	68	72	76	81	85	89	93	97	101	105	109	113
179	94	99	1.0704	1.0708	1.0713	1.0717	1.0722	1.0726	1.0730	1.0734	1.0738	1.0742	1.0746
176	1.0725	1.0730	35	40	44	48	53	57	61	65	69	73	77
173	57	62	66	71	75	80	84	88	92	96	100	104	108
170	88	93	98	1.0602	1.0607	1.0611	1.0616	1.0620	1.0624	1.0628	1.0632	1.0636	1.0640
167	1.0610	1.0614	1.0619	34	38	43	47	51	55	59	63	67	71
164	51	56	60	65	69	74	78	83	87	91	95	99	103
161	82	87	92	96	1.0601	1.0605	1.0610	1.0614	1.0618	1.0622	1.0626	1.0630	1.0634
158	1.0613	1.0618	1.0623	1.0627	32	37	41	45	49	53	57	61	65
155	45	49	54	59	63	68	72	76	80	84	88	92	96
152	76	81	85	90	95	99	1.1004	1.1008	1.1012	1.1016	1.1020	1.1024	1.1028
149	1.1007	1.1012	1.1017	1.1021	1.1026	1.1030	35	39	43	47	51	55	59
146	38	43	48	53	57	62	66	70	74	78	82	86	90
143	70	74	79	84	88	92	97	1.1102	1.1106	1.1110	1.1114	1.1118	1.1122
140	1.1101	1.1106	1.1110	1.1115	1.1120	1.1124	1.1128	34	38	42	46	50	54
137	32	37	42	46	51	55	60	64	68	72	76	80	84
134	63	68	73	78	82	87	91	95	1.1200	1.1204	1.1208	1.1212	1.1216
131	95	99	1.1304	1.1308	1.1313	1.1318	1.1322	1.1327	1.1331	1.1335	1.1339	1.1343	1.1347
128	1.1326	1.1331	35	40	45	49	54	58	62	66	70	74	78
125	57	62	67	71	76	80	85	89	93	97	101	105	109
122	88	93	98	1.1302	1.1307	1.1311	1.1316	1.1320	1.1324	1.1328	1.1332	1.1336	1.1340
119	1.1320	1.1324	1.1329	34	38	43	47	51	55	59	63	67	71
116	54	59	64	69	74	78	83	87	91	95	99	103	107
113	85	90	95	1.1401	1.1405	1.1409	1.1413	1.1417	1.1421	1.1425	1.1429	1.1433	1.1437
110	1.1418	1.1422	1.1427	32	36	41	45	49	53	57	61	65	69
107	44	49	54	58	63	67	72	76	80	84	88	92	96
104	75	80	85	89	94	99	1.1503	1.1507	1.1511	1.1515	1.1519	1.1523	1.1527
101	1.1506	1.1511	1.1516	1.1521	1.1525	1.1530	34	38	43	47	51	55	59
98	34	39	44	48	53	57	62	66	70	74	78	82	86
95	65	70	74	79	83	87	92	96	1.1601	1.1605	1.1609	1.1613	1.1617
92	1.1600	1.1605	1.1609	1.1614	1.1618	1.1623	1.1628	32	36	40	44	48	52
89	31	36	41	45	50	54	59	63	67	71	75	79	83
86	62	67	72	76	81	85	90	94	98	1.1700	1.1704	1.1708	1.1712
83	93	98	1.1703	1.1707	1.1712	1.1717	1.1721	1.1725	1.1729	1.1733	1.1737	1.1741	1.1745
80	1.1724	1.1729	34	39	43	48	52	56	60	64	68	72	76
77	56	61	65	70	74	79	83	87	91	95	99	1.1800	1.1804
74	87	91	96	1.1801	1.1805	1.1810	1.1814	1.1818	1.1822	1.1826	1.1830	1.1834	1.1838
71	1.1818	1.1823	1.1827	32	36	41	45	49	53	57	61	65	69
68	49	54	58	63	68	72	77	81	85	89	93	97	1.1900
65	80	85	89	94	99	1.1903	1.1908	1.1912	1.1916	1.1920	1.1924	1.1928	1.1932
62	1.1911	1.1916	1.1921	1.1925	1.1930	34	39	43	47	51	55	59	63
59	42	47	52	56	61	65	70	74	78	82	86	90	94
56	73	78	83	87	92	96	1.2001	1.2005	1.2009	1.2013	1.2017	1.2021	1.2025
53	1.2004	1.2009	1.2014	1.2018	1.2023	1.2028	32	36	40	44	48	52	56
50	25	30	35	40	45	50	54	59	63	67	71	75	79
47	56	61	66	71	76	81	85	90	94	98	1.2100	1.2104	1.2108
44	88	93	1.2105	1.2110	1.2114	1.2119	1.2123	1.2127	1.2131	1.2135	1.2139	1.2143	1.2147
41	1.2129	1.2134	34	39	43	48	52	56	60	64	68	72	76
38	50	55	60	64	69	73	78	82	86	90	94	98	1.2200
35	81	86	91	95	1.2201	1.2205	1.2210	1.2214	1.2218	1.2222	1.2226	1.2230	1.2234
32	1.2231	1.2236	32	36	41	45	49	53	57	61	65	69	73

Temp. °F.	105 +	110 +	115 +	120 +	125 +	130 +	135 +	140 +	145 +	150 +	155 +	160 +	165 +
115.	120	125	130	135	140	145	150	155	160	165			

FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.

1.0397	1.0407	1.0417	1.0427	1.0436	1.0445	1.0453	1.0462	1.0470	1.0478	1.0486			
1.0429	39	49	58	67	76	85	93	1.0501	1.0509	1.0517			
60	70	80	89	99	1.0508	1.0516	1.0525	33	41	48			
92	1.0532	1.0511	1.0521	1.0530	39	48	56	64	72	80			
1.0528	33	43	52	62	70	79	87	96	1.0804	1.0611			
55	65	74	84	93	1.0602	1.0610	1.0619	1.0627	35	43			
96	96	1.0606	1.0615	1.0624	33	42	50	58	66	74			
1.0617	1.0627	37	47	56	65	73	82	90	98	1.0706			
49	59	69	78	87	96	1.0705	1.0713	1.0721	1.0729	37			
90	90	1.0700	1.0709	1.0719	1.0727	36	44	53	61	68			
1.0712	1.0722	31	41	50	59	67	76	84	92	1.0900			
43	53	63	72	81	90	99	1.0807	1.0815	1.0823	31			
74	84	94	1.0803	1.0813	1.0821	1.0830	39	47	55	62			
1.0806	1.0816	1.0825	35	44	53	61	70	78	86	94			
37	47	57	66	75	84	93	1.0901	1.0909	1.0917	1.0925			
68	78	88	97	1.0907	1.0915	1.0924	32	41	49	56			
1.0900	1.0910	1.0919	1.0929	38	47	55	64	72	80	88			
31	41	51	60	69	78	87	95	1.1003	1.1011	1.1019			
62	72	82	91	1.1000	1.1009	1.1018	1.1026	33	43	50			
93	1.1003	1.1013	1.1023	32	41	49	58	66	74	82			
1.1025	35	44	54	63	72	81	89	97	1.1105	1.1113			
56	66	76	85	94	1.1108	1.1117	1.1126	35	44				
87	97	1.1107	1.1116	1.1126	34	43	51	60	69	75			
1.1118	1.1129	38	48	57	66	74	83	91	99	1.1207			
50	60	70	79	88	97	1.1206	1.1214	1.1222	1.1230	38			
81	91	1.1201	1.1210	1.1219	1.1228	37	46	53	61	69			
1.1212	1.1222	33	41	51	59	68	76	85	93	1.1300			
43	53	63	73	82	91	99	1.1308	1.1316	1.1324	32			
75	85	94	1.1304	1.1313	1.1322	1.1331	39	47	55	63			
1.1306	1.1316	1.1326	35	44	52	62	70	78	86	94			
57	67	77	86	95	1.1401	1.1409	1.1417	1.1425					
68	78	88	97	1.1407	1.1415	1.1424	32	41	49	56			
99	1.1409	1.1419	1.1429	38	47	55	64	72	80	88			
1.1431	41	50	60	69	78	86	95	1.1503	1.1511	1.1519			
62	72	82	91	1.1500	1.1509	1.1518	1.1516	34	42	50			
93	1.1503	1.1513	1.1522	31	40	49	57	65	73	81			
1.1524	34	44	53	62	71	80	88	97	1.1606	1.1612			
65	65	75	84	94	1.1602	1.1611	1.1620	1.1628	36	43			
86	96	1.1606	1.1616	1.1625	34	42	51	59	67	75			
1.1618	1.1628	37	47	56	65	73	82	90	98	1.1706			
49	59	68	78	87	96	1.1705	1.1713	1.1721	1.1729	37			
80	90	1.1700	1.1709	1.1718	1.1727	36	44	52	60	68			
1.1711	1.1721	31	40	49	58	67	75	83	91	99			
69	79	88	97	1.1802	1.1811	1.1820	1.1829	37	46	54			
73	83	93	1.1803	1.1813	1.1820	1.1829	37	46	54	61			
1.1804	1.1814	1.1824	34	43	52	60	69	77	85	93			
35	45	55	65	74	83	91	1.1900	1.1908	1.1916	1.1924			
67	77	86	96	1.1905	1.1914	1.1922	31	39	47	55			
98	1.1908	1.1917	1.1927	36	45	54	62	70	78	86			
1.1929	39	49	58	67	76	85	93	1.2001	1.2009	1.2017			
60	70	80	89	98	1.2007	1.2016	1.2024	32	40	48			
91	1.2001	1.2011	1.2020	38	47	55	63	71	79				
1.2022	32	42	51	60	69	78	86	94	1.2102	1.2110			
53	63	73	82	91	1.2100	1.2109	1.2117	1.2126	34	41			
84	94	1.2104	1.2113	1.2123	31	40	48	57	65	72			
1.2115	1.2125	35	44	54	63	71	80	88	96	1.2203			
46	56	66	76	85	94	1.2202	1.2211	1.2219	1.2227	33			
77	87	97	1.2207	1.2216	1.2225	23	42	50	58	66			
1.2208	1.2219	1.2228	38	47	56	64	73	81	89	97			
40	50	60	69	78	87	95	1.2304	1.2312	1.2320	1.2328			
71	81	90	1.2300	1.2309	1.2318	1.2326	35	43	51	59			

STRENGTH OF STEAM-BOILERS. VARIOUS FOR CONSTRUCTION.

There is a great lack of uniformity in the rules prescribed by different writers and by legislation governing the construction of steam-boilers. In the United States, boilers for merchant vessels must be constructed according to the rules and regulations prescribed by the Board of Inspectors of Steam Vessels; in the U. S. Navy, according to the Navy Department, and in some cases according to special orders. On land, in some places, as in Philadelphia, the construction of boilers is governed by local laws; but generally there are no laws upon the subject, and boilers are constructed according to the idea of individual boiler-makers. In Europe the construction is generally regulated by stringent inspection laws. The rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors of Steam-vessels, the British Lloyd's and Board of Trade, the French Veritas, and the German Lloyd's are ably reviewed in a paper by Mr. Foley, M. Inst. Naval Architects, etc., read at the Chicago Engineering Congress, Division of Marine and Naval Engineering. From this paper following notes are taken, chiefly with reference to the U. S. and British rules. (Abbreviations.—T. S., for tensile strength; El., elongation; C., for traction of area.)

Hydraulic Tests.—Board of Trade, Lloyd's, and Bureau Veritas: Twice the working pressure.

United States Statutes.—One and a half times the working pressure. Mr. Foley proposes that the proof pressure should be 1½ times the working pressure + one atmosphere.

Established Nominal Factors of Safety.—Board of Trade: 4.5 for a boiler of moderate length and of the best construction for steamship.

Lloyd's.—Not very apparent, but appears to lie between 4 and 5.

United States Statutes.—Indefinite, because the strength of the boiler is not considered, except by the broad distinction between single and double riveting.

Bureau Veritas: 4.4.

German Lloyd's: 5 to 4.65, according to the thickness of the plate.

Material for Riveting.—Board of Trade.—Tensile strength of rivet bars between 25 and 30 tons, el. in 10" not less than 25% and area not less than 50%.

Lloyd's.—T. S. 26 to 30 tons; el. not less than 20% in 8". The rivets must stand bending to a curve, the inner radius of which is not less than 1½ times the thickness of the plate, after having been uniformly heated to a low cherry-red, and quenched in water at 82° F.

United States Statutes.—No special provision.

Rules Connected with Riveting.—Board of Trade.—The resistance of the rivet steel to be taken at 23 tons per square inch to be used for the factor of safety independently of any addition or deduction for the plating. Rivets in double shear to have only 1.75 times the resistance taken in the calculation instead of 2. The diameter must be less than the thickness of the plate and the pitch never greater than 2½ times the thickness of double butt-straps (each) not to be less than ½ the thickness of the plate; single butt-straps not less than ⅔ the thickness of the plate.

Distance from centre of rivet to edge of hole = diameter of rivet.

Distance between rows of rivets

$$= 2 \times \text{diam. of rivet or } = \{(\text{diam.} \times 4) + 1\} + 2, \text{ if chamf. and } \\ = \frac{1}{10} \{(\text{pitch} \times 11) + (\text{diam.} \times 4)\} + (\text{pitch} + \text{diam.} \times 4) \text{ if not chamf.}$$

Diagonal pitch = (pitch × 6 + diam. × 6) ÷ 10.

Lloyd's.—Rivets in double shear to have only 1.75 times the single shear strength taken in the calculation instead of 2. The shearing strength of rivets to be taken at 85% of the T. S. of the material of shell plates. In cases where the strength of the longitudinal joint is not satisfactory, the shearing strength is to be greater than given by the formula, the actual strength to be taken in the calculation.

United States Statutes.—No rules.

Material for Cylindrical Shells Subject to Internal Pressure.—Board of Trade.—Tensile strength between 25 and 32 tons; el. in 10" not less than 25% and area not less than 50%. But should be about 25% if not less than 10" in diameter.

an 80%. Strips 2" wide should stand bending until the sides are at a distance from each other of not more than three times the thickness.

11.—T. S. between the limits of 25 and 30 tons per square inch. El. not more than 20% in 8". Test strips heated to a low cherry-red and plunged later at 92° F. must stand bending to a curve, the inner radius of which is not greater than 1½ times the plate's thickness.

12. *Statutes*.—Plates of ½" thick and under shall show a contr. of not less than 50%; when over ½" and up to ¾", not less than 45%; when over ¾" less than 40%.

Foley's comments: The Board of Trade rules seem to indicate a steel which T. S. when a lower and more ductile one can be got: the lower limit should be reduced, and the bending test might with advantage be after tempering, and made to a smaller radius. Lloyd's rule for pressure seems more satisfactory, but the temper test is not severe. The U. S. Statutes are not sufficiently stringent to insure an entirely satisfactory material.

Foley suggests a material which would meet the following: 25 tons per unit in tension; 25% in 8" minimum elongation; radius for bending after tempering = the plate's thickness.

Boiler-plate Formulae.—Board of Trade: $P = \frac{T \times B \times t \times 2}{D \times F}$.

P = diameter of boiler in inches;

B = working pressure in lbs. per square inch;

t = thickness in inches;

F = percentage of strength of joint compared to solid plate;

T = tensile strength allowed for the material in lbs. per square inch;

C = a factor of safety, being 4.5, with certain additions depending on method of construction.

Boards: $P = \frac{C \times (t - 2) \times B}{D}$.

D = thickness of plate in sixteenths; B and D as before; C = a constant depending on the kind of joint.

When longitudinal seams have double butt-straps, $C = 30$. When longitudinal seams have double butt-straps of unequal width, only covering in the reduced section of plate at the outer line of rivets, $C = 19.5$.

When the longitudinal seams are lap-jointed, $C = 18.5$.

13. *Statutes*.—Using same notation as for Board of Trade,

$P = \frac{t \times 2 \times T}{D \times 6}$ for single-riveting; add 20% for double-riveting;

T is the lowest T. S. stamped on any plate.

Foley criticises the rule of the United States Statutes as follows: The factor in the riveting, except that it distinguishes between single and double, giving the latter 20% advantage; the circumferential riveting or lap seam is altogether ignored. The rule takes no account of workman or method adopted of constructing the joints. The factor, one-sixth, covers the actual nominal factor of safety as well as the loss of strength at the joint, no matter what its percentage; we may therefore call it as unsatisfactory.

Rules for Flat Plates.—Board of Trade: $P = \frac{C(t + 1)^2}{S - 6}$.

P = working pressure in lbs. per square inch;

S = surface supported in square inches;

t = thickness in sixteenths of an inch;

C = a constant as per following table:

15 for plates not exposed to heat or flame, the stays fitted with nuts and washers, the latter at least three times the diameter of the stay and ¾ the thickness of the plate;

18.5 for the same condition, but the washers ¾ the pitch of stays & diameter, and thickness not less than plate;

30 for the same condition, but doubling plates in place of washers, the width of which is ¾ the pitch and thickness the same as the plate;

32.5 for the same condition, but the stays with nuts only;

when exposed to impact of heat or flame and steam;

the plates, and the stays fitted with nuts and washers diameter of the stay and ¾ the plate's thickness;

- $C = 67.5$ for the same condition, but stays fitted with nuts only;
 $C = 100$ when exposed to heat of flame, and water in contact with the
 and stays screwed into the plates and fitted with nuts;
 $C = 60$ for the same condition, but stays with riveted heads.

U. S. Statutes.—Using same notation as for Board of Trade. $P =$
 where $p =$ greatest pitch in inches, P and t as above;

$C = 112$ for plates $\frac{7}{16}$ " thick and under, fitted with screw stay
 and nuts, or plain bolt fitted with single nut and socket
 riveted head and socket;

$C = 120$ for plates above $\frac{7}{16}$ " under the same conditions;

$C = 140$ for flat surfaces where the stays are fitted with nuts
 and outside;

$C = 200$ for flat surfaces under the same condition, but with the
 addition of a washer riveted to the plate at least $\frac{1}{2}$ plate
 thickness, and of a diameter equal to 2.5 pitch.

N.B.—Plates fitted with double angle-irons and riveted to plate, with
 at least $\frac{3}{4}$ the thickness of plate and depth at least $\frac{1}{2}$ of pitch, will
 allowed the same pressure as determined by formula for plate with
 riveted on.

N.B.—No brace or stay-bolt used in marine boilers to have a greater
 than 104 $\frac{1}{2}$ " on fire-boxes and back connections.

Certain experiments were carried out by the Board of Trade which
 that the resistance to bulging does not vary as the square of the
 thickness. There seems also good reason to believe that it is not in
 as the square of the greatest pitch. Bearing in mind, says Mr. Foley,
 mathematicians have signally failed to give us true theoretical formulae
 for calculating the resistance of bodies subject to the simplest
 stresses, we therefore cannot expect much from their assistance
 matter of flat plates.

The Board of Trade rules for flat surfaces, being based on actual
 experiment, are especially worthy of respect; sound judgment appears
 have been used in framing them.

Furnace Formulae.—BOARD OF TRADE.—Long Furnaces.—

$P = \frac{C \times t^2}{(L + 1) \times D}$, but not where L is shorter than $(11.5t - 1)$, at which
 the rule for short furnaces comes into play.

$P =$ working-pressure in pounds per square inch; $t =$ thickness in
 $D =$ outside diameter in inches; $L =$ length of furnace in feet up to
 $C =$ a constant, as per following table, for drilled holes:

$C = 99,000$ for welded or butt-jointed with single straps, double
 riveted;

$C = 88,000$ for butts with single straps, single-riveted;

$C = 69,600$ for butts with double straps, single-riveted.

Provided always that the pressure so found does not exceed that
 the following formulae, which apply also to short furnaces:

$P = \frac{C \times t}{D}$ for all the patent furnaces named;

$P = \frac{C \times t}{3 \times D} \left(5 - \frac{L \times 12}{67.5 \times t} \right)$ when with Adamson rings.

$C = 8,400$ for plain furnaces;

$C = 14,000$ for Fox; minimum thickness $5/16$ ", greatest $9/16$ "; plate
 not to exceed $6'$ in length;

$C = 13,500$ for Morrison; minimum thickness $5/16$ ", greatest $9/16$ ";
 part not to exceed $6'$ in length;

$C = 14,000$ for Purves-Brown; limits of thickness $7/16$ " and $9/16$ ";
 part $6'$ in length;

$C = 8,800$ for Adamson rings; radius of flange next fire $1\frac{1}{4}$ ".

U. S. STATUTES.—Long Furnaces.—Same notation.

$P = \frac{89,600 \times t^2}{L \times D}$, but L not to exceed 8 ft.

N.B.—If rings of wrought iron are fitted and riveted on properly
 and to the flue in such a manner that the tensile stress on the rings

9000 lbs. per sq. in., the distance between the rings shall be taken as of the flue in the formula.

Flues, Plain and Patent.—*P*, as before, when not 8 ft.

$$P \propto l^2.$$

$$C \propto D;$$

C when

C = 14,000 for Fox corrugations where *D* = mean diameter;

C = 14,000 for Purves-Brown where *D* = diameter of flue;

C = 5677 for plain flues over 16" diameter and less than 40", when not over 3 ft. lengths.

Comments on the rules for long furnaces as follows: The Board meant formula, where the length is a factor, has a very limited *l*, viz., 10 ft. as the extreme length, and 135 thicknesses = 12",

limit. The original formula, $P = \frac{C \times l^2}{L \times D'}$, is that of Sir W.

and was, I believe, never intended by him to apply to short furnaces. The very face of it, it is apparent, on the other hand, that if it is moderately long furnaces, it cannot be so for very long ones. We are driven to the conclusion that any formula which includes *l* as a factor must be founded on a wrong basis.

Trall's form of the formula, namely, substituting (*L* + 1) for *L*, appear sufficiently satisfactory for practical purposes, and in fact as can be judged, tally with the results obtained from experiment as could be expected. The experiments to which I refer number, and of great variety of length to diameter; the actual safety ranged from 4.4 to 6.2, the mean being 4.78, or practically to me, therefore, that, within the limits prescribed, the Board of Trade may be accepted as suitable for our requirements.

United States Statutes give Fairbairn's rule pure and simple, except the limit of length to which it applies is fixed at 8 feet. As far as seen, no limit for the shortest length is prescribed, but there are by no means clear, flues and furnaces being mixed or not distinguished.

Material for Stays.—The qualities of material prescribed are as

Trade.—The tensile strength to lie between the limits of 27 and 30 square inch, and to have an elongation of not less than 30% in stays which have been welded or worked in the fire should not

be less than 30 ton steel, with elongation not less than 30% in 8".

Notes.—The only condition is that the reduction of area must not be less than 40% if the test bar is over 3/4" diameter.

Allowed on Stays.—*Board of Trade.*—9000 lbs. per square inch on the net section, provided the tensile strength ranges from 27 to 30 square inch.

Steel stays are not to be welded or worked in the fire. For screwed and other stays, not exceeding 1 1/2" diameter effective area per square inch is allowed; for stays above 1 1/2", 9000 lbs. No welding.

Notes.—Braces and stays shall not be subjected to a greater stress than 9000 lbs. per square inch.

B. E., p. 459, says: "The iron of the stays ought not to be exposed to a greater working tension than 3000 lbs. on the square inch, in order to guard against their being weakened by corrosion. This amounts to a factor of safety for the working pressure about 20." It is never, that an allowance in the factor of safety for corrosion may be decreased with increase of diameter. *W. K.*]

Board of Trade. $P = \frac{C \times d^2 \times l}{(W - p)D \times L}$ *P* = working pressure per sq. in.; *W* = width of flame-box in inches; *L* = length of flues; *p* = pitch of bolts in inches; *D* = distance between girders to centre in inches; *d* = depth of girder in inches; *l* = thickness of same in inches; *C* = a constant = 6600 for 1 bolt, 9900 for 2 bolts, 11,230 for 4 bolts.

The same formula and constants, except that *C* = 11,000 for 4 or 6 or 6 or 7, and 11,860 for 8 or more.

Notes.—The matter appears to be left to the designers.

Tube-Plates.—*Board of Trade.* $P = \frac{16D^2 - d^2}{16 \times t}$

horizontal distance between centres of tubes in inches; d = inside of ordinary tubes; t = thickness of tube plate in inches; D = width of combustion-box in inches from front tube-plate to back box, or distance between combustion-box tube plates when the double-ended and the box common to both ends.

The crushing stress on tube-plates caused by the pressure on the box top is to be limited to 10,000 lbs. per square inch.

Material for Tubes.—Mr. Foley proposes the following quality to be such as to give at least 22 tons per square inch of tensile strength, with an elongation of not less than 135 in 8. The elongation to be not less than 26% in 8" for the material before being drawn into strips; and after tempering, the test bar to stand compressed together. Provided the steel welds well, there does not seem to be any objection in providing tensile limits.

The ends should be annealed after manufacture, and stay-tubes should be annealed before screwing.

Holding-power of Boiler-tubes.—Experiments made at the Royal Arsenal, Woolwich, and at the Devonport Dockyard, and at the Devonport Navy Yard show that with 2½-in. brass tubes in no case was the holding-power less, roughly speaking, than 6000 lbs., while the average was about 20,000 lbs. It was further shown that with these tubes cut into strips, quite as good results being obtained with tubes simply expanded into the tube-plate and fitted with a ferrule. When nuts were fitted to the tubes they drew off without injuring the threads.

In Messrs. Yarrow's experiments on iron and steel tubes of 1½-in. diameter the first 5 tubes gave way on an average of 23,740 lbs., and appear to be about 2½ the ultimate strength of the tubes themselves. In these cases the hole through the tube plate was parallel with a stay to it, and a ferrule was driven into the tube.

Tests of the next 5 tubes were made under the same conditions, but with the exception that in this case the ferrule was omitted, and the tubes simply expanded into the plates. The mean pull required was only 16,081 lbs., or considerably less than half the ultimate strength of the tubes.

Effect of beading the tubes. The holes through the plate being provided with ferrules omitted. The mean of the first 3, which are tubes of mild steel, gives 26,876 lbs. as their holding-power, under these conditions compared with 23,740 lbs. for the tubes fitted with ferrules. This difference is, however, mainly due to an exceptional case where the holding-power is greater than the average strength of the tubes themselves.

It is disadvantageous to cone the hole through the tube plate, as the sharp edge is removed, as the results are much worse than those obtained with parallel holes, the mean pull being but 16,081 lbs. The experiments made with tubes expanded and ferruled but not beaded over.

In experiments on tubes expanded into tapered holes, beaded over and fitted with ferrules, the net result is that the holding-power is only about 25% of the tensile strength of the tube, the mean being 28,797 lbs.

With tubes expanded into tapered holes and simply beaded over, the results were obtained than with ferrules; in these cases, however, the edge of the hole was rounded off, which appears in general to be of little effect.

In one particular the experiments are incomplete, as it is impossible to reproduce on a machine the racking the tubes get by the expansion under as it is heated up and cooled down again, and it is quite probable, therefore, that the fastenings giving the best results on the testing machine may not prove so efficient in practice.

N.B. It should be noted that the experiments were all made under the same condition, so that reference should be made with caution to the standards in practice being very different, especially when there is a difference in the tube plates, or when the tube plates are thick and subject to heat.

Iron versus Steel Boiler-tubes. (Foley.)—Mr. Foley compares iron tubes to those of steel, but how far he would go in recommending the use of steel tubes we are not sure. He states, however, that the results of his experiments would not warrant a recommendation in this direction. The test consisted of a 1½-in. diameter tube, 8 ft. long, drawn from the iron and the steel of equal thickness, and the results were as follows:

16 in. diam.

26

in thickness of metal

time furnace, made red hot, and then dipped in water. The test was repeated, with results as follows:

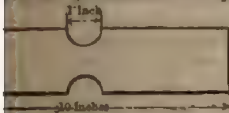
	Steel.	Iron.
Thickness.....	55.495 in.	55.405 in.
Expansion per degree F.....	.0000067	.0000062
Heated and dipped in water; decrease.....	.007 in.	.003 in.
Heated and cooling, decrease.....	.031 in.	.004 in.
Heated and cooling, decrease.....	.017 in.	.006 in.
Contraction.....	.035 in.	.013 in.

Clark writes: That overheating of tube ends is the cause of the failure of tubes in boilers is proved by the fact that the ferrules at the ends of the tubes are protected by the Admiralty prevent it. These act by shielding the tube ends from the action of the flame, and consequently reducing evaporation, and giving free access of the water to keep them cool. Many causes contribute, there seems no doubt that thick tube ends bear a share of causing the mischief.

Construction of Boilers in Merchant Vessels in the United States.

General Rules and Regulations of the Board of Supervising Inspectors of Steam-vessels (as amended 1893 and 1894.)

Strength of Plate. (Section 3.)—To ascertain the tensile strength of other qualities of iron plate there shall be taken from each



sheet to be used in shell or other parts of boiler which are subject to tensile strain a test piece prepared in form according to the following diagram, viz.: 10 inches in length, 2 inches in width, cut out in the centre in the manner indicated.

To ascertain the tensile strength of other parts of boiler which are subject to tensile strain, a test piece shall be taken from each sheet to be used in form according to the following diagram, the length of the straight part in centre varying as the thickness of the plate.



The portion shall be in the shape of a dumb-bell, the width of the straight part shall be at least eight times the width multiplied by the thickness of said part, and the reduction of area as called for by the present rules of the Board, shall be of at least 25%. The straight part shall be of a width of 1 inch to take effect on and after July 1, 1894.

That where contracts for boilers for ocean-going steamers require compliance with the British Board of Trade, or Bureau Veritas rules for testing, the inspectors shall require compliance with the following rules:

That all plates shall have an ultimate elongation not less than 25% of 8 inches. It is to be capable of being bent to a curve of which the radius is not greater than one and a half times the thickness of the plate after having been heated uniformly to a low cherry-red, and cooled in water of 82° F.

That the shape of test piece for steel was the same as that for iron, and the shape. This shape has been condemned by authorities on materials for over twenty years. It always gives results which are in error sometimes amounting to 25 per cent. See pages 242, 243, Strength of Materials, W. Kent, Van N. Science Series No. 41, and on Wrought-iron and Chain Cables.]

Strength of Steel. (Section 5.)—To ascertain the ductility and other lawful requirements of 45,000 lbs. tensile strength shall show a contraction of area of 10 per cent, and each additional 1000 lbs. tensile strength shall show an additional contraction of area, up to and including 55,000 lbs. tensile strength and upwards, showing a contraction of area of 10 per cent, and each additional 1000 lbs. tensile strength shall show a contraction of area of 1 per cent. Steel plate over 1/2 inch in thickness, in

Thickness in thickness of an inch	Diameter in inches.									
	54	60	66	72	78	84	90	96	102	108
1	16.2	14.6	13.3	12.2	11.2	10.4	9.7	9.1	8.6	8.1
2	32.4	29.2	26.5	24.3	22.4	20.8	19.4	18.2	17.2	16.2
3	48.6	43.7	39.8	36.5	33.7	31.3	29.2	27.3	25.7	24.3
4	64.8	58.3	53.0	48.6	44.9	41.7	38.9	36.5	34.3	32.4
5	81.0	72.9	66.3	60.8	56.1	52.1	48.6	45.6	42.9	40.8
6	97.2	87.5	79.5	72.9	67.3	62.5	58.3	54.7	51.5	48.6
7	113.4	102.1	92.8	85.1	78.5	72.9	68.1	63.5	60.0	56.7
8	129.6	116.7	106.1	97.2	89.7	83.3	77.8	72.9	68.6	64.8
9	145.8	131.2	119.3	109.4	101.0	93.8	87.5	82.0	77.2	72.9
10	162.0	145.8	132.6	121.5	112.2	104.2	97.2	91.1	85.9	80.8
11	178.2	160.1	145.8	133.7	123.4	114.6	106.9	100.3	94.4	88.6
12	194.4	175.0	159.1	145.8	134.6	125.0	116.7	109.4	102.9	97.2
13	210.7	189.6	172.4	158.0	145.8	135.4	126.4	118.5	111.5	105.0
14	226.9	204.2	185.6	170.1	157.1	145.8	136.1	127.6	120.1	113.4
15	243.1	218.7	198.9	182.3	168.3	156.3	145.8	136.7	128.7	121.5
16	259.3	233.3	212.1	194.4	179.5	166.7	155.6	145.8	137.3	129.6

Rules governing Inspection of Boilers in Philadelphia.

In estimating the strength of the longitudinal seams in the shells of boilers the inspector shall apply two formulas, A and B.

- A. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pitch of rivets} - \text{diameter of holes punched to receive the} \\ \text{pitch of rivets} \\ \text{percentage of strength of the sheet} \end{array} \right.$
- B. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Area of hole filled by rivet} \times \text{No. of rows of rivets in seam} \\ \text{ing strength of rivet} \\ \text{pitch of rivets} \times \text{thickness of sheet} \times \text{tensile strength of} \\ \text{percentage of strength of the rivets} \end{array} \right.$

Take the lowest of the percentages as found by formula A, apply that percentage as the "strength of the seam" in formula C, which determines the strength of the longitudinal seam.

- C. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Thickness of sheet in parts of inch} \times \text{strength of seam as} \\ \text{by formula A or B} \times \text{ultimate strength of iron stamped or} \\ \text{internal radius of boiler in inches} \times 5 \text{ as a factor of} \\ \text{safe working} \end{array} \right.$

TABLE OF PROPORTIONS AND SAFE WORKING PRESSURES WITH 11/16" AND C. @ 50,000 LBS. T. S.

Diameter of rivet.	11/16"	3/4	13/16	1 1/8
Diameter of rivet-hole.	11/16"	3/4	13/16	1 1/8
Pitch of rivets.	2"	2 1/16	2 1/8	2 3/8
Strength of seam, %	65	68	72	75
Thickness of plate.	1/4"	5/16	3/8	7/16

Safe Working Pressure with Longitudinal Single-Riveted.

Diameter of boiler, in.	137	165	193	220
24	137	165	193	220
30	103	124	144	165
36	90	117	136	153
42	81	110	129	147
48	75	104	123	140
54	70	99	116	132
60	65	94	110	125
66	61	89	105	118
72	57	84	100	111
78	53	79	95	104
84	50	74	90	97
90	47	69	85	91
96	44	64	80	84
102	41	59	75	77
108	38	54	70	71
114	35	50	65	65

of rivet.....	3/4"	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8
of rivet-hole..	11/16"	3/4	13/16	7/8	15/16
of rivets.....	3"	3 3/8	3 1/2	3 3/4	3 7/8
of seam, %.....	.77	.76	.75	.74	.73
of plate.....	3/4"	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2

of boiler, in...	Safe Working Pressure with Longitudinal Seams, Double-riveted.				
24	160	198	235	269	305
30	127	158	188	215	243
32	119	148	176	202	228
34	112	140	166	190	216
36	106	132	156	179	203
38	101	125	148	170	192
40	96	119	141	161	183
44	87	108	128	147	166
48	79	99	118	135	152
54	70	88	104	120	135
60	64	79	94	106	122

Flues and Tubes for Steam-boilers.—(From Rules of U. S. Inspecting Engineers. Steam pressures per square inch allowable on and lap-welded flues made in sections. Extract from table in Rules Supervising Inspectors.)

T = thickness of material allowable, D = greatest diameter in inches, P = allowable pressure. For thickness greater than T with same diameter increase in the ratio of the thickness.

7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
18	20	21	21	22	23	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
189	194	199	174	172	158	152	147	143	139	136	134	131	129	126	125	122
24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
121	120	119	117	116	115	115	114	112	112	110	110	109	109	108	108	107

For diameters not over 10 inches the greatest length of section allowable is 3 feet; for diameters 10 to 23 inches, 3 feet; for diameters 23 to 40 inches, 30 feet. If lengths of sections are greater than these lengths, the allowable pressure is reduced proportionately.

Rule 14. The strength of all corrugated flues, when used for furnaces or chimneys (corrugation not less than 1 1/2 inches deep and not exceeding 6 inches from centres of corrugation), and provided that the plain parts do not exceed 6 inches in length, and the plates are not less than 3/8 inch thick, when new, corrugated, and practically true circles, to be determined from the following formula:

$$\frac{14,000}{D} \times T = \text{pressure.}$$

T = thickness, in inches; D = mean diameter in inches.

Flues.—The same formula is given for ribbed flues, with ribs not less than 1 1/2 inches deep and not more than 9 inches apart.

Stayed Surfaces in Steam-boilers.—Rule II., Section 6, of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors provides as follows: "The stress or stays hereafter employed in the construction of boilers shall be allowed a greater strain than 6000 lbs. per square inch of

area in his treatise on the Steam-engine, also in his Pocket-book, giving the following formula: $p = 40,718 \div d$, in which p is the internal pressure per square inch that will strain the plates to their elastic limit, d is the thickness of the plate in inches, d is the distance between two rows of stays in the clear, and s is the tensile stress in the plate per square inch, at the elastic limit. Substituting for steel, and copper, 12, 14, and 8 tons respectively

FORMULÆ FOR ULTIMATE ELASTIC STRENGTH OF PLAT STAYED

	Iron.	Steel.	Copper.
Pressure.....	$p = 5000 \frac{t}{d}$	$p = 5700 \frac{t}{d}$	$p = 5700 \frac{t}{d}$
Thickness of plate.....	$t = \frac{p \times d}{5000}$	$t = \frac{p \times d}{5700}$	$t = \frac{p \times d}{5700}$
Pitch of bolts.....	$d = \frac{5000t}{p}$	$d = \frac{5700t}{p}$	$d = \frac{5700t}{p}$

For Diameter of the Stay-bolts, Clark gives $d' = \frac{1}{10} \sqrt{\frac{P}{p}}$

in which d' = diameter of screwed bolt at bottom of thread, P = normal and P' transverse pitch of stay-bolts between centres, p = pressure in lbs. per sq. in. that will strain the plate to its ultimate elastic strength of the stay-bolts in lbs. per sq. in. Taking $p = 10$ tons, respectively for iron, steel, and copper, we have

For iron, $d' = .00069 \sqrt{PP'}$, or if $P = P'$, $d' = .00069 \sqrt{P}$

For steel, $d' = .00064 \sqrt{PP'}$, " " $d' = .00064 \sqrt{P}$

For copper, $d' = .00084 \sqrt{PP'}$, " " $d' = .00084 \sqrt{P}$

In using these formula a large factor of safety should be taken for reduction of size by corrosion. Thurston's Manual of Steam-boilers, 144, recommends that the factor be as large as 15 or 20. The American Steam Boiler Insp. & Ins. Co. recommends not less than 10.

Strength of Stays.--A. F. Yarrow (*Eng'g.*, March 20, 1892) gives the following results of experiments to ascertain the strength of wire stays:

Description.	Length between Plates.	Diameter of Stay over Threads.
Hollow stays screwed into plates and hole expanded	4.75 in.	1 in. (hole 7/16 in. and 5/16 in.)
Solid stays screwed into plates and riveted over.	4.61 in.	1 in. (hole 9/16 in. and 7/16 in.)
	4.80 in.	7/8 in.
	4.80 in.	7/8 in.

The above are taken as a fair average of numerous tests.

Stay-bolts in Curved Surfaces, as in Water-legs of Cal Boilers.--The rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors are as follows: All vertical boiler-furnaces constructed of wrought-iron plates, and having a diameter of over 42 in. or a height of over 60 ft., stayed with bolts as provided by § 6 of Rule II, for flat surfaces; thickness of material required for the shells of such furnaces shall be determined by the distance between the centres of the stay-bolts, and not in the shell of the boiler; and the steam-pressure shall be determined by the distance from centre of stay-bolt to the shell and the diameter of such stay-bolts at the bottom of the thread.

The Hartford Steam-Boiler Insp. & Ins. Co. approves the above in *Locomotive*, March, 1892, as far as it states that curved surfaces shall be computed the same as flat ones, but prefers Clark's formula for stayed surfaces to the rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors.

Fusible-plugs.--Fusible-plugs should be put in that portion of the heating-surface which first becomes exposed from lack of water. The U. S. Supervising Inspectors specify Banca tin for the purpose; melting-point is about 445° F. The rule says: All steamers shall insert in their boilers plugs of Banca tin, at least 1/2 in. in diameter at the smallest end of the internal opening, in the following manner: In *Cylinder-boilers* with flues shall have one plug inserted in each flue at the bottom; and also one plug inserted in the shell of each flue at the top immediately before the flue enters the boiler. In *Water-tube-boilers* shall have one plug in the highest fire-surface of the boiler.

right tubular boilers used for marine purposes shall have a fusible cock, and said plug may be placed in the upper head sheet when not advisable by the local inspectors.

Steam-domes.—Steam domes or drums were formerly almost universal on horizontal boilers, but their use is now generally discontinued, they are considered a useless appendage to a steam-boiler, and unless properly designed and constructed are an element of weakness.

Height of Furnace.—Recent practice in the United States makes the height of furnace much greater than it was formerly. With large sizes of grate there is no serious objection to having the furnace as low as 12 in., measured from the surface of the grate to the nearest portion of the heating surface of the boiler, but with coal containing much volatile matter and moisture a much greater distance is desirable. With very volatile coals the distance may be as great as 4 or 5 ft. Rankine (S. E., p. 457) states that the clear height of the "crown" or roof of the furnace above the grate is seldom less than about 18 in., and often considerably more. In the boilers of locomotives it is on an average about 4 ft. The height of 18 in. is desirable where the crown of the furnace is a brick arch. Where the crown of the furnace, on the other hand, forms part of the heating-surface of the boiler, a greater height is desirable in every case in which it can be obtained; for the temperature of the boiler-plates, being much lower than that of the flame, tends to check the combustion of the inflammable gases which rise from the fuel. As a general principle a high furnace is favorable to complete combustion.

IMPROVED METHODS OF FEEDING COAL,

Mechanical Stokers. (William R. Roney, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. 1, p. 189.)—Mechanical stokers have been used in England to a limited extent since 1839. In that year one was patented by James Watt. It was a simple device to push the coal, after it was coked at the front end of the grate, towards the bridge. It was worked intermittently by levers, and was designed primarily to prevent smoke from bituminous coal. (See D. K. Roney's Treatise on the Steam-engine.)

By the year 1840 many styles of mechanical stokers were patented in England, but nearly all were variations and modifications of the two forms of stokers patented by John Jukes in 1841, and by E. Henderson in 1843.

The Jukes stoker consisted of longitudinal fire-bars, connected by links, to form an endless chain, similar to the familiar treadmill horse-power. Small coal was delivered from a hopper on the front of the boiler, on to the grate, which slowly moving from front to rear, gradually advanced the coal into the furnace and discharged the ash and clinker at the back.

The Henderson stoker consists primarily of two horizontal fans revolving on vertical spindles, which scatter the coal over the fire.

Numerous faults in mechanical construction and in operation have limited the use of these and other mechanical stokers. The first American stoker was the Murphy stoker, brought out in 1878. It consists of two coal magazines placed in the side walls of the boiler furnace, and extending back from the boiler front 6 or 7 feet. In the bottom of these magazines are rectangular boxes, which are moved from side to side by means of a rack and pinion, and serve to push the coal upon the grates, which incline at an angle about 30° from the inner edge of the coal magazines, forming a V-shaped receptacle for the burning coal. The grates are composed of narrow parallel bars arranged that each alternate bar lifts about an inch at the lower end, while at the bottom of the V, and filling the space between the ends of grate-bars, is placed a cast-iron toothed bar, arranged to be turned by a hand. The purpose of this bar is to grind the clinker coming in contact with the fuel. Over this V-shaped receptacle is sprung a fire-brick arch.

The Roney mechanical stoker the fuel to be burned is dumped into a hopper on the boiler front. Set in the lower part of the hopper is a "pusher" which is attached to the "feed-plate" forming the bottom of the hopper. The "pusher" is actuated by a vibratory motion, carrying with it the "feed-plate," which forces the fuel over the "dead-plate" and on to the grate. The "dead-plate" in their normal condition form a series of steps, to the top step of which coal is fed from the "dead-plate." Each bar rests in a corner of the hopper, and is capable of a rocking motion through the "dead-plate." All the grate-bars are coupled together by a "rocking" motion, and the "dead-plate" and forth motion being given to the "rocking" motion.

jecting-rod, the grate-bars rock in unison, now forming a series and now approximating to an inclined plane, with the grate barslapping, like shingles on a roof. When the grate-bars rock forward they tend to work down in a body. But before the coal can reach the bars rock back to the stepped position, checking the downward breaking up the cake over the whole surface, and admitting a flow of air through the fire. The rocking motion is slow, being five strokes per minute, according to the kind of coal. This alternating and checking motion is continuous, and finally lands the entire mass of the dumping-grate below.

Mr. Roney gives the following record of six tests to determine comparative economy of the Roney mechanical stoker and hand-fired tubular boilers, 60 inches x 20 feet, burning Cumberland coal at draught. Rating of boiler at 12.5 square feet, 105 H. P.

Three tests, hand-firing. Three tests, mechanical stoking.					
Evaporation per pound, dry	10.96	10.44	11.00	11.90	12.00
coal from and at 212° lbs					
H. P. developed above rating, %	5.8	13.5	68	54.6	66.1

Results of comparative tests like the above should be used only in drawing generalizations. It by no means follows from these that a stoker will always show such comparative excellence, for in the results of hand-firing are much below what may be obtained in favorable circumstances from hand-firing with good Cumberland coal.

The Hawley Down-draught Furnace.—A lot of the ordinary grate there is carried a second grate composed of water tubes, opening at both ends into steel drums or headers, through which water is circulated. The coal is fed on this second grate, and is gradually consumed falls through it upon the lower grate, where the combustion is completed in the ordinary manner. The draught through the upper grate is downward through the coal and the grate. The water is therefore carried down through the bed of coal, where it is thoroughly heated, and are burned in the space beneath where the excess of hot air drawn through the fire on the lower grate. At Chicago, from 30 to 45 lbs. of coal were burned per square foot of grate in this system, with good economical results. (See catalogue of the Down Draught Furnace Co., Chicago, 1891.)

Under-feed Stokers.—Results similar to those that may be obtained with downward draught are obtained by feeding the coal at the top of the bed, pushing upward the coal already on the bed which has had its volatile matter distilled from it. The volatile matter of the freshly fed coal has to pass through a body of ignited coke. (See circular of the Under-feed Stoker, Fraser & Chalmers, Chicago, 1894.)

SMOKE PREVENTION.

A committee of experts was appointed in St. Louis in 1891 to report on the smoke problem. A summary of its report is given in the *Iron Age*, 7, 1892. It describes the different means that have been tried to prevent smoke, such as gas-fuel, steam-jets, fire-brick arches and check-hollow walls for preheating air, coking arches or chambers, combustion furnaces, and automatic stokers. All of these means have been less effective in diminishing smoke, their effectiveness depending upon the skill with which they are operated; but none is entirely satisfactory. Fuel-gas is objectionable chiefly on account of its average quality of fuel-gas made from a trial run of western Illinois coal, in a well-designed fuel-gas plant, showed a calorific value of 243,391 heat-units per 1000 cubic feet. This is equivalent to about 24 lb. of coal, whereas by direct calorimeter test an average sample of coal gave 11,172 heat-units. One lb. of the coal showed a theoretical evaporation of 11.56 lbs. water, while the gas from 1 lb. showed an evaporation of 5.23 lbs. 48.17 lbs. of coal were required to furnish the heat of the gas. In 39 tests the smoke-preventing furnaces showed only 24% of the capacity of the common furnaces, reduced the smoke to 24%, and required about 25 more fuel to do the same work. When steam-jets the fuel consumption was increased 125 for the same amount of heat. The report to the State Board of Health, 1893, writes as follows on the prevention of smoke.

steam-boilers, the object must be attained by one or more agencies:

(a) draught, and setting of the boiler-plant. This implies proper grate draught, the necessary air-space between grate-bars and ample combustion-room under boilers.

(b) a method of firing that is best adapted to each particular furnace to suit the combustion of bituminous coal. This may be either: (a) charging all coal into the front of the furnace until part is pushed back and spreading; or (b) "alternate side-firing," by which the coal is spread over the whole grate in thin layers at each charging.

(c) the use of air through the furnace-door, bridge-wall, or side walls, and other artificial means for thoroughly mixing the air and fuel.

(d) the cooling of the furnace and boilers by the rush of cold air when the furnace-doors are opened for charging coal and handling the same.

(e) a gradation of the several steps of combustion so that the fuel is dried, and warmed at the coolest part of the furnace, and then by successive steps to the hottest place, where the final coking of the coal is completed, and compelling the distilled gases to pass through this hottest part of the fire.

(f) the cooling by radiation of the unburned combustible gases during and after combustion have been accomplished.

(g) a supply of air to suit the periodic variation in demand.

(h) the adoption of a continuous uniform feeding of coal instead of charging.

(i) the right burning or causing the air to enter above the grate and rush through the coal, carrying the distilled products down to the high draught at the bottom of the fire.

(j) the use of smoke-prevention devices which have been invented in various forms.

(k) the use of stokers. They effect a material saving in the labor of firing, and are efficient smoke-preventers when not pushed above their normal capacity. When the coal does not cake badly. They are rarely susceptible of changes in the rate of firing frequently demanded in the case of hand-firing.

(l) the use of side walls, bridge-wall, and grate-bars, through which air is drawn. The results are always beneficial, but the flues are not always clean and in order.

(m) the use of arches, or spaces in front of the furnace arched over, in which the fuel is coked, both to prevent cooling of the distilled gases, and to pass through the hottest part of the furnace just beyond the draught. These are good for normal conditions, but ineffective when the draught is weak. The arches also are easily burned out and injured by the heat.

(n) the use of a portion of the grate next the furnace-doors, reserved for coking the coal before it is spread over the grate. These are used when the furnace is not forced above its normal capacity. The method of "coke-firing" mentioned before.

(o) the use of night furnaces, or furnaces in which the air is supplied to the grate, and the products of combustion are taken away from the grate, thus causing a downward draught through the coal, carrying the gases down to the highly heated incandescent coal at the lower layer of coal on the grate. This is the most perfect manner of combustion, and is absolutely smokeless.

(p) the use of a fan to draw air in or inject air into the furnace above the grate, thus mixing the air and the combustible gases together. A very efficient method, but one liable to be wasteful of fuel by inducing too rapid combustion.

(q) the use of plates placed in the furnace above the fire to aid in mixing the fuel with the air.

(r) the use of two furnaces, of which there are two different styles; the first of which is a second grate below the first grate; the coal is coked on the first grate, and the distilled gases are made to pass over the second grate, where they are ignited and burned; the coke from the first grate is pushed onto the second grate; a very efficient and economical method, but rather complicated to construct and maintain. In the case of two furnaces, the products of combustion from the first furnace pass

the grate and fire of the second, each furnace being charged with coal when needed, the latter generally with a smokeless coal or coal of a special and unpromising method.

Mr. C. F. White, Consulting Engineer to the Chicago Society of Prevention of Smoke, writes under date of May 4, 1893:

The experience had in Chicago has shown plainly that it is possible to equip steam-boilers with furnaces which shall burn ordinary coal in such a manner that the making of smoke dense enough to obstruct vision shall be confined to one or two intervals of perhaps a couple of minutes duration in the ordinary day of 10 hours.

Gas-fired Steam-boilers.—Converting coal into gas in a producer, before burning it under the steam-boiler, is an ideal of smoke-prevention, but its expense has hitherto prevented its general adoption. A series of articles on the subject, illustrating a great many devices, by F. J. Rowan, is published in the *Colliery Engineer*. It also Clark on the Steam-engine.

FORCED COMBUSTION IN STEAM-BOILERS.

For the purpose of increasing the amount of steam that can be produced by a boiler of a given size, forced draught is of great importance. It is universally used in the locomotive, the draught being obtained by a jet in the smoke-stack. It is now largely used in ocean steamers, and in ships of war, and to a small extent in stationary boilers. Economy of fuel is generally not attained by its use, its advantages being confined to securing of increased capacity from a boiler of a given bulk, weight, and cost. The subject of forced draught is well treated in a paper by James H. Thompson, entitled, "Forced Combustion in Steam-boilers," (Section G, of the Congress at Chicago, in 1893, from which we abstract the following.)

Edwin A. Stevens at Bordentown, N. J., in 1827, in the steamer "America," fitted the boilers with closed ash-pits, into which the combustion was forced by a fan. In 1828 Ericsson fitted in a similar steamer "Victory," commanded by Sir John Ross.

Messrs. E. A. and R. L. Stevens continued the use of forced draught for a considerable period, during which they tried three different methods of the fan for promoting combustion: 1, blowing direct into a chamber at the base of the funnel by the suction of the fan, 2, exhausting the base of the funnel by the suction of the fan, 3, blowing into an air-tight boiler-room or stoke-hold. Each of these three methods was attended with serious difficulties.

In the use of the closed ash-pit the blast-pressure would force the gases of combustion, in the shape of a serrated flame, from around the furnace doors in so great a quantity as to affect both efficiency and health of the firemen.

The chief defect of the second plan was the great size of the fan required to produce the necessary exhaustion. The size of fan required increased in a rapidly increasing ratio as the combustion increased, both on account of the greater air-supply and the higher exit temperature enlarging the volume of the waste gases.

The third method, that of forcing cold air by the fan into the boiler-room—the present closed stoke-hold system—though it was attended with difficulties in working belonging to the two forms first tried, had defects of its own, as it cannot be worked, even with modern boiler-construction, much, if at all, above the power of a good draught, in most boilers, without damaging them.

In 1855 John I. Thornycroft & Co., of London, began the construction of torpedo-boats with boilers of the locomotive type, in which the combustion was attained by means of the air-tight boiler-room, in which air was forced by means of a fan.

In 1882 H.B.M. ships "Satellite" and "Conqueror" were fitted with the system, the former being a small ship of 1200 I. H. P., and the latter of 4500 I. H. P. On the trials with forced draught, which lasted to three hours each, the highest rates of combustion gave 16.1 square foot of fire-grate in the "Satellite," and 13.41 I. H. P. in the "Conqueror."

None of the short trials at these rates of combustion were without injury to the seams and tubes of the boilers, and the system was abandoned, and it has been continued in the British Navy to this day. The only advantage derived from using forced draught is the saving of space in the boiler-room, and the disadvantage is the loss of the natural draught, and the disadvantages arising from the ash-pit system.

ing, there being either excessive smoke from bituminous coal or an evaporative economy.

Mr. Howden designed an arrangement intended to overcome the defects of both the closed ash-pit and closed stoke-hold systems.

A tight reservoir or chamber is placed on the front end of the boiler surrounding the furnaces. This reservoir, which projects from 8 to 10 feet from the end of the boiler, receives the air under pressure, which is admitted by the valves into the ash-pits and over the fires in proportions suited to the kind of fuel used and the rate of combustion required. The air above the fires is admitted to a space between the outer and inner ash-doors, the inner having perforations and an air-distributing box in which the air passes under pressure.

By means of the balance of air-pressure above and below the fires all the air for the fire to blow out at the furnace-door is removed.

The regulating the admission of the air by the valves above and below the fires, the highest rate of combustion possible by the air-pressure used can be effected, and in same manner the rate of combustion can be reduced to allow that of natural draught, while complete and economical combustion at all rates is secured.

The nature of the system is the combination of the heating of the air of the system by the waste gases with the controlled and regulated admission of air to the furnaces. This arrangement is effected most conveniently by passing the hot fire-gases after they leave the boiler through stacks of vertical tubes enclosed in the uptake, their lower ends being immediately above the smoke-box doors.

Calculations on Howden's system have hitherto been arranged for a rate of combustion to give at full sea-power an average of from 18 to 22 L.H.P. per square foot of fire-grate with fire-bars from 5' 0" to 5' 6" in length.

It is believed that with suitable arrangement of proportions even 30 L.H.P. per square foot can be obtained.

On account of recent uses of exhaust-fans for increasing draught, see also by W. R. Roney, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xv.

FUEL ECONOMIZERS.

Green's Fuel Economizer.—Clark gives the following average results of comparative trials of three boilers at Wigan used with and without economizers:

	Without Economizers.	With Economizers.
Coal per square foot of grate per hour.	21.6	21.4
Water at 100° evaporated per hour.	79.55	79.32
Water at 212° per pound of coal.	9.60	10.55

Noting that in burning equal quantities of coal per hour the rapidity of evaporation is increased 9.8% and the efficiency of evaporation 10% by the use of the economizer.

The average temperatures of the gases and of the feed-water before and after passing the economizer were as follows:

	With 6-ft. grate.		With 4-ft. grate.	
	Before.	After.	Before.	After.
Average temperature of gases.	649	340	501	312
Average temperature of feed-water.	47	157	41	137

Noting averages of the two grates, to raise the temperature of the feed-water 100° the gases were cooled down 250°.

Performance of a Green Economizer with a Smoky Coal.

A section of Green's Economizer was tested by M. W. Grosseteste for a period of three weeks. The apparatus consists of four ranges of vertical pipes, 34½ feet high, 3¾ inches in diameter outside, nine pipes in each range, connected at top and bottom by horizontal pipes. The water enters all the pipes from below, and leaves them from above. The system of pipes is enclosed in a brick casing, into which the gaseous products of combustion are introduced from above, and which they leave from below. The pipes are cleared of soot externally by automatic scrapers. The capacity for water is 24 cubic feet, and the total external heating-surface is 290 square feet. The apparatus is placed in connection with a boiler having 355 square feet of heating-surface.

The apparatus had been at work for seven weeks continuously, had been cleaned, and had accumulated a ¼-inch coating of soot.

ash, when its performance, in the same condition, was observed the second week. During the second week it was cleaned twice every day, and the third week, after having been cleaned on Monday morning, it worked continuously without further cleaning. A smoke meter was used. The consumption was maintained sensibly constant for the

GREEN'S ECONOMIZER.—RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTS ON ITS PERFORMANCE, AS AFFECTED BY THE STATE OF THE SURFACE. (W. GREEN.)

Time (February and March).	Temperature of Feed-water.			Temperature of Steam.	
	Enter- ing Feed- heater.	Leav- ing Feed- heater.	Differ- ence.	Enter- ing Feed- heater.	Leav- ing Feed- heater.
1st Week.....	Fahr. 73.5°	Fahr. 161.5°	Fahr. 88.0°	Fahr. 849°	Fahr. 207°
2d Week.....	77.0	220.0	153.0	882	227
3d Week—Monday.....	73.4	106.0	122.6	831	234
Tuesday.....	73.4	181.4	108.0	851	260
Wednesday.....	79.0	178.0	99.0	—	—
Thursday.....	80.6	170.6	90.0	954	272
Friday.....	80.6	169.0	88.4	980	274
Saturday.....	79.0	172.4	93.4	901	274

Coal consumed per hour.....	214 lbs.	216 lbs.	162
Water evaporated from 32° F. per hour.....	1424	1525	106
Water per pound of coal.....	6.65	7.08	6.77

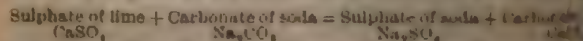
It is apparent that there is a great advantage in cleaning the boiler—the elevation of temperature having been increased by it from 27° in the third week, without cleaning, the elevation of temperature in three days to the level of the first week; even on the first day quickly reduced by as much as half the extent of relapse. If the pipes daily an increased elevation of temperature of 6° F. was effected whilst a gain of 6% was effected in the evaporative efficiency.

INCRUSTATION AND CORROSION.

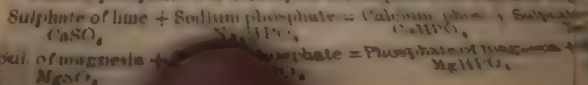
Incrustation and Scale.—Incrustation (as distinguished from mere sediments due to dirty water, which are easily blown out, or picked up, by means of sediment collectors) is due to the presence of salts in the feed-water (carbonates and sulphates of lime and magnesia for the most part), which are precipitated when the water is heated, and form deposits upon the boiler-plates. (See Impurities in Water, p. 59.)

Where the quantity of these salts is not very large (25 grains per gallon), scale preventives may be found effective. The chemicals which either form with the salts other salts soluble in hot water; or, if not, then in the form of soft mud, which does not adhere to the plates, and can be washed out from time to time. The selection of the chemicals depends upon the composition of the water, and it should be made carefully with the feed.

EXAMPLES.—Sulphate of lime scale prevented by carbonate of soda. Sulphate of soda produced is soluble in water; and the carbonate falls down in grains, does not adhere to the plates, and may then be blown out or gathered into sediment collectors. The chemical reaction is—



Sodium phosphate will decompose the sulphates of lime and magnesia.



ty of salts is large, scale preventives are not of much use, of supply must be sought, or the bad water purified to enter the boilers. The damage done to boilers by un-
 urinous.

is obtained by collecting rain, or condensing steam by condensers. The water thus obtained should be mixed with water, or treated with a little alkali, as undiluted, pure water, or, after each periodic cleaning, the bad may be used to put a skin upon the plates.

Iron and magnesia may be precipitated either by heating the water with milk of lime (Porter Clark process) with it, the water

produced by the use of pure water, or by the presence of grease, caused perhaps in the engine-cylinder by the action of oil upon the grease, resulting in the production of fatty acids, which may be neutralized by the addition of lime.

Scale.—The scale which may collect in a 100-H.P. steam-boiler, at the rate of 100 lbs. of water per hour, the water containing different quantities in solution, provided that no water is blown off:

Grains per U. S. gallon:

	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
For 100,000:								
1. 51.42	68.56	85.71	102.86	120	137.1	154.3	171.4	
2. 1.542	2.056	2.571	3.085	3.6	4.11	4.63	5.14	
3. 15.42	20.56	25.71	30.85	36.0	41.1	46.3	51.4	
4. 92.55	123.4	154.3	185.1	216.0	246.8	277.6	308.5	

or has 1200 sq. ft. heating surface, one week's running with water containing 100 grains of solid matter per gallon would make a scale nearly .02 in. thick, if evenly depositing surface, assuming the scale to have a sp. gr. of 1.1. $.02 \times 1200 \times 136 \times 1/12 = 312$ lbs.

Compounds.—The Bavarian Steam-boiler Inspection Board has issued the following:

Equal substances in water can be retained in soluble form by adding caustic soda or lime. This is especially true of boilers having small interior spaces.

It is necessary to have a chemical analysis of the water in order to fully determine the nature and quantity of the preparation to be used for the

ends for removing boiler-scale should be avoided. (A list of compounds manufactured and sold by German firms is then given and analyzed by the association.)

Preparations are either nonsensical or fraudulent, or contain no substances recommended by the association for removing scale, which is colored to conceal its presence, and is mixed with useless or even injurious matter.

As well as giving the compound some strange, fanciful name, simply to deceive the boiler owner and conceal from him the fact that he is buying colored soda or similar substances, for which he is paying a high price.

The Milwaukee & St. P. R. R. uses for the prevention of scale in its boilers an alkaline compound consisting of 3750 gals. of water, 100 lbs. of soda, and 1600 lbs. of 58% soda-ash. Between Milwaukee and St. Paul the water-supply contains from 1 to 4 1/2 lbs. of incrusting matter, principally calcium carbonate and sulphate and mag-

nesia. The amount of compound necessary to prevent the incrusting is 7 pints per 1000 gals. of water. This is really only one pint needed for chemical combination, but the action of the compound is regenerative.

The soda-ash (sodium carbonate) extracts the carbonates of lime and magnesia and precipitates them in a form. The bicarbonate of soda thus formed is destroyed by the heat, and is again changed to soda-ash.

Actually this action might continue indefinitely.

so strong as in the case of the larger tube, so as to avoid as contracting the effective area by deposit from the solution; but of the solution will be just sufficient to neutralize any acidity of (Iron Age, Nov. 2, 1893.)

Use of Zinc.—Zinc is often used in boilers to prevent the action of water on the metal. The action appears to be anodic the iron being one pole of the battery and the zinc being the other; the hydrogen goes to the iron shell and escapes as a gas into the water, and the oxygen goes to the zinc.

On account of this action it is generally believed that zinc prevents corrosion, and that it cannot be harmful to the boiler. Some experiences go to disprove this belief, and in numerous cases not only been of no use, but has even been harmful. In one case a boiler had been troubled with a deposit of scale consisting of organic matter and lime, and zinc was tried as a preventive. The action of the zinc was so obvious that its continued use was discontinued, and frequent opening of the boiler and cleaning out of detached scale. The old scale should be removed and the boiler become clean. Six months later the water supply was changed, it being now obtained from another stream supposed to be free from lime and to contain no organic matter. Two or three months after its introduction the tubes were found to be coated with an obstinate adhesive scale, and of zinc oxide and the organic matter or sediment of the water. The deposit had become so heavy in places as to cause overheating of the plates over the fire. (*The Locomotive*.)

Effect of Deposit on Flues. (Rankine.)—An external carbonaceous kind is often deposited from the flame and smoke spaces in the flues and tubes, and if allowed to accumulate seriously affects the economy of fuel. It is removed from time to time by means of wire brushes. The accumulation of this crust is the product of the fact that in some steamships the consumption of coal per horse power per hour goes on gradually increasing until it reaches a half times its original amount, and sometimes more.

Dangerous Steam-boilers discovered by Inspection.—The Hartford Steam-boiler Inspection and Insurance Co. reports inspectors during 1893 examined 163,528 boilers, inspected 64,000 both internally and externally, subjected 794 to hydrostatic pressure, found 597 unsafe for further use. The whole number of defects was 122,303, of which 12,300 were considered dangerous. A list is given below. (*The Locomotive*, Feb. 1894.)

SUMMARY, BY DEFECTS, FOR THE YEAR 1893

Nature of Defects.	Whole No.	Dangerous	Nature of Defects.	Whole No.
Deposit of sediment.....	9,774	548	Leakage around tubes.....	11
Incrustation and scale.....	18,369	805	Leakage at seams.....	24
Internal grooving.....	1,249	148	Water-gauges defective.....	10
Internal corrosion.....	6,352	397	Blow-offs defective.....	19
External corrosion.....	8,600	539	Deficiency of water.....	1
Defective braces and stays.....	1,968	485	Safety-valves overloaded.....	1
Settings defective.....	3,094	352	Safety-valves defective.....	1
Furnaces out of shape.....	4,575	254	Pressure-gauges defective.....	1
Fractured plates.....	3,532	640	Boilers without pressure-gauges.....	1
Burned plates.....	2,762	325	Unclassified defects.....	1
Blistered plates.....	3,391	164		
Defective rivets.....	17,415	1,569		
Defective heads.....	1,357	334	Total.....	122,303

The above-named company publishes annually a classified list of explosions, compiled chiefly from newspaper reports, showing 200 to 300 explosions take place in the United States every year in 200 to 300 persons, and injuring from 300 to 450. The lists are not to be complete, and may include only a fraction of the actual explosions.

Steam-boilers as Magazines of Explosive Energy.—H. H. Thurston (Trans. A. S. M. E. vol. xiv. in a paper with title, presents calculations showing the stored energy available in steam of various pressures. Considering the plain cylinder as a form and dimensions adopted as a standard by the Hartford

Co., he says: It is 60 inches in diameter, containing 66 3-inch pipes 15 feet long. It has 850 feet of heating and 30 feet of grate heated at 60 horse-power, but is oftener driven up to 75; weighs 400 tons, and contains nearly its own weight of water, but only 21 of steam when under a pressure of 75 pounds per square inch, below its safe allowance. It stores 52,000,000 foot-pounds of energy, which but 4 per cent is in the steam, and this is enough to drive it just about one mile into the air, with an initial velocity of nearly 1000 feet per second.

SAFETY-VALVES.

Calculation of Weight, etc., for Lever Safety-valves.

- W = weight of ball at end of lever, in pounds;
- L = weight of lever itself, in pounds;
- w = weight of valve and spindle, in pounds;
- l = distance between fulcrum and centre of ball, in inches;
- l_1 = " " " " " valve, in inches;
- g = " " " " " gravity of lever, in ft. in.;
- V = area of valve, in square inches;
- P = pressure of steam, in lbs. per sq. in., at which valve will open.

$$\text{Then } PA \times l = W \times L + w \times g + V \times l;$$

$$\text{whence } P = \frac{WL + wg + Vl}{Al};$$

$$W = \frac{PA l - wg - Vl}{L};$$

$$L = \frac{PA l - wg - Vl}{W}.$$

EX.—Diameter of valve, 4"; distance from fulcrum to centre of ball, 12.566; weight of valve, 3 lbs.; weight of lever, 7 lbs.; required the weight of ball to blow-off pressure 80 lbs. per sq. in.; area of 4" valve = 12.566. Then

$$P = \frac{PA l - wg - Vl}{Al} = \frac{80 \times 12.566 \times 4 - 7 \times 15\frac{1}{2} - 3 \times 4}{36} = 108.4 \text{ lbs.}$$

Following rules governing the proportions of lever-valves are given by U. S. Supervisors. The distance from the fulcrum to the valve-stem in no case be less than the diameter of the valve-opening; the length of lever must not be more than ten times the distance from the fulcrum to valve-stem; the width of the bearings of the fulcrum must not be more than three quarters of an inch; the length of the fulcrum-link must not be more than four inches; the lever and fulcrum-link must be made of cast iron or steel, and the knife-edged fulcrum points and the bearings of these points must be made of steel and hardened; the valve must be seated by its spindle, both above and below the ground seat and above the ground supports either made of composition (gun-metal) or bushed with brass; and the spindle must fit loosely in the bearings or supports.

Rules for Area of Safety-valves.

U. S. Supervising Inspectors of Steam-vessels (as amended 1891).—The safety-valves to be attached to marine boilers shall have an area of not less than 1 sq. in. to 2 sq. ft. of the grate surface in the boiler, and the stems of all such safety-valves shall have an angle of inclination of 45° to the line of their axes.

For land-boilers safety-valves shall be required to have an area of not less than 1 sq. in. to 3 sq. ft. of grate surface of the boiler, except as hereinafter provided for water-tube or coil and sectional boilers, and each land-boiler valve shall be supplied with a lever that will raise the valve at a distance of not less than that equal to one eighth the diameter of the valve-opening, and the seats of all such safety-valves shall have an angle of inclination to the centre line of their axes of 45°. All marine safety-valves for water-tube or coil and sectional boilers.

If we combine this formula with the formulae

Flow in lbs. per hour = area of opening in sq. in. \times 51.43 \times abs. pressure, and
Area = diameter of valve \times lift \times 2.35, we obtain the following, which the
author suggests as probably a more correct formula for the discharging
capacity of the ordinary lever safety-valve than either of those above given.

Flow in lbs. per hour = $d \times .0895 \times .0031 d \times 115 \times 2.35 \times 51.43 = d^2 795 - 41.6$.

From which we obtain:

Diameter, inches	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	5	6	7
Flow, lbs. per hour	754	1160	1428	1733	2016	2282	2524	2950	3294	4534
Horse-power	25	37	47	58	67	75	84	98	110	149

the horse-power being taken as an evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per hour.

If we solve the example, above given, of the boiler evaporating 3000 lbs. of water per hour by this table, we find it requires one 7-inch valve, or a 2½ and a 3-inch valve combined. The 7-inch valve has an area of 38.5 sq. in., and the two smaller valves taken together have an area of only 12 sq. in.; another evidence of the absurdity of considering the area of disk as the factor which determined the capacity of the valve.

It is customary in practice not to use safety-valves of greater diameter than 4 in. If a greater diameter is called for by the rule that is adopted, then two or more valves are used instead of one.

Spring-loaded Safety-valves.—Instead of weights, springs are sometimes employed to hold down safety-valves. The calculations are similar to those for lever safety-valves, the tension of the spring corresponding to a given rise being first found by experiment (see Springs, page 31).

The rules of the U. S. Supervisors allow an area of 1 sq. in. of the valve to 3 sq. ft. of grate, in the case of spring-loaded valves, except in water-tube, coil, or sectional boilers, in which 1 sq. in. to 6 sq. ft. of grate is allowed.

Spring-loaded safety-valves are usually of the reactionary or "pop" type, in which the escape of the steam is opposed by a lip above the valve-seat against which the escaping steam reacts, causing the valve to lift higher than the ordinary valve.

A. G. Brown gives the following for the rise, effective area, and quantity of steam discharged per hour by valves of the "pop" or Richardson type. The effective is taken at only 50% of the actual area due to the rise, on account of the obstruction which the lip of the valve offers to the escape of steam.

Dia. valve, in.	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
Lift, inches	.125	.150	.175	.200	.225	.250	.275	.300	.325	.35
Area, sq. in.	.190	.354	.550	.785	1.061	1.375	1.728	2.121	2.553	3.240

Gauge-pres.,

Steam discharged per hour, lbs.

	30 lbs.	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
474	856	1209	1478	1690	1860	2000	2115	2205	2280	2345	2405	2460	2510	2555	2600	2645	2690	2735
669	1209	1478	1690	1860	2000	2115	2205	2280	2345	2405	2460	2510	2555	2600	2645	2690	2735	2780
861	1556	2417	3450	4660	6144	7886	9824	11905	14080	16300	18550	20800	23050	25300	27550	29800	32050	34300
1060	1887	2947	4207	5680	7370	9280	11430	13780	16280	18900	21600	24350	27100	29850	32600	35350	38100	40850
1144	2065	3268	4580	6185	8022	10080	12350	14800	17400	20050	22750	25450	28150	30850	33550	36250	38950	41650
1332	2405	3736	5332	7202	9342	11755	14410	17180	20000	22750	25500	28250	31000	33750	36500	39250	42000	44750
1516	2738	4254	6070	8200	10635	13365	16405	19745	23380	27000	30600	34200	37800	41400	45000	48600	52200	55800
1699	3064	4760	6794	9175	11900	14955	18355	22000	25750	29500	33250	37000	40750	44500	48250	52000	55750	59500
1883	3400	5293	7540	10180	13250	16655	20370	24380	28450	32500	36550	40600	44650	48700	52750	56800	60850	64900
2062	3724	5786	8253	11150	14465	18175	22310	26500	30750	35000	39250	43500	47750	52000	56250	60500	64750	69000

If we take 30 lbs. of steam per hour, at 100 lbs. gauge-pressure = 1 H.P., we have from the above table:

Diameter, inches	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
Horse-power	88	69	107	155	206	277	336	412	490	637

A safety-valve should be capable of discharging a much greater quantity of steam than that corresponding to the rated horse-power of a boiler, and a boiler having ample grate surface and strong draught may generate more than double the quantity of steam its rating calls for.

The Consolidated Safety-valve Co.'s circular gives the following rated capacity of its nickel-seal "pop" safety-valves:

Size, in.	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
Boiler } from	8	10	30	35	60	75	100	125	150	175
H.P. } to	10	15	30	50	75	100	125	150	175	200

The figures in the lower line from 2½ inch to 5 inch inclusive, correspond to the formula H.P. = 50(diameter - 1 inch).

made by Rankine is 1,150 to 1,180 of the number of pounds of water discharged per hour, equals for the above case 27 to 29 sq. in. A communication, July, 1890, gives two other rules:

1 sq. in. disk area for 3 sq. ft. grate, which would give 13.3 sq. in.
1 sq. in. disk area for 1 sq. ft. grate, which would give 39 sq. in.; but the grate-surface were reduced to 30 sq. ft. on account of increased lift, these rules would make the disk area only 10 and 22.5 sq. in., respectively.

Philadelphia rule for 100 lbs. gauge pressure gives a disk area of 0.21 for each sq. ft. of grate area, which would give an area of 8.4 sq. in. for 40 sq. ft. grate, and only 6.3 sq. in. if the grate is reduced to 30 sq. ft. According to the rule this aggregate area would have to be divided between the valves. But if the boiler was driven by forced draught, then the engineer must estimate the area of grate at 1 sq. ft. for each 16 lbs. of fuel per hour.

For this condition the actual grate-surface might be cut down to 400 + 6 sq. ft., and by the rule the combined area of the two safety-valves be only $25 \div 0.21 = 5.25$ sq. in.

Dean's Pocket-book, edition of 1891, gives $\frac{3}{4}$ sq. in. for 1 sq. ft. grate; coming from Weisbach, vol. ii, 1,300 of the heating-surface. This in the considered is $1200 \div 3000 = .4$ sq. ft. or 57.6 sq. in.

Thus have rules which give for the area of safety-valve of the same 100-lb. power boiler results ranging all the way from 5.25 to 57.6 sq. in.

Of the rules above quoted give the area of the disk of the valve as the ratio to be ascertained, and it is this area which is supposed to bear some ratio to the grate-surface, to the heating-surface, to the water evaporated, etc. It is difficult to see why this area has been considered even approximately proportional to these quantities, for with small lifts the area of the opening bears a direct ratio, not to the area of disk, but to the circumference.

For various diameters of valve:

Diameter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Area	.785	3.14	7.07	12.57	19.63	28.27	38.48
Circumference	3.14	6.28	9.42	12.57	15.71	18.85	21.99
Area \div lift of 0.1 in.	.31	.63	.94	1.26	1.57	1.89	2.20
Area to area	.4	.2	.13	.1	.08	.067	.057

Apertures, therefore, are therefore directly proportional to the diameter or to the circumference, but their relation to the area is a varying one. The lift = $\frac{1}{2}$ diameter, then the opening would be equal to the area of disk, for circumference $\times \frac{1}{2}$ diameter = area, but such a lift is far too the actual lift of an ordinary safety-valve.

Correct rule for size of safety-valves should make the product of the area and the lift proportional to the weight of steam to be discharged.

"Logical" method for calculating the size of safety-valve is given in *Locomotive*, July, 1892, based on the assumption that the actual opening will be sufficient to discharge all the steam generated by the boiler. The rule for flow of steam is taken, viz., flow through aperture of one sq. in. lbs. per second = absolute pressure $\div 70$, or in lbs. per hour = 51.43 absolute pressure.

The angle of the seat is 45° , as specified in the rules of the U. S. Superintendence, the area of opening in sq. in. = circumference of the disk \times the lift $\times .71$ being the cosine of 45° ; or diameter of disk \times lift $\times 2.23$.

W. Brown in his book on *The Indicator and its Practical Working* (London, 1894) gives the following as the lift of the ordinary lever safety-valve for 100 lbs. gauge-pressure:

Diam. of valve	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6	inches.
Lift of valve	.0583	.0528	.0507	.0492	.0478	.0463	.0446	.0430	inch.
Lift decreases with increase of steam-pressure; thus for a 4-inch valve:									
Pressure, lbs.	45	65	85	105	115	135	155	175	215
Pressure, lbs.	30	50	70	90	100	120	140	160	200
Lift	.1034	.0775	.0690	.0517	.0478	.0418	.0365	.0327	.0296

Effective area of opening Mr. Brown takes at 70% of the rise multiple of circumference.

Approximate formula corresponding to Mr. Brown's figures for diam. between 2½ and 6 in. and gauge-pressures between 70 and 200 lbs. is

$$= (.0009 - .0001d) \times \frac{115}{\text{abs. pressure}}, \text{ in which } d = \text{diam.}$$

If we combine this formula with the formula
 Flow in lbs. per hour = area of opening in sq. in. \times 51.43 = area pres.
 Area = diameter of valve \times lift \times 2.33, we obtain the following.
 author suggests as probably a more correct formula for the dis-
 capacity of the ordinary lever safety-valve than either of those above.
 Flow in lbs. per hour = $d \times .0003 - .0001d^2 \times 115 \times 2.33 \times 51.43 = d^3$
 From which we obtain :

Diameter, inches ...	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	5
Flow, lbs. per hour...	754	1100	1428	1793	2016	2283	2524	2960
Horse-power.....	25	37	47	58	67	76	84	98

the horse-power being taken as an evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per

If we solve the example, above given, of the boiler evaporating 200 lbs. of water per hour by this table, we find it requires one 7-inch valve, and a 3-inch valve combined. The 7-inch valve has an area of 38.48 sq. in. and the two smaller valves taken together have an area of only 7.07 sq. in. another evidence of the absurdity of considering the area of the factor which determined the capacity of the valve.

It is customary in practice not to use safety-valves of greater diameter than 4 in. If a greater diameter is called for by the rule that is then two or more valves are used instead of one.

Spring-loaded Safety-valves.—Instead of weights, sometimes employed to hold down safety-valves. The calculation is similar to those for lever safety-valves, the tension of the spring causing to a given rise being first found by experiment (see Springs, page 725).

The rules of the U. S. Supervisors allow an area of 1 sq. in. of grate to 3 sq. ft. of grate, in the case of spring-loaded valves, except in water-coil, or sectional boilers, in which 1 sq. in. to 6 sq. ft. of grate is allowed.

Spring-loaded safety-valves are usually of the reactionary or "pop" type, in which the escape of the steam is opposed by a lip above the valve, against which the escaping steam reacts, causing the valve to rise more than the ordinary valve.

A. G. Brown gives the following for the rise, effective area, and of steam discharged per hour by valves of the "pop" or Richardson type. The effective is taken at only 50% of the actual area due to the rise, on account of the obstruction which the lip of the valve offers to the escape of steam.

Dia. valve, in.	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½
Lift, inches.	.125	.150	.175	.200	.225	.250	.275	.300
Area, sq. in.	.196	.354	.550	.785	1.061	1.375	1.768	2.121

Gauge-pres.,	Steam discharged per hour, lbs.								
20 lbs.	474	856	1330	1897	2503	3125	4178	5123	6023
30	669	1209	1878	2690	3630	4695	6001	7342	8623
40	861	1556	2417	3420	4660	6144	7960	9821	11723
50	1050	1907	2947	4207	5690	7570	9860	11965	14123
60	1144	2065	3208	4580	6185	8222	10800	12753	14923
70	1332	2405	3736	5332	7302	9742	12735	15140	17723
80	1516	2738	4251	6070	8200	10913	14305	16605	19223
90	1696	3064	4760	6794	9175	12200	16075	18605	21723
100	1883	3400	5283	7540	10180	13450	17805	20700	24223
120	2062	3724	5786	8258	11150	14805	19475	22500	26723

If we take 30 lbs. of steam per hour, at 100 lbs. gauge pressure we have from the above table:

Diameter, inches...	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5
Horse-power.....	38	60	107	153	206	277	330	412	490

A safety-valve should be capable of discharging a much greater amount of steam than that corresponding to the rated horse-power of a boiler having ample grate surface and strong draught may require than double the quantity of steam its rating calls for.

The Consolidated Safety-valve Co.'s circular gives the following capacity of its nickel-seal "pop" safety-valves:

Size, in.	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5
Boiler 1 from	8	10	20	35	60	75	100	125	150
H. P. 1 to	10	15	30	50	75	100	125	150	175

The figure for the boiler is for a line from 2 inch to 5 inch. Archival. The figure for the H. P. is for a diameter of 1 inch.

THE INJECTOR.

Equation of the Injector.

the number of pounds of steam used;
 number of pounds of water lifted and forced into the boiler;
 height in feet of a column of water, equivalent to the absolute pressure in the boiler;
 height in feet the water is lifted to the injector;
 temperature of the water before it enters the injector;
 temperature of the water after leaving the injector;
 total heat above 32° F. in one pound of steam in the boiler, in unit units;
 lost work in friction and the equivalent lost work due to radiation and lost heat;
 mechanical equivalent of heat.

$$H - (t_2 - 32^\circ) = W(t_2 - t_1) + \frac{(W + S)h + Wh_0 + L}{778}$$

valent formula, neglecting $Wh_0 + L$ as small, is

$$S = \left[W(t_2 - t_1) + \frac{W}{d} \cdot P \cdot \frac{144}{778} \right] \frac{1}{H - (t_2 - 32^\circ)}$$

$$\text{or } S = \frac{W(t_2 - t_1)d + .1851p}{H - (t_2 - 32^\circ)d - .1851p}$$

W = weight of 1 cu. ft. of water at temperature t_2 ; p = absolute steam, lbs. per sq. in.

For finding the proper sectional area for the narrowest part of the jet given as follows by Rankine, S. E. p. 477:

$$\text{In square inches} = \frac{\text{cubic feet per hour gross feed-water,}}{800 \sqrt{\text{pressure in atmospheres}}}$$

Important condition which must be fulfilled in order that the injector is that the supply of water must be sufficient to condense the steam at the temperature of the supply or feed-water is higher, the water required for condensing purposes will be greater. The table below gives the calculated value of the maximum ratio of water to steam, and the values obtained on actual trial, also the highest admission temperature of the feed-water as shown by theory and the highest found by trial with several injectors.

MAXIMUM RATIO WATER TO STEAM.				Gauge pres- sure, pounds per sq. in.	MAXIMUM TEMPERATURE OF FEED-WATER.							
Calculated from Theory.	Actual Expe- riment.				Theoretical.		Experimental Results.					
	H.	P.	M.		Temp. discharge 190°	Temp. discharge 210°	H.	P.	M.	S.		
36.5	30.9	10	112°	113°	113°	113°	130°	130°	130°	130°
25.6	22.5	19.9	21.5	20	112°	113°	113°	113°	130°	130°	130°	134°
31.9	19.0	17.2	19.0	30	112°	113°	113°	113°	130°	130°	130°	134°
17.87	15.4	15.0	15.86	40	112°	113°	113°	113°	130°	130°	130°	134°
16.2	13.3	14.0	13.3	50	112°	113°	113°	113°	130°	130°	130°	134°
11.7	11.2	11.2	12.6	60	114°	113°	113°	113°	115°	123°	123°	130°
14.7	12.3	11.7	12.9	70	109°	113°	113°	113°	117°	123°	123°	131°
12.9	11.4	11.2	...	80	105°	111°	111°	111°	118°	123°	123°	131°
12.1	90	98°	109°	109°	109°	132°
11.5	100	85°	95°	95°	95°	132°
				120	87°	117°	117°	117°	134°
				150	77°	107°	107°	107°	134°

Temperature of delivery above 412°. Waste-valve closed.

For inspirator; P, Park injector; M, Metronolitan in

STEAM SEPARATORS.

If moist steam flowing at a high velocity in a pipe has its direction suddenly changed, the particles of water are by their momentum reversed in their original direction against the bend in the pipe or wall of the pipe in which the change of direction takes place. By making proper provision for drawing off the water thus separated the steam may be of greater or less extent.

For long steam-pipes a large drum should be provided near the end for trapping the water condensed in the pipe. A drum 3 feet in diameter and 3 feet high, has given good results in separating the water of condensation from a steam-pipe 10 inches diameter and 800 feet long.

Efficiency of Steam Separators.—Prof. R. C. Carpenter made a series of tests of six steam separators, furnishing them with steam containing different percentages of moisture, and testing the steam before entering and after passing the separator. A condenser was used for the principal results is given below.

Make of Separator.	Test with Steam of about 10% of Moisture.			Tests with Varying Steam.			
	Quality of Steam before.	Quality of Steam after.	Efficiency per cent.	Quality of Steam before.	Quality of Steam after.		
B	87.0%	98.8%	90.8	66.1 to 97.5%	97.8 to 99.0		
A	90.1	98.0	90.0	51.9 "	98 "	97.9 "	99.1
D	89.6	95.8	89.4	72.2 "	95.1	95.5 "	98.6
C	90.6	93.7	93.0	67.1 "	96.8	93.5 "	98.4
E	89.4	90.2	15.5	88.8 "	98.1	93.3 "	98.2
F	88.9	88.1	28.8	70.4 "	97.7	94.1 "	97.8

Conclusions from the tests were: 1. That no relation existed between the volume of the several separators and their efficiency.

2. No marked decrease in pressure was shown by any of the separators, the most being 1.5 lbs. in E.

3. Although changed direction, reduced velocity, and perhaps baffles are necessary for good separation, still some means must be provided to lead the water out of the current of the steam.

The high efficiency obtained from B and A was largely due to the fact that in B the interior surfaces are corrugated and thus catch the water out of the steam and readily lead it to the bottom.

In A, as soon as the water falls or is precipitated from the steam it comes in contact with the perforated diaphragm through which it runs a short space below, where it is not subjected to the action of the steam.

In D, the next in efficiency, this is accomplished by means of a second diaphragm which throws the water back into the corners out of the current of steam.

DETERMINATION OF THE MOISTURE IN STEAM CALORIMETERS.

In all boiler tests it is important to ascertain the quality of the steam, i.e., 1st, whether the steam is "saturated" or contains the maximum of heat due to the pressure according to standard experiments; 2d, whether the quantity of heat is deficient, so that the steam is wet; and 3d, whether the heat is in excess and the steam superheated. The best method for determining the quality of the steam is undoubtedly that employed by Prof. Thurston, which tested the boilers at the American Institute Fair, 1871-2, of which Prof. Thurston was chairman, he, condensing the steam evaporated by the boiler by means of a surface condenser, with cooling water, and taking its temperature as it enters and as it leaves the condenser; but this plan cannot always be adopted.

A substitute for this method is the barrel calorimeter, which is a simple and fairly accurate instrument may generally be used to give results within two per cent. of accuracy that is, a sample of steam, given the apparent result of 2% of moisture may contain as much as 4 and 1%. This calorimeter is described as follows: A cylindrical vessel is taken having a perforated which pipe runs into the steam pipe, and led by a hose, thoroughly tested, to a glass of water, which is set upon a platform

with a cock or valve for allowing the water to flow to waste, and a propeller for stirring the water.

In the calorimeter the barrel is filled with water, the weight and temperature ascertained, steam blown through the hose outside the barrel (the hose is thoroughly warmed, when the hose is suddenly thrust into the barrel and the propeller operated until the temperature of the water is at the desired point, say about 110° usually). The hose is then quickly, the temperature noted, and the weight again taken. An error of 1/10 of a pound in weighing the condensed steam, or an error of 1° in the temperature, will cause an error of over 1% in the calculation of moisture. See Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 203.

Calculation of the percentage of moisture is made as below:

$$Q = \frac{1}{H - T} \left[\frac{W}{w} (h_1 - h) - (T - h_1) \right].$$

Quantity of the steam, dry saturated steam being unity.

Latent heat of 1 lb. of steam at the observed pressure.

" " " " water at the temperature of steam of the observed pressure.

" " " " condensing water, original.

" " " " " final.

Weight of condensing water, corrected for water-equivalent of the apparatus.

Weight of the steam condensed.

Percentage of moisture = $1 - Q$.

Water than unity, the steam is superheated, and the degrees of superheat = $2.0833 (H - T) (Q - 1)$.

Quality of Obtaining a Correct Sample.—Recent experiments by B. S. Jacobs, Trans. A. S. M. E., xvi. 1047, show that it is practically impossible to obtain a true average sample of the steam flowing in a pipe. Accurate determinations of all the steam made by the boiler should pass through a separator, the water separated should be weighed, and a water test made of the steam just after it has passed the separator.

Calorimeters.—Instead of the open barrel in which the steam is condensed, a coil acting as a surface condenser may be used, which is placed in the barrel, the water in coil and barrel being weighed separately. Description of an apparatus of this kind designed by the author, which is found to give results with a probable error not exceeding 1/2 per cent (see Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 204). This calorimeter may be used continuously, if desired, instead of intermittently. In this case a continuous flow of condensing water into and out of the barrel must be established, the temperature of inflow and outflow and of the condensed steam noted at short intervals of time.

Throttling Calorimeter.—For percentages of moisture not exceeding 10 per cent the throttling calorimeter is most useful and convenient and remarkably accurate. In this instrument the steam which reaches the pipe is throttled by an orifice 1/16-inch diameter, opening into a chamber which has an outlet to the atmosphere. The steam in this chamber is at a pressure reduced nearly or quite to the pressure of the atmosphere. The total heat in the steam before throttling causes the steam in the chamber to be superheated more or less according to whether the steam before throttling was dry or contained moisture. The only observations required are those of the temperature and pressure of the steam on both sides of the orifice.

The author's formula for reducing the observations of the throttling calorimeter is as follows (Experiments on Throttling Calorimeters, Am.

Eng. 4, 1892): $w = 100 \times \frac{H - h - K(T - t)}{L}$, in which w = percent

moisture in the steam; H = total heat, and L = latent heat of steam in the pipe; h = total heat due the pressure in the discharge side of the calorimeter, = 1146.6 at atmospheric pressure; K = specific heat of saturated steam; T = temperature of the throttled and superheated steam in the calorimeter; t = temperature due the pressure in the calorimeter at atmospheric pressure.

When at 0.48 and the pressure in the discharge side of the calorimeter is atmospheric pressure, the formula becomes

$$w = 100 \times \frac{H - 1146.6 - 0.48(T - 212^\circ)}{L}$$

From the following table is calculated :

MOISTURE IN STEAM—DETERMINATIONS BY THROTTLING CALORIMETER.

Degree of Superheating $T - 212^{\circ}$.	Gauge-pressures.									
	5	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	75	80
	Per Cent of Moisture in Steam.									
0°	0.51	0.20	1.54	2.06	2.50	2.90	3.24	3.56	3.71	3.86
10°	0.01	0.39	1.02	1.54	1.97	2.36	2.71	3.02	3.17	3.32
20°51	1.02	1.45	1.83	2.17	2.48	2.63	2.77
30°00	.50	.93	1.30	1.64	1.94	2.09	2.23
40°39	.77	1.10	1.40	1.55	1.69
50°24	.57	.87	1.01	1.15
60°08	.33	.47	.60
70°06
Dif. p. deg.	.0509	.0507	.0515	.0521	.0526	.0531	.0535	.0539	.0541	.0542

Degree of Superheating $T - 212^{\circ}$.	Gauge-pressures.									
	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190
	Per Cent of Moisture in Steam.									
0°	4.30	4.03	4.85	5.08	5.29	5.40	5.68	5.87	6.05	6.23
10°	3.84	4.08	4.29	4.62	4.78	4.93	5.19	5.30	5.48	5.65
20°	3.29	3.52	3.74	3.96	4.17	4.37	4.56	4.74	4.91	5.08
30°	2.74	2.97	3.18	3.41	3.61	3.80	3.99	4.17	4.34	4.51
40°	2.19	2.42	2.63	2.85	3.03	3.24	3.43	3.61	3.78	3.94
50°	1.64	1.87	2.08	2.29	2.49	2.68	2.87	3.04	3.21	3.37
60°	1.09	1.32	1.52	1.74	1.93	2.12	2.30	2.48	2.64	2.81
70°	.85	.77	.97	1.18	1.38	1.56	1.74	1.91	2.07	2.23
80°	.00	.22	.42	.63	.83	1.00	1.18	1.34	1.50	1.66
90°07	.26	.44	.61	.78	.94	1.09
100°05	.21	.37	.52
110°
Dif. p. deg.	.0549	.0551	.0554	.0556	.0559	.0561	.0564	.0566	.0568	.0570

Separating Calorimeters.—For percentages of moisture the range of the throttling calorimeter the separating calorimeter which is simply a steam separator on a small scale. An improved this calorimeter is described by Prof. Carpenter in *Power*, Feb. 1889. For fuller information on various kinds of calorimeters, see Prof. Peabody, Prof. Carpenter, and Mr. Barrus in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xi, xii, 1889 to 1891; Appendix to Report of Com. on Boilers, A. S. M. E., vol. vi, 1884; Circular of Schaeffer & Rudenberg, S. I. rimeters, Throttling and Separating, 1894.

Identification of Dry Steam by Appearance of a Prof. Denton (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. x) found that jets of steam a noticeable change of appearance to the eye when steam varies from the condition of saturation either in the direction of wetness or heating.

If a jet of steam flow from a boiler into the atmosphere under circumstances that very little loss of heat occurs through radiation, etc., the transparent, close to the orifice, or he even a grayish white steam may be assumed to be so nearly dry that the portable calorimeter will be capable of measuring the amount of water in it. If it be strongly white, the amount of water may be considerable, but beyond this a calorimeter only can determine moisture.

common brass pet-cock may be used as an orifice, but it should, if possible, be set into the steam-drum of the boiler and never be placed further from the latter than 4 feet, and then only when the intermediate reservoir pipe is well covered.

Final Amount of Moisture in Steam Escaping from a boiler.—In the common forms of horizontal tubular land boilers and tube boilers with ample horizontal drums, and supplied with water from substances likely to cause foaming, the moisture in the steam is not generally exceed 2% unless the boiler is overdriven or the water is carried too high.

CHIMNEYS.

Chimney Draught Theory.—The commonly accepted theory of chimney draught, based on Peclet's and Rankine's hypotheses (see Rankine, p. 11) is discussed by Prof. De Volson Wood in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xi, and is represented the law of draught by the formula

$$h = \frac{v^3}{2g} \left(1 + G + \frac{fl}{m} \right),$$

in which h is the "head," defined as such a height of hot gases as, if added to the column of gases in the chimney, would produce the same pressure at the furnace as a column of outside air, of the same area of base, and a height equal to that of the chimney;
 v is the required velocity of gases in the chimney;
 G is a constant to represent the resistance to the passage of air through the coal;
 l the length of the flues and chimney;
 m the mean hydraulic depth or the area of a cross-section divided by the perimeter;
 f a constant depending upon the nature of the surfaces over which the gases pass, whether smooth, or sooty and rough.

Rankine's formula (Steam Engine, p. 288), derived by giving certain values to the constants (so-called) in Peclet's formula, is

$$h = \frac{\tau_0}{\tau_1} (0.0007) H - H = \left(0.99 \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2} - 1 \right) H;$$

in which H = the height of the chimney in feet;

τ_0 = 493° F., absolute (temperature of melting ice);

τ_1 = absolute temperature of the gases in the chimney;

τ_2 = absolute temperature of the external air.

Prof. Wood derives from this a still more complex formula which gives the height of chimney required for burning a given quantity of coal per sq. ft. and from it he calculates the following table, showing the height of chimney required to burn respectively 24, 30, and 36 lbs. of coal per square ft. of grate per hour, for the several temperatures of the chimney gases

Exhaust Air, ° F.	Chimney Gas.		Coal per sq. ft. of grate per hour, lbs.		
	τ_1 Absolute.	Temp. Fahr.	24	30	36
			Height H , feet.		
500°	700	239	250.9	157.6	67.8
400°	800	339	174.4	115.8	55.7
300°	900	439	149.1	100.0	48.7
200°	1000	539	148.8	98.9	48.2
100°	1100	639	152.0	100.9	49.1
50°	1200	739	159.9	105.7	51.2
0°	1300	839	168.8	111.0	
	1400	939	206.5	132.2	

Rankine's formula gives a maximum draught when $t = 1175^\circ$, or when the outside temperature is 60° . Prof. Wood says: "This result is a fixed value, our departures from theory in practice do not affect the result largely. There is, then, in a properly constructed chimney, necessarily, a temperature giving a maximum draught," and that temperature far from the value given by Rankine, although in special cases it may be or 75° more or less."

All attempts to base a practical formula for chimneys upon the theoretical formula of Peclet and Rankine have failed on account of the impossibility of assigning correct values to the so called "constants" G and H . (See Trans. A. S. M. E., xi, 984.)

Force or Intensity of Draught.—The force of the draught is the difference between the weight of the column of hot gases in the chimney and the weight of a column of the external air of the same height. It is measured by a draught-gauge, usually a U-tube partly filled with oil or mercury connected by a pipe to the interior of the flue, and the other end to the external air.

If D is the density of the air outside, d the density of the hot gases in lbs. per cubic foot, h the height of the chimney in feet, and W the force for converting pressure in lbs. per sq. ft. into inches of water column, the formula for the force of draught expressed in inches of water is,

$$F = .192h(D - d).$$

The density varies with the absolute temperature (see Rankine):

$$d = \frac{T_0}{T_1} 0.084; \quad D = 0.0807 \frac{T_0}{T_2}$$

where T_0 is the absolute temperature at 32° F., $T_1 = 493$, T_2 the absolute temperature of the chimney gases and T_3 that of the external air. Substituting these values the formula for force of draught becomes

$$F = .192h \left(\frac{39}{T_1} - \frac{41}{T_2} \right) = h \left(\frac{7.64}{T_2} - \frac{7.93}{T_1} \right)$$

To find the maximum intensity of draught for any given chimney heated column being 600° F. and the external air 60° , multiply 22.5 above gauge in feet by .0073, and the product is the draught in inches.

Height of Water Column Due to Unbalanced Pressure Chimney 100 Feet High. (The Locomotive, 1884.)

Temperature of the External Air—Barometer, 14.7 lbs. per sq. in.

Temp. in the Chimney.	0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°
200	.453	.419	.384	.353	.321	.292	.269	.234	.200	.166
220	.468	.433	.398	.368	.335	.306	.282	.246	.212	.177
240	.482	.448	.411	.381	.348	.319	.294	.258	.224	.188
260	.495	.461	.424	.393	.360	.331	.306	.269	.235	.198
280	.508	.474	.437	.405	.372	.343	.318	.281	.247	.210
300	.521	.487	.449	.417	.384	.355	.330	.293	.259	.221
320	.533	.500	.462	.430	.396	.367	.342	.305	.271	.233
340	.546	.512	.474	.442	.408	.379	.354	.317	.283	.245
360	.558	.525	.487	.454	.420	.391	.366	.329	.295	.257
380	.570	.537	.499	.466	.432	.403	.378	.341	.307	.269
400	.582	.549	.511	.478	.444	.415	.390	.353	.319	.281
420	.594	.561	.523	.490	.456	.427	.402	.365	.331	.293
440	.606	.573	.535	.502	.468	.439	.414	.377	.343	.305
460	.618	.585	.547	.514	.480	.451	.426	.389	.355	.317
480	.630	.597	.559	.526	.492	.463	.438	.401	.367	.329
500	.642	.609	.571	.538	.504	.475	.450	.413	.379	.341

* Much confusion to students of the theory of chimneys has resulted from their understanding the words maximum draught to mean maximum velocity or pressure of draught, as measured by a draught gauge. It is the maximum quantity or weight of gases passed up the chimney. The maximum intensity is found only with maximum temperature, and the temperature reaches about 622° F. the density of the gas decreases faster than its velocity increases, so that the weight is a maximum. This is shown by Rankine.—W. K.

any other height of chimney than 100 ft. the height of water column deduced by simple proportion, the height of water column being directly as the height of chimney.

Calculations have been made for a chimney 100 ft. high, with various diameters outside and inside of the flue, and on the supposition that the temperature of the chimney is uniform from top to bottom. This is the case in which all calculations respecting the draught power of chimneys have been made by Rankine and other writers, but it is very far from the case in most cases. The difference will be shown by comparing the results of the draught-gauge with the table given. In one case a chimney 122 ft. showed a temperature at the base of 320°, and at the top of 230°.

In his "Treatise on Heat," gives the following table:

NET POWERS OF CHIMNEYS, ETC., WITH THE INTERNAL AIR AT 552°, AND THE EXTERNAL AIR AT 62°, AND WITH THE DAMPER NEARLY CLOSED.

Draught Power in lbs. of water.	Theoretical Velocity in feet per second.		Height of Chimney in feet.	Draught Power in lbs. of water.	Theoretical Velocity in feet per second.	
	Cold Air Entering.	Hot Air at Exit.			Cold Air Entering.	Hot Air at Exit.
.073	17.8	35.6	80	.585	50.0	101.2
.146	25.3	50.6	90	.657	53.7	107.4
.219	31.0	62.0	100	.730	56.5	113.0
.292	35.7	71.4	120	.876	63.0	124.0
.365	40.0	80.0	150	1.035	68.8	138.6
.438	43.8	87.6	175	1.177	74.9	149.6
.511	47.8	94.6	200	1.460	80.0	160.0

Rate of Combustion Due to Height of Chimney.—

Trowbridge's "Heat and Heat Engines" gives the following table showing the rate of combustion for producing certain rates of combustion per sq. section of the chimney. It may be approximately true for anthracite grate and large sizes, but greater heights than are given in the table would be required to secure the given rates of combustion with small sizes of grate, and for bituminous coal smaller heights will suffice if the coal is fairly free from ash—5% or less.

Lbs. of Coal Burned per Hour per Sq. Ft. of Section of Chimney.	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Sq. Ft. of Grate, the Ratio of Grate to Section of Chimney being 8 to 1.	Heights in feet.	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Hour per Sq. Ft. of Section of Chimney.	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Sq. Ft. of Grate, the Ratio of Grate to Section of Chimney being 8 to 1.
60	7.5	70	125	16.8
68	8.5	75	131	16.4
76	9.5	80	135	16.2
84	10.5	85	139	17.4
93	11.6	90	144	18.0
99	12.4	95	148	18.5
105	13.1	100	152	19.0
111	13.8	105	155	19.5
116	14.5	110	160	20.0
121	15.1			

Trowbridge's rule for rate of combustion effected by a given height of chimney, as A. S. M. E., xi 991 is: Subtract 1 from twice the square root of height, and the result is the rate of combustion in pounds per square foot per hour, for anthracite. Or rate = $2\sqrt{h} - 1$, in which h is the height in feet. This rule gives the following:

h = 50	60	70	80	90	100	110	125	150	175	200
13.19	14.49	15.73	16.89	17.97	19	19.97	21.36	23.49	25.45	27.25

These agree closely with Trowbridge's table given above. In

tice the high rates of combustion for high chimneys given by the formulae are not generally obtained, for the reason that with high chimneys there are usually long horizontal flues, serving many boilers, and the friction and the interference of currents from the several boilers are apt to cause the intensity of draught in the branch flues leading to each boiler to be much less than that at the base of the chimney. The draught of each boiler is usually restricted by a damper and by bends in the gas passages. In a battery of several boilers connected to a chimney 150 ft. high, the author found a draught of $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch water-column at the boiler nearest the chimney, and only $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch at the boiler farthest away. The first boiler was wasting fuel, on too high temperature of the chimney-gases, 900°, having too large a grate-surface for the draught, and the last boiler was working below its rated capacity and with poor economy, on account of insufficient draught.

The effect of changing the length of the flue leading into a chimney 60 ft. high and 2 ft. 9 in. square is given in the following table, from Box's "Heat":

Length of Flue in feet.	Horse-power.	Length of Flue in feet.	Horse-power.
50	107.6	800	56.1
100	100.0	1,000	51.4
200	85.3	1,500	43.5
400	70.8	2,000	38.2
600	62.5	3,000	31.7

The temperature of the gases in this chimney was assumed to be 550° F., and that of the atmosphere 65°.

High Chimneys not Necessary.—Chimneys above 150 ft. in height are very costly, and their increased cost is rarely justified by increased efficiency. In recent practice it has become somewhat common to build two or more smaller chimneys instead of one large one. A notable example is the Spreckels Sugar Refinery in Philadelphia, where three separate chimneys are used for one boiler-plant of 7500 H.P. The three chimneys are said to have cost several thousand dollars less than a single chimney of their combined capacity would have cost. Very tall chimneys have been characterized by one writer as "monuments to the folly of their builders."

Heights of Chimney required for Different Fuels.—The minimum height necessary varies with the fuel, wood requiring the least, then good bituminous coal, and fine sizes of anthracite the greatest. It also varies with the character of the boiler—the smaller and more circumscribed the gas-passages the higher the stack required; also with the number of boilers, a single boiler requiring less height than several that discharge into a horizontal flue. No general rule can be given.

SIZE OF CHIMNEYS.

The formula given below, and the table calculated therefrom for chimneys up to 95 in. diameter and 200 ft. high, were first published by the author in 1884 (Trans. A. S. M. E. vi, 81). They have met with such approval since that date by engineers who have used them, and have been frequently published in boiler-makers' catalogues and elsewhere. The table is now extended to cover chimneys up to 12 ft. diameter and 300 ft. high. The sum corresponding to the given commercial horse-powers are believed to be ample for all cases in which the draught areas through the boiler-flues and connections are sufficient, say not less than 20% greater than the area of the chimney, and in which the draught between the boilers and chimney is not checked by long horizontal passages and right-angled bends.

Note that the figures in the table correspond to a coal consumption of 2 lbs. of coal per horse-power per hour. This liberal allowance is made to cover the contingencies of poor coal being used, and of the boilers being driven beyond their rated capacity. In large plants, with economical boilers and engines, good fuel and other favorable conditions, which will reduce the maximum rate of coal consumption at any one time to less than 2 lbs. per H. P. per hour, the figures in the table may be multiplied by the ratio of the maximum expected coal consumption per H. P. per hour. Thus, under conditions which make the maximum coal consumption only 2.5 lbs. per hour, the chimney 300 ft. high \times 12 ft. diameter should be sufficient for 2500 \times 2 = 12,510 horse-power. The formula is based on the following data

Diam. inches.	Area, sq. ft.	Effective Area, $E = A - 0.6 \frac{d^2}{L}$, sq. ft.	Height of Chimney.												Equivalent Square Side of Square $\frac{1}{2} E + 4$ inches.	
			50 ft.	60 ft.	70 ft.	80 ft.	90 ft.	100 ft.	110 ft.	125 ft.	150 ft.	175 ft.	200 ft.	225 ft.		250 ft.
18	1.77	1.67	25	27	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
21	3.41	3.08	35	38	41	44	46	48	50	52	54	56	58	60	62	64
24	5.14	4.62	46	50	54	58	61	64	67	70	73	76	79	82	85	88
27	6.98	6.36	58	63	68	73	77	81	85	89	93	97	101	105	109	113
30	8.91	8.18	71	77	83	89	94	99	104	109	114	119	124	129	134	139
33	10.94	10.00	84	91	98	105	112	119	126	133	140	147	154	161	168	175
36	13.07	12.00	98	106	114	122	130	138	146	154	162	170	178	186	194	202
39	15.29	14.10	111	120	129	138	147	156	165	174	183	192	201	210	219	228
42	17.60	16.30	125	135	145	155	165	175	185	195	205	215	225	235	245	255
45	20.00	18.60	139	150	161	172	183	194	205	216	227	238	249	259	270	281
48	22.49	21.00	154	166	178	190	202	214	226	238	250	262	274	286	298	310
51	25.07	23.50	169	182	195	208	221	234	247	259	272	285	298	311	324	337
54	27.74	26.00	184	200	214	228	242	256	270	284	298	312	326	340	354	368
57	30.50	28.60	200	217	232	247	262	277	292	307	322	337	352	367	382	397
60	33.35	31.30	216	234	250	266	282	298	314	330	346	362	378	394	410	426
63	36.29	34.10	233	252	269	286	303	320	337	354	371	388	405	422	439	456
66	39.32	37.00	250	270	288	306	324	342	360	378	396	414	432	450	468	486
69	42.44	39.90	268	289	308	327	346	365	384	403	422	441	460	479	498	517
72	45.65	42.90	286	308	328	348	368	388	408	428	448	468	488	508	528	548
75	48.96	46.00	305	328	349	370	391	412	433	454	475	496	517	538	559	580
78	52.37	49.30	324	348	370	392	414	436	458	480	502	524	546	568	590	612
81	55.88	52.70	344	369	392	415	438	461	484	507	530	553	576	599	622	645
84	59.49	56.20	364	390	414	438	462	486	510	534	558	582	606	630	654	678
87	63.20	59.80	385	412	437	462	487	512	537	562	587	612	637	662	687	712
90	67.01	63.50	406	434	460	486	512	538	564	590	616	642	668	694	720	746
93	70.92	67.30	428	457	484	511	538	565	592	619	646	673	700	727	754	781
96	74.93	71.20	450	480	508	536	564	592	620	648	676	704	732	760	788	816
99	79.04	75.20	473	504	533	562	591	620	649	678	707	736	765	794	823	852
102	83.26	79.30	496	528	558	588	618	648	678	708	738	768	798	828	858	888
105	87.59	83.50	520	553	584	615	646	677	708	739	770	801	832	863	894	925
108	92.02	87.80	544	578	609	640	671	702	733	764	795	826	857	888	919	950
111	96.55	92.20	569	604	636	667	698	729	760	791	822	853	884	915	946	977
114	101.18	96.70	594	630	663	695	727	759	791	823	855	887	919	951	983	1015
117	105.91	101.30	620	657	690	722	754	786	818	850	882	914	946	978	1010	1042
120	110.74	106.00	646	684	718	751	784	817	850	883	916	949	982	1015	1048	1081

For pounds of coal burned per hour for any given size of chimney, multiply the figures in the table by 5.

1. The draught power of the chimney varies as the square of height.

2. The retarding of the ascending gases by friction may be considered equivalent to a diminution of the area of the chimney, or to a lining of the chimney by a layer of gas which has no velocity. The thickness of the lining is assumed to be 3 inches for all chimneys, or the diminution equal to the perimeter $\times \frac{1}{2}$ inches (neglecting the overlapping of the lining). Let D = diameter in feet, A = area, and E = effective area in square feet.

$$\text{For square chimneys, } E = 1^2 - \frac{8D}{12} = A - \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{A}.$$

$$\text{For round chimneys, } E = \frac{\pi}{4} \left(1^2 - \frac{8D}{12} \right) = A - 0.591 \sqrt{A}.$$

For simplifying calculations, the coefficient of \sqrt{A} may be taken for both square and round chimneys, and the formula becomes

$$E = A - 0.6 \sqrt{A}.$$

3. The power varies directly as this effective area E .

4. A chimney should be proportioned so as to be capable of giving draught to cause the boiler to develop much more than its rated power, in case of emergencies, or to cause the combustion of 5 lbs of fuel per horse-power of boiler per hour.

5. The power of the chimney varying directly as the effective area, as the square root of the height, H , the formula for horse-power of a given size of chimney will take the form $H.P. = C\sqrt{E} \sqrt{H}$, in which constant, the average value of which, obtained by plotting the results obtained from numerous examples in practice, the author finds to be

The formula for horse-power then is

$$H.P. = 3.33 E \sqrt{H}, \text{ or } H.P. = 3.33 (A - .6 \sqrt{A}) \sqrt{H}.$$

If the horse-power of boiler is given, to find the size of chimney, being assumed,

$$E = \frac{0.3 H.P.}{\sqrt{H}}; \quad A = 0.6 \sqrt{A}.$$

For round chimneys, diameter of chimney = diam. of $E + 4''$.

For square chimneys, side of chimney = $\sqrt{E} + 4''$.

If effective area E is taken in square feet, the diameter in inches is $13.54 \sqrt{E} + 4''$, and the side of a square chimney in inches is $11.54 \sqrt{E} + 4''$.

If horse-power is given and area assumed, the height $H = \left(\frac{0.3 H.P.}{E} \right)^2$.

In proportioning chimneys the height is generally first assumed, consideration to the heights of surrounding buildings or hills, the proposed chimney, the length of horizontal flues, the character of the fuel used, etc., and then the diameter required for the assumed height and horse-power is calculated by the formula or taken from the table.

The Protection of Tall Chimney-shafts from Lightning.

C. Molyneux and J. M. Wood (*Industries*, March 28, 1884) recommend for tall chimneys the use of a coronal or heavy band at the top of each with copper points 1 ft. in height at intervals of 2 ft. throughout the fence. The points should be gilded to prevent oxidation. The proved form of conductor is a copper tape about $\frac{3}{4}$ in. by $\frac{1}{2}$ in. weighing 6 ozs. per ft. If iron is used it should weigh not less than 1 lb. per ft. There must be no insulation, and the copper tape should be fastened to the chimney with holdfasts of the same material to prevent action. An allowance for expansion and contraction should be made in 40 ft. Slight bends to the tape not less abrupt, around the corner for an earth terminal a plate of metal at least 3 ft. sq. and 1/4 in. thick should be buried as deep as possible in a damp spot. The plate should be of the same metal as the conductor, to which it should be soldered. If the earth terminal is water, and when a deep well or river is used, at hand, the conductor should be carried down into it. No bend in the conductor should be avoided. No bend in it should

Some Tall Brick Chimneys.

	Height.	Internal Diam.	Outside Diameter.		Capacity by the Author's Formula.	
			Base.	Top.	H. P.	Pounds Coal per hour.
Hütte, Sax.	460	15.7'	33'	16'	13,221	66,103
Glasgow.	454		32			
Glasgow.	435	18' 6"	40		9,795	48,975
Low, Bolton.	367½	18' 3"	33' 10"		8,245	41,225
Co., Boston	350	11	30	21	5,553	27,790
Co., Newark.	335	11	38' 6"	14	5,455	27,175
Low, Mass.	282' 9"	13			5,980	29,900
Mills, Law.	250	10			3,838	19,135
as, Manches.	250	14			3,838	19,195
E. L. Co.,	388	14			7,515	37,575
E. I.	314	8			2,948	11,940
Mills, Law.	214	8			2,948	11,940
Works, Pas.	200	9			2,771	13,855
Glyn.Two'ch	150	50" x 120"		each	1,541	7,705

ABOVE CHIMNEYS.—1. This chimney is situated near right bank of the Mulde, at an elevation of 219 feet above dry works, so that its total height above the sea will be 711½ feet. It is situated on the bank of the river, and the furnaces are situated across the river to the chimney on a bridge, through a length. It is built throughout of brick, and will cost about £1,500.

The fact that it was struck by lightning, and somewhat of a precautionary measure a copper extension subsequently was added to its entire height 488 feet.

It was built of these great heights to remove deleterious neighborhood, as well as for draught for boilers.

It rests on a solid granite foundation, 55 x 30 feet, and its construction there were used 1,760,000 bricks, 2000 tons of mortar, 1000 loads of sand, 1000 barrels of Portland cement, estimated cost is \$10,000. It is arranged for two flues, 9 feet, connecting with 40 boilers, which are to be run in four triple-expansion engines of 1350 horse-power each.

Form batter of 2.85 inches to every 10 feet. Designed for 300 H. P. each. It is surmounted by a cast-iron cap six tons, and is composed of thirty-two sections, put together by inside flanges, so as to present a smooth foundation is in concrete, composed of crushed lime and 3 parts, and Portland cement 1 part. It is 40 feet deep. Two qualities of brick were used; the outer of the first quality North River, and the backing up was of Jersey brick. Every twenty feet in vertical measurement is 24 inches wide and 24 to 26 inch thick, placed edgewise, was all about 8 inches from the outer circle. As the chimney is double. The outer wall is 5 feet 2 inches in thick.

At this is a second wall 20 inches thick and spaced off about 10 inches from the outer wall. From the interior surface of the main wall eight feet, nearly touching this inner or main flue wall in line should it tend to sag. The interior wall, starting at the top, is gradually reduced until a height of 10 feet when it is diminished to 8 inches. At 165 feet it is

and the rest of the chimney is without lining. The total weight of chimney and foundation is 5000 tons. It was completed in September, 1890.

7. Connected to 12 boilers, with 1200 square feet of grate surface, gauge $1\frac{9}{16}$ inches.

8. Connected to 8 boilers, 6' 8" diameter \times 18 feet. Grate surface 300 square feet.

9. Connected to 64 Manning vertical boilers, total grate surface 1000 square feet. Designed to burn 18,000 lbs. anthracite per hour.

10. Designed for 12,000 H.P. of engines; (compound condensing).

11. Grate-surface 434 square feet; H.P. of boilers (Galloway's) 12,000.

12. Eight boilers (water-tube) each 450 H.P.; 12 engines, each 1000 H.P., designed for 30,000 incandescent lights. For the first 20 feet the exterior wall is 28 inches thick, then 24 inches for 20 feet, 20 inches for 20 feet, 16 inches for 20 feet, and 12 inches for 20 feet. The interior wall is 12 inches thick of fire-brick for 60 feet, and then 8 inches thick of red brick for the next 30 feet. Illustrated in *Iron Age*, January 2, 1890.

A number of the above chimneys are illustrated in *Power*, Dec. 1890. Chimney at Knoxville, Tenn., illustrated in *Eng'g News*, Nov. 2, 1890. 6 feet diameter, 120 feet high, double wall:

Exterior wall, height 30 feet, 30 feet, 30 feet, 40 feet;

" " thickness $21\frac{1}{2}$ in., 17 in., 13 in., $8\frac{1}{2}$ in.;

Interior wall, height 35 ft., 35 ft., 29 ft., 21 ft.;

" " thickness $13\frac{1}{2}$ in., $8\frac{1}{2}$ in., 4 in., 0.

Exterior diameter, 15' 6" at bottom; batter, 7.16 inch in 12 inches from top to 8 feet from top. Interior diameter of inside wall 6 feet from top of interior wall. Space between walls, 16 inches at bottom, down to 0 at top of interior wall. The interior wall is of red brick except for 4 inches of fire-brick for 20 feet from bottom.

Stability of Chimneys.—Chimneys must be designed to resist the maximum force of the wind in the locality in which they are erected. (See Weak Chimneys, below). A general rule for diameter of base of chimneys, approved by many years of practice in England and the United States, is to make the diameter of the base one tenth of the height. If the chimney is square or rectangular, make the diameter of the inside of the base one tenth of the height. The "batter" or taper of a chimney should be from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch to the foot on each side. The top should be one brick (8 or 9 inches) thick for the first 25 feet from the base, increasing $\frac{1}{4}$ brick (4 or $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches) for each 25 feet from the top. If the inside diameter exceed 5 feet, the top length should be $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 1 inch. If under 3 feet, it may be $\frac{1}{4}$ brick for ten feet.

(From *The Locomotive*, 1834 and 1886.) For chimneys of four feet diameter and one hundred feet high, and upwards, the best form is certainly a straight batter on the outside. A circular chimney of this size seems to be cheaper than any other form, is lighter, stronger, and less liable to better and more shapely.

Chimneys of any considerable height are not built up of uniform thickness from top to bottom, nor with a uniformly varying thickness of wall. The heaviest of course at the base, is reduced by a series of steps.

Where practicable the load on a chimney foundation should not exceed 10 tons per square foot in compact sand, gravel, or loam. Where such a bottom is available for foundation, the load may be greatly increased. If the rock is sloping, all unsound portions should be removed, and the surface dressed to a series of horizontal steps, so that there shall be no tendency to slide after the structure is finished.

All boiler-chimneys of any considerable size should consist of an inner stack of sufficient strength to give stability to the structure, and an outer stack or core independent of the inner one. This core is by no means extended up to a height of but 50 or 60 feet from the base of the chimney, but the better practice is to run it up the whole height; if that cannot be done, it may be stopped off, say, a couple feet below the top, and the outer stack contracted to the area of the core, but the better way is to run it up 10 or 12 inches of the top and not contract the outer shell. But under all circumstances should the core at its upper end be built more or less into the outer stack. This has been done in several instances, and the result has been the expansion of the inner core which caused the outer stack to crack and the chimney to fall.

For a height of 100 feet we would make the outer shell 14 feet in diameter at the base, 16 inches thick, the second 20 feet high, 14 feet

feet high and 8 inches thick. These are the minimum thicknesses for chimneys of this height, and the latter should be not less than 36 to give stability. The core should also be built in three steps, which may be about one third the height of the chimney, the lowest 12 inches, the middle 8 inches, and the upper step 4 inches thick. This will make a good sound core. The top of a chimney may be protected by a conical cap; or perhaps a cheaper and equally good plan is to lay the central part in some good cement, and plaster the top with the same.

Chimneys.—James B. Francis, in a report to the Lawrence Company in 1873 (*Eng'g News*, Aug. 28, 1880), gives some calculations concerning the probable effects of wind on that company's chimney as then erected. Its outer shell is octagonal. The inner shell is cylindrical, with a narrow air-space between it and the outer shell; the two shells not being put together, except at the openings at the base, but with projections in the brickwork, at intervals of about 30 ft. in height, to afford lateral support and contact of the two shells. The principal dimensions of the chimney are as follows:

Above the surface of the ground,	211 ft.
Radius of the inscribed circle of the octagon near the ground,	15 "
Radius of the inscribed circle of the octagon near the top,	10 ft. 1 1/2 in.
Thickness of the outer shell near the base, 6 bricks, or,	28 1/2 in.
Thickness of the outer shell near the top, 3 bricks, or,	14 1/2 "
Thickness of the inner shell near the base, 4 bricks, or,	15 "
Thickness of the inner shell near the top, 1 brick, or,	8 1/2 "

The length of the height for the diameter of the base is the rule commonly used. The diameter of the inscribed circle of the base of the Lawrence Company's chimney being 15 ft., it is evidently much less than is usual in a chimney of that height.

After the chimney was built, and before the mortar had hardened, it was found that the top had swayed over about 29 in. toward the east. This was evidently due to a strong westerly wind which occurred at that time, and was soon brought back to the perpendicular by sawing into some of the bricks and other means.

The stability of the chimney to resist the force of the wind depends mainly on the weight of its outer shell, and the width of its base. The cohesion of the mortar may add considerably to its strength; but it is too uncertain to be relied upon. The inner shell will add a little to the stability, but it may be cracked by the heat, and its beneficial effect, if any, is too uncertain to be taken into account.

The effect of the joint action of the vertical pressure due to the weight of the chimney, and the horizontal pressure due to the force of the wind is to produce the centre of pressure at the base of the chimney, from the axis to one side, the extent of the shifting depending on the relative magnitude of the two forces. If the centre of pressure is brought too near the edge of the chimney, it will crush the brickwork on that side, and the chimney will fall. A line drawn through the centre of pressure, perpendicular to the direction of the wind, must leave an area of brickwork between it and the edge of the chimney, sufficient to support half the weight of the chimney, the other half of the weight being supported by the brickwork on the opposite side of the line.

Recent experiments on the strength of brickwork give very different results. Kirkaldy found the weights which caused several kinds of bricks, in hydraulic lime-mortar and in Roman and Portland cements, to fail to vary from 19 to 60 tons (of 2000 lbs.) per sq. ft. If we take in this case 25 tons per sq. ft., as the weight that would cause it to begin to fail, we must err greatly. To support half the weight of the outer shell of the chimney, or 4.2 tons, at this rate, requires an area of 12.88 sq. ft. of brickwork. From these data and the drawings of the chimney, Mr. Francis calculates that the area of 12.88 sq. ft. is contained in a portion of the chimney being 2.428 ft. from one of its octagonal sides, and that the limit to which the centre of pressure may be shifted is therefore 5.672 ft. from the edge.

If shifted beyond this, he says, on the assumption of the strength of the brickwork, it will crush and the chimney will fall.

Assuming that the wind-pressure can affect only the upper 141 ft. of the chimney, the lower 70 ft. being protected by buildings, he calculates that a pressure of 44.02 lbs. per sq. ft. would blow the chimney down.

This is a paper printed in the transactions of the Institution.

neers, in Scotland, for 1867-68, says: "It had previously been assumed by observation of the success and failure of actual chimneys, and of those which respectively stood and fell during the violent storms, that, in order that a round chimney may be sufficiently stable, it should be such that a pressure of wind, of about 55 lbs. per sq. ft. of surface, directly facing the wind, or $37\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per sq. ft. of the projection of a cylindrical surface, . . . shall not cause the resultant at any bed joint to deviate from the axis of the chimney by more than a quarter of the outside diameter at that joint."

According to Rankine's rule, the Lawrence Mfr. Co.'s chimney is a to a maximum pressure of wind on a plane acting on the whole of 18.80 lbs. per sq. ft., or of a pressure of 21.50 lbs. per sq. ft. acting uppermost 141 ft. of the chimney.

Steel Chimneys are largely coming into use, especially for chimneys of iron-works, from 150 to 300 feet in height. The advantages are: greater strength and safety; smaller space required; smaller weight, 90 to 50 per cent, as compared with brick chimneys; avoidance of friction of air and consequent checking of the draught, common in brick chimneys. They are usually made cylindrical in shape, with a wide cone for 10 to 25 feet at the bottom. A heavy cast-iron base plate is provided which the chimney is riveted, and the plate is secured to a massive foundation by holding-down bolts. No guys are used. F. W. Gordon, of the Engineering Works, gives the following method of calculating the resistance to wind pressure (*Power*, Oct. 1893):

In tests by Sir William Fairbairn we find four experiments to determine the strength of thin hollow tubes. In the table will be found their results with their breaking strain. These tubes were placed upon rollers, and the weights suspended at the centre from a block fitted to the ends of the tube.

	Clear Span, ft. in.	Thickness Iron, in.	Outside Diameter, in.	Sectional Area, in.	Breaking Weight, lbs.	Breaking Strain, tons.
I.	17	.037	18	1.3901	9,704	6.9
II.	15 $7\frac{1}{2}$.113	12.4	4.3669	31,440	22.4
III.	23 6	.0631	17.68	8.487	6,400	4.6
IV.	23 5	.119	18.18	6.74	14,240	10.2

Edwin Clarke has formulated a rule from experiments conducted during his investigations into the use of iron and steel for hollow bridges, which is as follows:

$$\text{Center break-load, in tons.} = \frac{\text{Area of material in sq. in.} \times \text{Mean depth in in.} \times \text{Constant}}{\text{Clear span in feet.}}$$

When the constant used is 1.2, the calculation for the tubes experimented upon by Mr. Fairbairn are given in the last column of the table. Clarke's "Rules, Tables, and Data," page 513, gives a rule for tubes as follows: $W = 3.14 D^2 T S + L$. W = breaking weight in pounds; D = extreme diameter in inches; T = thickness in inches; L = weight between supports in inches; S = ultimate tensile strength in pounds per sq. in.

Taking S , the strength of a square inch of a riveted joint, at 40,000 lbs. per sq. in., this rule figures as follows for the different examples mentioned upon by Mr. Fairbairn: I, 2870; II, 10,190; III, 770; IV, 1,100.

This shows a close approximation to the breaking weight of the experiments and that derived from Edwin Clarke's and D. K. Clark's. We therefore assume that this system of calculation is practically correct, and that it is eminently safe when a large factor of safety is provided from the fact that a chimney may be standing for many years without receiving anything like the strain taken as the basis of the calculation. Fifty pounds per square foot. Wind pressure at fifty pounds per sq. ft. may be assumed to be travelling in a horizontal direction and to have the same velocity from the top to the bottom of the stack. This is a reasonable assumption. If, however, the chimney is round, its effective area is not constant of its diameter plane. We assume that the same is true for a chimney fixed in the centre of the height of the section of the chimney for consideration.

For example a 125-foot iron chimney at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., the top of which is 40 inches, the effective surface in square feet the force of the wind may play will therefore be 14 times 125 which multiplied by 50 gives a total wind force of 23,437 resistance of the chimney to breaking across the top of the shaft be 3.14×108^3 (that is, diameter of base) $\times .35 = 35,000 + 150$, or 10.6 times the entire force of the wind. We multiply it above the joint in inches, 750, by 4, because the chimney is a beam with a load suspended on one end. In calculating all way up, we have a beam of the same character. It is a line half way up the chimney, where it is 40 inches in diameter thick. Taking the diametrical section above this line, as concentrated in the centre of it, or half way up from the consideration, its breaking strength is: $3.14 \times 90^3 \times .187 = 35,000 + 250$; and the force of the wind to tear it apart through its shaft $\times 5.4 \times 50 \div 2 = 11,333$, or a little more than one tenth of the strength of the chimney.

The & Wilcox Co.'s book "Steam" illustrates a steel chimney for the Maryland Steel Co., Sparrow's Point, Md. It is 235 feet high, with internal brick lining 13' 9" uniform inside shell is 35 ft. diam. at the base, tapering in a curve to 17 ft. at the top, thence tapering almost imperceptibly to 14' 8" at the top. The base is of $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates, the next four sections of 40 ft. are of 5/32, 3/16, 11/32, and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch.

Tables of Foundations for Steel Chimneys.

Selected from circular of Phila. Engineering Works.

HALF-LINED CHIMNEYS.

Height in feet.....	3	4	5	6	7	8	11
.....	100	100	150	150	150	150	150
Foundation.....	13'9"	16'4"	20'4"	21'10"	22'7"	23'8"	24'8"
.....	6'	6'	9'	8'	9'	10'	10'
.....	125	200	200	250	275	300	300
Foundation.....	18'5"	23'8"	25'	29'8"	31'6"	32'	32'
.....	7'	10'	10'	12'	12'	14'	14'

Weight of Sheet-Iron Smoke-stacks per Foot.

(Porter Mfg. Co.)

	Weight per ft.	Diam., inches.	Thickness W. G.	Weight per ft.	Diam., inches.	Thickness W. G.	Weight per ft.
10	7.30	20	No. 16	17.50	30	No. 14	18.33
	8.00	22	"	17.75	32	"	20.00
	9.58	24	"	20.00	34	"	21.66
	11.68	26	No. 14	21.40	36	"	23.33
	13.75	28	"	21.11	38	"	25.00
	15.00	30	"	23.69	40	"	26.66
	16.25	32	"	25.00			

Sheet-Iron Chimneys. (Columbus Machine Co.)

Height in feet.	Thickness Iron, B. W. G.	Weight, lbs.	Diameter Chimney, inches.	Length Chimney, feet.	Thickness Iron, B. W. G.	Weight, lbs.
10	No. 16	100	30	40	No. 15	900
20	" 16	240	32	40	" 15	1,620
30	" 16	380	34	40	" 14	1,370
40	" 16	350	36	40	" 14	1,240
50	" 14	700	38	40	" 12	1,890
60	" 16	875	40	40	" 12	1,890
70	" 15	900				

THE STEAM-ENGINE.

Expansion of Steam. Isothermal and Adiabatic.—According to Mariotte's law, the volume of a perfect gas, the temperature

kept constant, varies inversely as its pressure, or $p \propto \frac{1}{v}$; $pv = \text{const.}$

The curve constructed from this formula is called the *isothermal* curve of equal temperatures, and is a common or rectangular hyperbola. The relation of the pressure and volume of saturated steam, from Regnault's experiments, and as given in Steam tables, is not exactly, according to Rankine (S. E., p. 408), for pressures not extremely low, $p \propto \frac{1}{v^{1.0635}}$, or $p \propto v^{-1.0635}$, or $pv^{1.0635} = \text{const.}$ Rankine found that the exponent 1.0646 gives a closer approximation.

When steam expands in a closed cylinder, as in an engine, the

Rankine (S. E., p. 385), the approximate law of the expansion is $p \propto v^{-1.131}$, or $pv^{1.131} = \text{const.}$ The curve constructed from this law is called the *adiabatic* curve, or curve of no transmission of heat.

Poebody Thermo., p. 112) says: "It is probable that this law is obtained by comparing the expansion lines on a large number of diagrams. . . . There does not appear to be any good reason for an exponential equation in this connection, . . . and the action of a large engine cylinder is far from being adiabatic. . . . For general purposes the hyperbola is the best curve for comparison with the expansion curve indicator card. . . ." Wolff and Denton, Trans. A. S. M. E., 1884, p. 11, from a number of cards examined from a variety of steam engines in use, we find that the actual expansion line varies between an adiabatic curve and the Mariotte curve."

Prof. Thurston (A. S. M. E., ii, 208), says he doubts if the expansion becomes the same in any two engines, or even in the same engine at different times of the day and under varying conditions of the day.

Expansion of Steam according to Mariotte's Law and the Adiabatic Law. (Trans. A. S. M. E., ii, 190.)—Mariotte's law: $p_1 v_1 = p_2 v_2$; values calculated from formula $\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \frac{1}{R} (1 + \text{hyperbola})$. $R = v_2 - v_1$, p_1 = absolute initial pressure, p_2 = absolute pressure at final volume v_2 , v_1 = initial volume of steam in cylinder at pressure p_1 , v_2 = final volume of steam at final pressure. Adiabatic law: $p_1 v_1^{1.131} = p_2 v_2^{1.131}$; values calculated from formula $\frac{p_2}{p_1} = 10R^{-1} - 9R^{-1.131}$.

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Ratio of Expansion R.	Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.		Ratio of Expansion R.	Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.		Ratio of Expansion R.	Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.
	Mar.	Adiab.		Mar.	Adiab.		Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.
1.00	1.000	1.000	3.7	.624	.600	8	.478
1.25	.978	.976	3.8	.614	.590	6.25	.470
1.50	.957	.931	3.9	.605	.580	6.5	.462
1.75	.931	.881	4.	.597	.571	6.75	.454
2.	.917	.854	4.1	.588	.562	7.	.446
2.2	.903	.833	4.2	.580	.554	7.25	.438
2.4	.891	.816	4.3	.572	.546	7.5	.430
2.5	.886	.811	4.4	.564	.538	7.75	.422
2.6	.881	.806	4.5	.556	.530	8.	.414
2.8	.867	.794	4.6	.549	.523	8.25	.406
3.	.854	.781	4.7	.542	.516	8.5	.398
3.1	.848	.776	4.8	.535	.509	8.75	.390
3.2	.843	.771	4.9	.528	.502	9.	.382
3.3	.838	.766	5.05	.522	.496	9.25	.374
3.4	.833	.761	5.2	.516	.490	9.5	.366
3.5	.828	.756	5.35	.510	.484	9.75	.358
3.7	.820	.750	5.5	.504	.478	10.	.350
3.8	.815	.745	5.75	.498	.472		

Pressure of Expanded Steam.—For calculations of the mean pressure, it is usually assumed that steam expands according to Mariotte's law, the expansion line being a hyperbola. The mean pressure, P_m , is then obtained from the formula

$$P_m = p_1 \frac{1 + \text{hyp log } R}{R}$$

where p_1 is the absolute mean pressure, p_1 the absolute initial pressure up to the point of cut-off, and R the ratio of expansion. If the cut-off is at the end of the stroke, L = total stroke,

$$P_m = p_1 \frac{1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L}{l}}{\frac{L}{l}}; \text{ and if } R = \frac{L}{l}, P_m = p_1 \frac{1 + \text{hyp log } R}{R}$$

Terminal Absolute Pressures.—Mariotte's law, as given in the following table are based on Mariotte's law, the last column, which give the mean pressure of superheated steam according to Rankine, expands in a cylinder according to the law $PV = \text{const}$. These latter values are calculated from the formula

$P_m = p_1 \frac{1 + \text{hyp log } R}{R}$ may be found by extracting the square root of $\frac{1}{R}$ from the mean absolute pressures given deduct the mean back pressure to obtain the mean effective pressure.

Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.	Ratio of Mean to Terminal Pressure.	Ratio of Terminal to Mean Pressure.	Ratio of Initial to Mean Pressure.	Ratio of Mean to Initial Dry Steam.
0.1467	4.40	0.227	6.82	0.186
0.1547	4.37	0.231	6.46
0.1638	4.26	0.235	6.11
0.1741	4.18	0.239	5.75
0.1840	4.09	0.244	5.38
0.1946	4.00	0.250	5.00	0.186
0.2161	3.89	0.256	4.63
0.2359	3.77	0.265	4.24
0.2473	3.71	0.269	4.05
0.2590	3.64	0.275	3.85
0.2620	3.60	0.279	3.72	0.254
0.2742	3.56	0.280	3.65
0.2904	3.48	0.287	3.44
0.3083	3.40	0.294	3.24
0.3288	3.30	0.303	3.09	0.314
0.3552	3.20	0.312	2.81
0.3849	3.06	0.321	2.60	0.370
0.4210	2.95	0.339	2.37
0.4547	2.90	0.345	2.10	0.417
0.4653	2.79	0.360	2.15
0.4807	2.74	0.364	2.08
0.5218	2.61	0.383	1.92	0.506
0.5608	2.50	0.400	1.78
0.5965	2.38	0.419	1.68	0.582
0.6308	2.32	0.437	1.58
0.6615	2.20	0.454	1.51	0.648
0.6925	2.10	0.476	1.43
0.7171	2.05	0.488	1.39	0.707
0.7440	1.98	0.505	1.34
0.7664	1.91	0.523	1.31	0.756
0.8065	1.80	0.556	1.24	0.800
0.8465	1.69	0.591	1.18	0.840
0.8789	1.60	0.626	1.14	0.874
0.9092	1.51	0.662	1.10	0.900
0.9167	1.47	0.680	1.09
0.9292	1.43	0.699	1.07	0.925
0.9405	1.40	0.718	1.06

Calculation of Mean Effective Pressure, Clearance Compression Considered.

In the above tables no account of clearance when in steam-engines modified of expansion and the pressure; non of compression back-pressure, which the mean effective pressure the following calculated elements are considered.

L = length of stroke, before cut-off, x = length of compression part of stroke, p_1 = initial pressure, p_2 = back pressure, p_c = clearance steam at cut-off pressure. All pressures absolute, that is, measured from perfect vacuum.

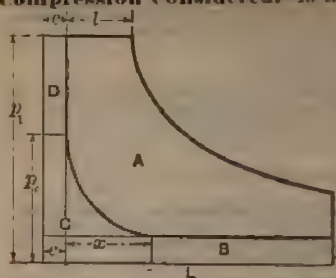


FIG. 187.

$$\text{Area of } ABCD = p_1(l+c)\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L+c}{l+c}\right);$$

$$B = p_b(L-x);$$

$$C = p_c\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}\right) = p_b(x+c)\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}\right);$$

$$D = (p_1 - p_c)c = p_1c - p_b(x+c).$$

$$\text{Area of } A = ABCD - (B + C + D)$$

$$= p_1(l+c)\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L+c}{l+c}\right)$$

$$- [p_b(L-x) + p_b(x+c)\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}\right) + p_1c - p_b(x+c)]$$

$$= p_1(l+c)\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L+c}{l+c}\right)$$

$$- p_b[(L-x) + (x+c)\text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}]$$

$$\text{Mean effective pressure} = \frac{\text{area of } A}{L}$$

EXAMPLE.—Let $L = 1$, $l = 0.25$, $x = 0.35$, $c = 0.1$, $p_1 = 60$ lbs.

$$\text{Area } A = 60(.25 + .1)\left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{1.1}{.35}\right)$$

$$- 2\left[(1 - .25) + .35 \text{ hyp log } \frac{.35}{.1}\right] = 6$$

$$= 21(1 + 1.145) - 2[.75 + .35 \times 1.253] - 6$$

$$= 45.045 - 2.377 - 6 = 36.668 = \text{mean effective pressure}$$

The actual indicator diagram generally shows a mean pressure appreciably less than that due to the initial pressure and the rate of expansion causes of loss of pressure are: 1. Friction in the steam valves and pipes. 2. Friction or wire-drawing of the steam during admission and cut-off, due chiefly to defective valve gear and contracted passages. 3. Leakage during expansion. 4. Exhausting before the steam has completed its stroke. 5. Compression due to early closure of the exhaust valve. 6. Friction in the exhaust ports, passages, and pipes.

Re-evaporation during expansion of the steam (condensed steam) and valve-leakage after cut-off, tend to elevate the actual indicator diagram and increase the mean pressure.

If the theoretical mean pressure be calculated from the indicator diagram and increased by the effect of re-evaporation and valve-leakage on the expansion of the steam, the result will be the actual mean pressure.

Clotie's law, $pv = a$ constant, and the necessary corrections are clearance and compression, the expected mean pressure in practice found by multiplying the calculated results by the factor in the table, according to Seaton.

Particulars of Engine.	Factor.
Cut-off engine, special valve-gear, or with a separate cut-off valve, cylinder jacketed	0.04
Cut-off engine, having large ports, etc., and good ordinary valves, cylinders jacketed	0.9 to 0.92
Cut-off engines with the ordinary valves and gear as general practice, and unjacketed	0.8 to 0.85
Compound engines, with expansion valve to h.p. cylinder, cylinders jacketed, and with large ports, etc.	0.9 to 0.92
Compound engines, with ordinary slide-valves, cylinders jacketed, and good ports, etc.	0.8 to 0.85
Compound engines as in general practice in the merchant service, with early cut-off in both cylinders, without jackets and expansion-valves	0.7 to 0.8
Running engines of the type and design usually fitted to war-ships	0.6 to 0.8

correction be made for clearance and compression, and the engine ordinance with general modern practice, the theoretical mean pressure be multiplied by 0.06, and the product by the proper factor in the table to obtain the expected mean pressure.

The Initial Pressure and the Average Pressure, to find the Ratio of Expansion and the Period of Admission.

P = initial absolute pressure in lbs. per sq. in.;
 p = average total pressure during stroke in lbs. per sq. in.;
 L = length of stroke in inches;
 l = period of admission measured from beginning of stroke;
 c = clearance in inches;

$$R = \text{actual ratio of expansion} = \frac{L+c}{l+c} \quad (1)$$

$$p = \frac{P(1 + \text{hyp log } R)}{R}$$

and average pressure p , taking account of clearance,

$$p = \frac{P(l+c) + \frac{P(l+c)}{R} \text{hyp log } R - Pc}{L} \quad (2)$$

$$pL + Pc = P(l+c)(1 + \text{hyp log } R);$$

$$\text{hyp log } R = \frac{pL + Pc}{Pl + Pc} - 1 = \frac{\frac{p}{P}L + c}{l+c} - 1 \quad (3)$$

and P , to find R and l (by trial and error)—There being two unknown quantities R and l , assume one of them, viz., the period of admission, substitute it in equation (3) and solve for R . Substitute this value of R in formula (1), or $l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c$, obtained from formula (1), and find l . If l is greater than the assumed value of l , then the assumed value of R of admission is too long; if less, the assumed value is too short. A new value of l , substitute it in formula (3) as before, and continue the method of trial and error till the required values of R and l are

Ex.— $P = 70$, $p = 42.78$, $L = 60''$, $c = 3''$, to find l . Assume $l = 21$ in

$$R = \frac{\frac{p}{P}L + c}{l+c} - 1 = \frac{42.78 \times 60 + 3}{21 + 3} - 1 = 1.653 - 1 = .653;$$

$R = .653$, whence $R = 1.92$.

$$l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c = \frac{63}{1.93} - 3 = 29.8,$$

which is greater than the assumed value, 21 inches.

Now assume $l = 15$ inches:

$$\text{hyp log } R = \frac{\frac{63.75}{20} \times 60 + 3}{15 + 3} - 1 = 1.904, \text{ whence } R = 12;$$

$$l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c = \frac{63}{1.5} - 3 = 18 - 3 = 15 \text{ inches, the value assumed.}$$

Therefore $R = 2.5$, and $l = 15$ inches.

Period of Admission Required for a Given Actual Ratio of Expansion.

$$l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c, \text{ in inches.}$$

$$\text{In percentage of stroke, } l = \frac{100 + \text{p.ct. clearance}}{R} - \text{p. ct. clearance.}$$

$$\text{Terminal pressure} = \frac{P(l+c)}{L+c} = \frac{P}{R} \text{}$$

Pressure at any other Point of the Expansion.—Let L_1 = length of steam up to the given point.

$$\text{Pressure at the given point} = \frac{P(l+c)}{L_1+c} \text{}$$

WORK OF STEAM IN A SINGLE CYLINDER.

To facilitate calculations of steam expanded in cylinders the tables on the next page is abridged from Clark on the Steam-engine. The actual ratios of expansion, column 1, range from 1.0 to 8.0, for which the logarithms are given in column 2. The 3d column contains the ratio of admission relative to the actual ratios of expansion, as percentage of stroke, calculated by formula (5) above. The 4th column gives the ratio of the mean pressures relative to the initial pressures, the latter being as 1, calculated by formula (2). In the calculation of column 3 no allowance is taken into account, and its amount is assumed at 2% of the stroke. The final pressures, in the 5th column, are such as would be obtained if the continued expansion of the whole of the steam to the end of the stroke, the initial pressure being equal to 1. They are the reciprocals of the ratios of expansion, column 1. The 6th column contains the relative performances of equal weights of steam worked with the several ratios of expansion; the total performance, when steam is admitted to the cylinder at the beginning of the stroke, being equal to 1. They are obtained by dividing the figures in column 4 by those in column 5.

The pressures have been calculated on the supposition that the pressure of steam, during its admission into the cylinder, is uniform up to the point of cutting off, and that the expansion is continued regularly to the end of the stroke. The relative performances have been calculated without allowance for the effect of compressive action.

The calculations have been made for periods of admission ranging from 10%, or the whole of the stroke, to 0.45, or 1/2 of the stroke. Assuming, nominally, the expansion is 16 times in the last instance, it is actually 8 times, as given in the first column. The great difference between the nominal and the actual ratios of expansion is caused by the steam being cut off at 1/2 of the stroke, and causes the nominal volume of steam admitted, namely, 0.45, to be augmented to 0.4 + 1/2 = 1.15 (45% of the stroke, plus, double, for expansion). When the steam is cut off at 1/3 of the stroke, the expansion is only 6 times; when cut off at 1/4, the expansion is 2 2/3 times; and to receive steam into the cylinder to twice the initial volume, the steam is cut off at 1/3 of the stroke.

Working of Steam Actual Ratio of Expansion, the Relative Periods of Admission, Pressure, Performance.

200 lbs. absolute. Clearance at each end of the cylinder $\frac{1}{8}$

(SINGLE CYLINDER.)

3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Period of Admission or Cut-off, $\frac{1}{8}$ Clearance.	Average Total Pressure, Initial Pressure = 1.	Total Final Pressure, Initial Pressure = 1.	Ratio of Total Performance of Equal Weights of Steam, (Col. 4 + Col. 5)	Actual Work done by 1 lb. of 100 lbs. Steam, Ft. lbs.	Quantity of Steam Consumed per Ft. of Actual Work done per hour	Net Capacity of Cylinder per lb. of 100 lbs. Steam admitted in 1 stroke, Cubic feet
100	1.000	1.000	1.000	58,273	34.0	4.05
90.3	.970	.960	1.006	63,850	31.0	4.45
80.8	.936	.847	1.164	67,836	29.2	4.78
75.8	.900	.813	1.306	70,246	28.2	4.96
70	.869	.769	1.361	73,513	26.9	5.36
65.5	.832	.719	1.395	77,242	25.6	5.63
60.8	.792	.690	1.365	79,555	24.9	5.87
56.5	.745	.649	1.425	83,055	23.8	6.33
50.9	.693	.625	1.461	85,125	22.3	6.47
54.1	.638	.571	1.540	90,115	21.0	7.08
50	.580	.532	1.616	94,200	21.0	7.61
45.5	.516	.5	1.672	97,432	20.3	8.09
40	.447	.439	1.793	104,466	19.0	9.23
37.6	.386	.417	1.837	107,050	18.5	9.71
33.8	.326	.377	1.925	112,200	17.7	10.72
29.9	.268	.345	2.006	116,78	16.9	11.74
26.4	.212	.313	2.083	121,386	16.3	12.05
25	.197	.298	2.120	124,466	16.0	12.56
22.7	.170	.276	2.187	127,450	15.5	14.57
21.2	.150	.253	2.240	130,532	15.2	15.38
19.7	.130	.230	2.278	132,770	14.9	16.19
18.5	.111	.208	2.315	134,900	14.7	17.00
16.8	.086	.182	2.370	138,130	14.34	18.21
15.3	.063	.160	2.418	140,930	14.05	19.43
14.4	.048	.140	2.440	142,180	13.92	20.23
13.6	.036	.123	2.466	143,730	13.76	21.04
12.5	.027	.102	2.511	146,835	13.53	22.25
11.4	.020	.082	2.547	148,500	13.34	23.47
11.1	.019	.079	2.556	148,940	13.29	23.87
10.8	.019	.071	2.585	150,630	13.14	25.09
10	.013	.059	2.597	151,870	13.04	25.49
9.8	.013	.052	2.609	152,585	12.98	26.71
8.8	.008	.043	2.604	155,200	12.75	28.38
7.7	.009	.037	2.593	156,960	12.61	29.54
7.1	.007	.034	2.711	157,676	12.53	30.76
6.7	.008	.022	2.719	158,414	12.50	31.87
6.4	.004	.025	2.730	159,483	11.83	32.38

BY THE TABLE. — That the initial pressure is uniform; that complete to the end of the stroke; that the pressure is conversely as the volume; that there is no back-pressure of compression, and that clearance is $\frac{1}{8}$ of the stroke at each end. No allowance has been made for loss of steam by cylinder or leakage.

Steam of 100 lbs. pressure per sq. in., or 14,000

Pressure and volume 4.33 cu. ft. 62,358 ft

$\times 9636 \text{ ft.} = 55,788 \text{ ft. lbs.}$ The heat equivalent of this work is $55,788 \div 778 = 71.7$ units. This is the work of 1 lb. of steam of one atmosphere on a piston without expansion.

The gross work thus done on a piston by 1 lb. of steam generated at pressures varying from 15 lbs. to 100 lbs. per sq. in. varies in round numbers from 50,000 to 62,000 ft.-lbs., equivalent to from 72 to 80 units of heat.

This work of 1 lb. of steam without expansion is reduced by the according to the proportion it bears to the net capacity of the cylinder the clearance be $\frac{1}{3}$ of the stroke, the work of a given weight of steam on expansion, admitted for the whole of the stroke, is reduced in the of 107 to 100.

Having determined by this ratio the quantity of work of 1 lb. of steam out expansion, as reduced by clearance, the work of the same weight of steam for various ratios of expansion may be found by multiplying it by the performance of equal weights of steam, given in the 6th column of the

Quantity of Steam Consumed per Horse-power of a Worker per Hour. (Column 8 of table.)—The mass of steam is the performance of 33,000 ft.-lbs. per minute, or 1,980,000 ft.-lbs. This work, divided by the work of 1 lb. of steam, gives the weight required per horse-power per hour. For example, the total amount done in the cylinder by 1 lb. of 100 lbs. steam, without expansion, is 1,680,000 ft.-lbs.; and $\frac{1,980,000}{1,680,000} = 1.178$ = 34 lbs. of steam, is the

ACTUAL EXPANSIONS.

With Different Clearances and Cut-offs.

Computed by A. F. Nagle.

[illegible]

ciency of 1 lb. of Steam with and without
pressure and compression not considered.

$$\text{Pressure} = p = \frac{Pl + c + P(l + c) \text{ hyp. log. } R - Pc}{L}$$

30; $l = 25$; $c = 7$.

$$\text{31 hyp. log. } \frac{107}{32} - 7 = \frac{32 + 32 \times 1.309 - 7}{100} = .637.$$

be added to the stroke, so that clearance becomes zero,
of steam being used, admission l being then $= l + c =$
 $c = 107$.

$$\text{32 hyp. log. } \frac{107}{32} - 0 = \frac{32 + 32 \times 1.309}{107} = .707.$$

clearance be reduced to 0, the amount of the clearance 7
in the admission and the stroke, the same quantity of
work than when the clearance is 7 in the ratio 707 : 637,

are Considered.—If back pressure $= .10$ of P , this
subtracted from p and p_1 giving $p = .537$, $p_1 = .607$, the
quantity of steam used without clearance being greater
is 7 per cent in the ratio of 607 : 537, or 13% more.

compression.—By early closure of the exhaust, so that a
clearance may be avoided. If expansion is continued
pressure, if the back pressure is uniform throughout the
if compression begins at such point that the exhaust
the cylinder is compressed to the initial pressure at the
roke, then the work of compression of the exhaust steam
one during expansion by the clearance-steam. The clear-
ified by the exhaust steam thus compressed, no new steam
the clearance-space for the next forward stroke, and the
y of the steam used in the cylinder are just the same as if
ranchise and no compression. When, however, there is a
rom the final pressure of the expansion, or the terminal
haust or back pressure (the usual case), the work of com-
al pressure is greater than the work done by the expan-
ce-steam, so that a loss of efficiency results. In this
ciency can be attained by inclosing for compression a less
than that needed to fill the clearance-space with steam of
P. (See Clark, S. E., p. 399, *1st seq.*; also F. H. Bill, Trans.
61.) It is shown by Clark that a somewhat greater effi-
fined whether or not the pressure of the steam be carried
to the back-exhaust-pressure. As a result of calcula-
the most efficient periods of compression for various
back pressure, and for various periods of admission, he gives
at page:

Low- and High-speed Engines. (Harris
Sept. 17, 1891.)—The construction of the high-speed
its relatively short stroke, that the clearance must be
in the releasing-valve type. The short-stroke engine is,
engine with large clearance, which is aggravated when a
ion is a feature. Conversely, the releasing-valve gear is,
n engine of slow rotative speed, where great power is
ng stroke, and small clearance is a feature in its construc-
the clearance will vary from 8% to 12% of the piston dis-
the other from 2% to 3%. In the case of an engine with a
10% of the piston-displacement the waste room becomes
sidered in connection with an early cut-off. The system of
es the waste due to clearance in proportion as the steam
er pressure. The farther expansion is carried through-
the greater will be the reduction of waste due to
from the fact that the high-speed engine, etc.

steam much less than the Corliss, will show a greater gain when from simple to compound than its rival under similar conditions.

COMPRESSION OF STEAM IN THE CYLINDER.

Best Periods of Compression; Clearance 7 per cent.

Cut-off in Percentages of the Stroke.	Total Back Pressure, in percentages of the total initial pressure.					
	2½	5	10	15	20	25
	Periods of Compression, in parts of the stroke.					
10%	65%	57%	44%	33%	23%	17%
15	68	52	40	30	22	16
20	52	47	37	27	20	15
25	47	42	34	26	21	17
30	42	39	31	25	20	16
35	39	35	29	23	19	15
40	35	32	27	21	18	14
45	32	30	25	20	17	14
50	30	27	23	18	16	13
55	27	24	21	17	15	13
60	24	22	19	15	14	12
65	22	20	17	14	13	11
70	19	17	16	14	12	10
75	17	15	14	13	12	9

NOTES TO TABLE.—1. For periods of admission, or percentages of pressure, other than those given, the periods of compression may be found by interpolation.

2. For any other clearance, the values of the tabulated periods of compression are to be altered in the ratio of 7 to the given percent clearance.

Cylinder-condensation may have considerable effect upon the loss of compression, but it has not yet (1893) been determined by experiment. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1078.)

Cylinder-condensation.—Rankine, S. E., p. 421, says: "The loss of heat to and from the metal of the cylinder, or to and from the steam contained in the cylinder, has the effect of lowering the pressure at beginning and raising it at the end of the stroke, the lowering effect being the whole greater than the raising effect. In some experiments the loss of steam wasted through alternate liquefaction and evaporation in the cylinder has been found to be greater than the quantity which is lost by the work."

Percentage of Loss by Cylinder-condensation, tabulated.

Cut-off. (From circular of the Ashcroft Mfg. Co., on the Indicator, 1889.)

Percentage of Stroke completed at Cut-off.	Percent. of Feed-water accounted for by the Indicator diagram.			Percent. of Feed-water lost due to Cylinder-condensation.		
	Simple Engines.	Compound Engines, h.p. cyl.	Triple-expansion Engines, h.p. cyl.	Simple Engines.	Compound Engines, h.p. cyl.	Triple-expansion Engines, h.p. cyl.
5	56	74	78	42	25	21
10	66	76	80	34	23	20
15	71	78	84	29	21	18
20	74	82	87	25	19	16
25	78	85	90	22	17	14
30	82			19	15	12
35	86			16	13	10

Theoretical Compared with Actual Water-consumption, Single-cylinder Automatic Cut-off Engine. (From catalogue of the Buckeye Engine Co.)—The following table has been prepared on the basis of the pressures that result in practice with a constant boiler pressure of 80 lbs. and different points of cut-off, with Buckeye engines and others with similar clearance. Fractions are omitted, except in the percentage column, as the degree of accuracy their use would seem imply is not attained or aimed at.

Cut off Part of Stroke.	Mean Effective Pressure.	Total Terminal Pressure.	Indicated Rate, lbs. Water, per I H.P. per hour.	Assumed.	
				Act'l Rate.	Per ct. Loss.
.10	18	11	20	32	58
.15	27	15	19	27	41
.20	35	20	19	25	51.5
.25	42	25	20	25	25
.30	48	30	20	24	21.8
.35	53	35	21	25	19
.40	57	38	22	26	16.7
.45	61	43	22	27	15
.50	64	48	24	27	13.6

It will be seen that while the best indicated economy is when the cut-off is about at .15 or .30 of the stroke, giving about 30 lbs. M.E.P., and a terminal 13 or 14 lbs. above atmosphere, when we come to add the percentages due to a constant amount of unindicated loss, as per sixth column, the most economical point of cut-off is found to be about .30 of the stroke, giving 48 lbs. T.P. and 30 lbs. terminal pressure. This showing agrees substantially with modern experience under automatic cut-off regulation.

Experiments on Cylinder-condensation.—Experiments by Prof. Thos. English (*Eng'g*, Oct. 7, 1887, p. 386) with an engine 10 × 14 in., jacketed in the sides but not on the ends, indicate that the net initial condensation (or excess of condensation over re-evaporation) by the clearance space varies directly as the initial density of the steam, and inversely as the square root of the number of revolutions per unit of time. The mean results gave for the net initial condensation by clearance space per sq. ft. of space at one rev. per second 6.06 thermal units in the engine when run without condensing and 5.75 units when condensing.

E. R. Bodmer (*Eng'g*, March 4, 1892, p. 299) says: Within the ordinary limits of expansion desirable in one cylinder the expansion ratio has practically no influence on the amount of condensation per stroke, which for single engines can be expressed by the following formula for the weight of water condensed [per minute, probably; the original does not state]:

$$= C \frac{S(T - t)}{L \sqrt{N}}, \text{ where } T \text{ denotes the mean admission temperature, } t \text{ the}$$

exhaust temperature, S clearance-surface (square feet), N the number of revolutions per second, L latent heat of steam at the mean admission temperature, and C a constant for any given type of engine.

Mr. Bodmer found from experimental data that for high-pressure non-jacketed engines C = about 0.11, for condensing non-jacketed engines 0.065 to 0.11, for condensing jacketed engines 0.065 to 0.059. The figures for jacketed engines apply to those jacketed in the usual way, and not at the ends. C varies for different engines of the same class, but is practically constant for any given engine. For simple high-pressure non-jacketed engines C was found to range from 0.1 to 0.112.

Applying Mr. Bodmer's formula to the case of a Corliss non-jacketed condensing engine, 4-ft. stroke, 24 in. diam., 60 revs. per min., initial pressure 90 lbs. gauge, exhaust pressure 2 lbs., we have $T - t = 112^\circ$, $N = 1$, $C = .080$, $S = 7$ sq. ft.; and, taking $C = .112$ and W = lbs. water condensed per minute, $W = \frac{.112 \times 112 \times 7}{1 \times .080} = .00$ lb. per minute, or 5.4 lbs. per hour.

Steam used per I.H.P. per hour according to the diagram is 20 lbs., and water consumption is 25.4 lbs., corresponding to a cylinder condensation of 27%.

INDICATOR-DIAGRAM OF A SINGLE-CYLINDER ENGINE.

Definitions.—*The Atmospheric Line, AB,* is a line drawn by the indicator when the connections with the engine are closed on both sides of the piston are open to the atmosphere.

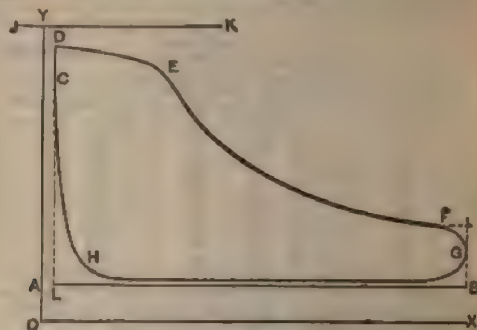


FIG. 138.

The Vacuum Line, OX, is a reference line usually drawn about pounds by scale below the atmospheric line.

The Clearance Line, OY, is a reference line drawn at a distance from the end of the diagram equal to the same per cent of its length as the clearance and waste room is of the piston-displacement.

The Line of Boiler-pressure, JK, is drawn parallel to the atmospheric line, and at a distance from it by scale equal to the boiler-pressure by the gauge.

The Admission Line, CD, shows the rise of pressure due to the admission of steam to the cylinder by opening the steam-valve.

The Steam Line, DE, is drawn when the steam-valve is open and steam being admitted to the cylinder.

The Point of Cut-off, E, is the point where the admission of steam is stopped by the closing of the valve. It is often difficult to determine the exact point at which the cut-off takes place. It is usually located by the outline of the diagram changes its curvature from convex to concave.

The Expansion Curve, EF, shows the fall in pressure as the steam cylinder expands doing work.

The Point of Release, F, shows when the exhaust-valve opens.

The Exhaust Line, FG, represents the change in pressure at the place when the exhaust-valve opens.

The Back-pressure Line, GH, shows the pressure against which the steam acts during its return stroke.

The Point of Exhaust Closure, H, is the point where the exhaust-valve closes. It cannot be located definitely, as the change in pressure is due to the gradual closing of the valve.

The Compression Curve, HC, shows the rise in pressure due to the compression of the steam remaining in the cylinder after the exhaust-valve is closed.

The Mean Height of the Diagram equals its area divided by its length. *The Mean Effective Pressure* is the mean net pressure urging the forward = the mean height \times the scale of the indicator-spring.

To find the Mean Effective Pressure from the Diagram.—Divide the length, LB , into a number, say 10, equal parts, setting off half a part at B , and nine other parts between; erect ordinates perpendicular to the atmospheric line at the points of division of LB , cutting the diagram, add together the lengths of these ordinates intercepted between the upper and lower lines of the diagram and divide by their number.

height, which multiplied by the scale of the indicator-spring P . Or find the area by a planimeter, or other means (see 55), and divide by the length LB to obtain the mean height. *Pressure* is the pressure acting on the piston at the beginning

Pressure is the pressure above the line of perfect vacuum at the end of the stroke if the steam had not been released and by continuing the expansion-curve to the end of the

INDICATED HORSE-POWER OF ENGINES, SINGLE-CYLINDER.

$$\text{Indicated Horse-power I.H.P.} = \frac{PLAN}{33,000}$$

mean effective pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; L = length of stroke in inches; A = area of piston in square inches. For accuracy, one half of the area of the piston-rod must be subtracted from the area of the head passes through one head, or the whole area of the rod if it passes through both heads; n = No. of single strokes per min. = $2 \times$ No. of

$$\frac{PaS}{33,000}, \text{ in which } S = \text{piston speed in feet per minute.}$$

$$\frac{PLA^2n}{42,017} = \frac{Pd^2S}{42,017} = .000238 PLA^2n = .000238 Pd^2S,$$

Diam. of cyl. in inches. (The figures 238 are exact, since π is exactly 3.14159.) If product of piston-speed \times mean effective pressure = 42,017, then the horse-power would equal the square of the diameter.

Rule for Estimating the Horse-power of a Single Cylinder Engine.—Square the diameter and divide by 2. This is for the product of the mean effective pressure and the piston-speed, 42,017, or, say, 21,000, viz., when M.E.P. = 80 and S = 700; or 35 and S = 600; when M.E.P. = 38.2 and S = 550; and when S = 500. These conditions correspond to those of ordinary Corliss engines and shaft-governor high-speed engines.

Horse-power, Mean Effective Pressure, and Diameter, to find Size of Cylinder.—

$$\frac{33,000 \times \text{I.H.P.}}{PLn} \quad \text{Diameter} = 205 \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{PS}} \quad (\text{Exact.})$$

Horse-power is the actual horse-power of the engine as indicated by a friction-brake or dynamometer. It is the indicated horse-power minus the friction of the engine.

Roughly Approximating the Horse-power of a Single Cylinder Engine from the Diameter of its Low-Pressure Cylinder.—The indicated horse-power of an engine being

$I.H.P. = \frac{PLAN}{33,000}$ where P = mean effective pressure per sq. in., s = piston-speed in

feet per min. and d = diam. of cylinder in inches; if s = 600 ft. per min.,

approximately the speed of modern stationary engines, and P = 35

lbs. per sq. in., an approximately average figure for the M.E.P. of single-

cylinder and of compound engines referred to the low-pressure

cylinder, $I.H.P. = \frac{1}{2} d^2$; hence the rough-and-ready rule for horse-power

is to square the diameter in inches and divide by 2. This applies to

simple expansion engines as well as to single cylinder and

compound engines at most economical loading, the M.E.P. referred to the low-

pressure of compound engines is usually not greater than that of

single cylinder engines, for the greater economy is obtained by a greater number of

strokes of higher pressures, and the greater the number of

strokes at a given initial pressure the lower the mean effective pressure.

The above rule gives approximately the figures of mean total and effec-

the pressures for the different types of engines, together with the factor which the square of the diameter is to be multiplied to obtain the power at most economical loading, for a piston-speed of 600 ft. per min.

Type of Engine.	Initial Absolute Pressure.	Number of Expansions.	Terminal Absolute Press., lbs.	Ratio Mean Total to Initial Pressure.	Mean Total Pressure, lbs.	Total Back Pressure, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Piston-rod diameter, in.	Table.
Non-condensing.									
Single Cylinder.	100	8.	30	.522	52.2	15.5	36.7	600	
Compound	120	7.5	16	.402	40.2	15.5	24.7	"	
Triple	120	10.	16	.330	33.0	15.5	17.5	"	
Quadruple	200	12.5	16	.282	28.2	15.5	12.7	"	
Condensing Engines.									
Single Cylinder.	100	10.	10	.330	33.0	2	31.0	600	
Compound	120	15.	8	.347	34.7	2	32.7	"	
Triple	160	20.	8	.300	30.0	2	28.0	"	
Quadruple	200	25.	8	.189	18.9	2	16.9	"	

For any other piston-speed than 600 ft. per min., multiply the figure in the last column by the ratio of the piston-speed to 600 ft.

Nominal Horse-power.—The term "nominal horse-power" is named in the time of Watt, and was used to express approximately the power of an engine as calculated from its diameter, estimating the mean pressure in the cylinder at 7 lbs. above the atmosphere. It has long been obsolete in America, and is nearly obsolete in England.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for a given Speed = product of its area of piston in square inches, length of stroke in feet, and number of single strokes per minute divided by 33,000, or

= C. The product of the mean effective pressure as found by the indicator and this constant is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for Variable Speeds = product of its area of piston and length of stroke divided by 33,000. This multiplied by the mean effective pressure and by the number of single strokes per minute is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of any Engine of a given Diameter of Cylinder, whatever the length of stroke = area of piston in square inches of the diameter of piston in inches $\times .0000238$. A table of constants derived from this formula is given below.

The constant multiplied by the piston-speed in feet per minute gives the M.E.P., gives the I.H.P.

Errors of Indicators.—The most common error is that of the indicator, which may vary from its normal rating; the error may be determined by proper testing apparatus and allowed for. But after making this correction with the best work, the results are liable to variable errors which amount to 2 or 3 per cent. See Barrus, Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 30, D. A. S. M. E., xi. 829; David Smith, U. S. N., Proc. Eng'g Congress, Marine Division.

Indicator "Rigs," or Reducing-motions; Interpretation of Diagrams; Errors of Steam-distribution, etc. For these see circulars of manufacturers of indicators; also works on the Indicator.

Table of Engine Constants for Use in Figuring Horse-power.—Horse-power constant for cylinders from 1 inch to 60 inches diameter, advancing by 8ths, for one foot of piston-speed per minute of M.E.P. Find the diameter of the cylinder in the column on the side. If the diameter contains no fraction the constant will be found in the column headed Even inches. If the diameter is not in even inches, the line horizontally to the column corresponding to the required diameter.

constants multiplied by the piston-speed and by the M.E.P. give the power.

meter per inches.	Even inches.	+ 1/8 or .125.	+ 1/4 or .25.	+ 3/8 or .375.	+ 1/2 or .5.	+ 5/8 or .625.	+ 3/4 or .75.	+ 7/8 or .875.
.0000238	.0000301	.0000373	.0000450	.0000535	.0000628	.0000729	.0000837	
.00000952	.0001074	.0001205	.0001342	.0001487	.0001640	.0001800	.0001967	
.0002142	.0002334	.0002514	.0002711	.0002915	.0003127	.0003347	.0003574	
.0004000	.0004050	.0004299	.0004551	.0004819	.0005091	.0005370	.0005656	
.0005950	.0006251	.0006560	.0006876	.0007199	.0007530	.0007869	.0008215	
.0008568	.0008929	.0009297	.0009672	.0010055	.0010445	.0010841	.0011249	
.0011662	.0012082	.0012510	.0012944	.0013387	.0013837	.0014295	.0014759	
.0015222	.0015711	.0016198	.0016693	.0017195	.0017705	.0018222	.0018746	
.0019278	.0019817	.0020363	.0020916	.0021479	.0022048	.0022625	.0023209	
.0023900	.0024398	.0024904	.0025418	.0025939	.0026467	.0027002	.0027544	
.0028798	.0029156	.0029621	.0030094	.0030573	.0031058	.0031549	.0032046	
.0032472	.0031990	.0032514	.0033047	.0033587	.0034134	.0034686	.0035245	
.0035722	.0036255	.0036794	.0037337	.0037885	.0038437	.0038994	.0039559	
.0040128	.0040699	.0041278	.0041857	.0042437	.0043020	.0043607	.0044199	
.0044794	.0045384	.0045978	.0046576	.0047178	.0047784	.0048394	.0048999	
.0049608	.0050224	.0050844	.0051468	.0052096	.0052728	.0053364	.0053995	
.0054630	.0055264	.0055902	.0056544	.0057190	.0057839	.0058492	.0059149	
.0059808	.0060468	.0061132	.0061800	.0062472	.0063148	.0063828	.0064511	
.0065198	.0065884	.0066574	.0067268	.0067966	.0068668	.0069374	.0070084	
.0070798	.0071516	.0072238	.0072964	.0073694	.0074428	.0075166	.0075908	
.0076654	.0077402	.0078154	.0078910	.0079670	.0080434	.0081202	.0081974	
.0082750	.0083550	.0084354	.0085162	.0085974	.0086790	.0087610	.0088434	
.0089262	.0090090	.0090922	.0091758	.0092598	.0093442	.0094290	.0095142	
.0095998	.0096858	.0097722	.0098590	.0099462	.0100338	.0101218	.0102102	
.0102990	.0103878	.0104770	.0105666	.0106566	.0107470	.0108378	.0109290	
.0110206	.0111122	.0112042	.0112966	.0113894	.0114826	.0115762	.0116702	
.0117646	.0118594	.0119546	.0120502	.0121462	.0122426	.0123394	.0124366	
.0125342	.0126318	.0127298	.0128282	.0129270	.0130262	.0131258	.0132258	
.0133262	.0134270	.0135282	.0136298	.0137318	.0138342	.0139370	.0140402	
.0141438	.0142478	.0143522	.0144570	.0145622	.0146678	.0147738	.0148802	
.0149870	.0150938	.0151990	.0153046	.0154106	.0155170	.0156238	.0157310	
.0158386	.0159462	.0160542	.0161626	.0162714	.0163806	.0164902	.0166002	
.0167106	.0168214	.0169326	.0170442	.0171562	.0172686	.0173814	.0174946	
.0176082	.0177218	.0178358	.0179502	.0180650	.0181802	.0182958	.0184118	
.0185282	.0186446	.0187614	.0188786	.0189962	.0191142	.0192326	.0193514	
.0194706	.0195898	.0197094	.0198294	.0199498	.0200706	.0201918	.0203134	
.0204354	.0205574	.0206798	.0208026	.0209258	.0210494	.0211734	.0212978	
.0214226	.0215474	.0216726	.0217982	.0219242	.0220506	.0221774	.0223046	
.0224322	.0225598	.0226878	.0228162	.0229450	.0230742	.0232038	.0233338	
.0234642	.0235946	.0237254	.0238566	.0239882	.0241202	.0242526	.0243854	
.0245186	.0246518	.0247854	.0249194	.0250538	.0251886	.0253238	.0254594	
.0255954	.0257314	.0258678	.0260046	.0261418	.0262794	.0264174	.0265558	
.0266946	.0268334	.0269726	.0271122	.0272522	.0273926	.0275334	.0276746	
.0278162	.0279578	.0280998	.0282422	.0283850	.0285282	.0286718	.0288158	
.0289602	.0291046	.0292494	.0293946	.0295402	.0296862	.0298326	.0299794	
.0301266	.0302734	.0304206	.0305682	.0307162	.0308646	.0310134	.0311626	
.0313122	.0314618	.0316118	.0317622	.0319130	.0320642	.0322158	.0323678	
.0325202	.0326726	.0328254	.0329786	.0331322	.0332862	.0334406	.0335954	
.0337506	.0339058	.0340614	.0342174	.0343738	.0345306	.0346878	.0348454	
.0350034	.0351614	.0353198	.0354786	.0356378	.0357974	.0359574	.0361178	
.0362786	.0364394	.0366006	.0367622	.0369242	.0370866	.0372494	.0374126	
.0375762	.0377398	.0379038	.0380682	.0382330	.0383982	.0385638	.0387298	
.0388962	.0390626	.0392294	.0393966	.0395642	.0397322	.0398994	.0400670	
.0402350	.0404038	.0405730	.0407426	.0409126	.0410830	.0412538	.0414250	
.0415966	.0417686	.0419410	.0421138	.0422870	.0424606	.0426346	.0428090	
.0429838	.0431586	.0433338	.0435094	.0436854	.0438618	.0440386	.0442158	
.0443934	.0445710	.0447490	.0449274	.0451062	.0452854	.0454650	.0456450	
.0458254	.0460062	.0461874	.0463690	.0465510	.0467334	.0469162	.0470994	
.0472830	.0474666	.0476506	.0478350	.0480200	.0482054	.0483912	.0485774	
.0487640	.0489506	.0491378	.0493254	.0495134	.0497018	.0498906	.0500798	
.0502694	.0504594	.0506498	.0508406	.0510318	.0512234	.0514154	.0516078	
.0518006	.0519938	.0521874	.0523814	.0525758	.0527706	.0529658	.0531614	
.0533574	.0535534	.0537498	.0539466	.0541438	.0543414	.0545394	.0547378	
.0549366	.0551354	.0553346	.0555342	.0557342	.0559346	.0561354	.0563366	
.0565382	.0567400	.0569422	.0571446	.0573474	.0575506	.0577542	.0579582	
.0581626	.0583674	.0585726	.0587782	.0589842	.0591906	.0593974	.0596046	
.0598122	.0600198	.0602278	.0604362	.0606450	.0608542	.0610638	.0612738	
.0614842	.0616946	.0619054	.0621166	.0623282	.0625402	.0627526	.0629654	
.0631786	.0633918	.0636054	.0638194	.0640338	.0642486	.0644638	.0646794	
.0648954	.0651114	.0653278	.0655446	.0657618	.0659794	.0661974	.0664158	
.0666346	.0668534	.0670726	.0672922	.0675122	.0677326	.0679534	.0681746	
.0683962	.0686178	.0688398	.0690622	.0692850	.0695082	.0697318	.0699558	
.0701802	.0704046	.0706294	.0708546	.0710802	.0713062	.0715326	.0717594	
.0719866	.0722138	.0724414	.0726694	.0728978	.0731266	.0733558	.0735854	
.0738154	.0740456	.0742762	.0745074	.0747390	.0749710	.0752034	.0754362	
.0756694	.0759026	.0761362	.0763702	.0766046	.0768394	.0770746	.0773102	
.0775462	.0777822	.0780186	.0782554	.0784926	.0787302	.0789682	.0792066	
.0794454	.0796842	.0799234	.0801630	.0804030	.0806434	.0808842	.0811254	
.0813670	.0816090	.0818514	.0820942	.0823374	.0825810	.0828250	.0830694	
.0833142	.0835590	.0838042	.0840498	.0842958	.0845422	.0847890	.0850362	
.0852838	.0855318	.0857802	.0860290	.0862782	.0865278	.0867778	.0870282	
.0872790	.0875298	.0877810	.0880326	.0882846	.0885370	.0887898	.0890430	
.0892966	.0895506	.0898050	.0900598	.0903150	.0905706	.0908266	.0910830	
.0913398	.0915966	.0918538	.0921114	.0923694	.0926278	.0928866	.0931458	
.0934054	.0936654	.0939258	.0941866	.0944478	.0947094	.0949714	.0952338	
.0954966	.0957594	.0960226	.0962862	.0965502	.0968146	.0970794	.0973446	
.0976102	.0978758	.0981418	.0984082	.0986750	.0989422	.0992098	.0994778	
.0997462	.1000146	.1002834	.1005526	.1008222	.1010922	.1013626	.1016334	
.1019046	.1021762	.1024482	.1027206	.1029934	.1032666	.1035402	.1038142	
.1040886	.1043634	.1046386	.1049142	.1051902	.1054666	.1057434	.1060206	
.1062982	.1065762	.1068546	.1071334	.1074126	.1076922	.1079722	.1082526	
.1085334	.1088146	.1090962	.1093782	.1096606	.1099434	.1102266	.1105102	
.1107942	.1110782	.1113626	.1116474	.1119326	.1122182	.1125042	.1127906	
.1130774	.1133642	.1136514	.1139390	.1142270	.1145154	.1148042	.1150934	
.1153830	.1156726	.1159626	.1162530	.1165438	.1168350	.1171266	.1174186	
.1177110	.1180034	.1182962	.1185894	.1188830	.1191770	.1194714	.1197662	
.1200614	.1203574	.1206538	.1209506	.1212478	.1215454	.1218434	.1221418	
.1224406	.1227398	.1230394	.1233394	.1236398	.1239406	.1242418	.1245434	
.1248454	.1251474	.1254498	.1257526	.1260558	.1263594	.1266634	.1269678	
.1272726	.1275774	.1278826	.1281882	.1284942	.1288006	.1291074	.1294146	
.1297222	.1300302	.1303386	.1306474	.1309566	.1312662	.1315762	.1318866	
.1321974	.1325082	.1328194	.1331310	.1334430	.1337554	.1340682	.1343814	
.1346950	.1350086	.1353226	.1356370	.1359518	.1362670	.1365826	.1368986	
.1372150	.1375306	.1378466	.1381630	.1384798	.1387970	.1391146	.1394326	
.1397510	.1400694	.1403882	.1407074	.1410270	.1413470	.1416674	.1419882	
.1423094	.1426306	.1429522	.1432742	.1435966	.1439194	.1442426	.1445662	
.1448902	.1452142	.1455386	.1458634	.1461886	.1465142	.1468402	.1471666	
.1474934	.1478202	.1481474	.1484750	.1488030	.1491314	.1494602	.1497894	
.1501190	.1504486	.1507786	.1511090	.1514398	.1517710	.1521026	.1524346	
.1527670	.1530994	.1534322	.1537654	.1540990	.1544330	.1547674	.1551022	
.1554374	.1557726	.1561082	.1564442	.1567806	.1571174	.1574546	.1577922	
.1581302	.1584682	.1588066	.1591454	.1594846	.1598242	.1601642	.1605046	
.1608454	.1611862	.1615274	.1618690	.1622110	.1625534	.1628962	.1632394	
.1635830	.1639266	.1642706	.1646150	.1649600	.1653054	.1656512	.1659974	
.1663440	.1666902	.1670368	.1673838	.1677312	.1680790	.1684272	.1687758	
.1691								

INDICATOR-DIAGRAM OF A SINGLE-CYLINDER ENGINE.

Definitions.—The *Atmospheric Line*, *AB*, is a line drawn by the indicator when the connections with the engine are closed and the sides of the piston are open to the atmosphere.

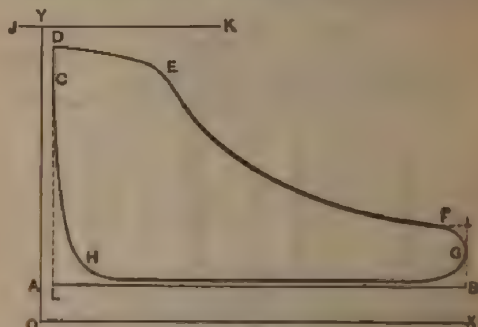


FIG. 133.

The *Vacuum Line*, *OX*, is a reference line usually drawn about 10 pounds by scale below the atmospheric line.

The *Clearance Line*, *OY*, is a reference line drawn at a distance from the end of the diagram equal to the same per cent of its length as the clearance and waste room is of the piston-displacement.

The *Line of Boiler-pressure*, *JK*, is drawn parallel to the atmospheric line, and at a distance from it by scale equal to the boiler-pressure given by the gauge.

The *Admission Line*, *CD*, shows the rise of pressure due to the admission of steam to the cylinder by opening the steam-valve.

The *Steam Line*, *DE*, is drawn when the steam-valve is open and steam being admitted to the cylinder.

The *Point of Cut-off*, *E*, is the point where the admission of steam is stopped by the closing of the valve. It is often difficult to determine the exact point at which the cut-off takes place. It is usually found that the outline of the diagram changes its curvature from convex to concave at this point.

The *Expansion Curve*, *EF*, shows the fall in pressure as the steam in the cylinder expands doing work.

The *Point of Release*, *F*, shows when the exhaust-valve opens.

The *Exhaust Line*, *FG*, represents the change in pressure taking place when the exhaust-valve opens.

The *Back-pressure Line*, *GH*, shows the pressure against which the steam acts during its return stroke.

The *Point of Exhaust Closure*, *H*, is the point where the exhaust-valve closes. It cannot be located definitely, as the change in pressure is due to the gradual closing of the valve.

The *Compression Curve*, *HC*, shows the rise in pressure due to the compression of the steam remaining in the cylinder after the exhaust-valve is closed.

The *Mean Height of the Diagram* equals its area divided by its length.

The *Mean Effective Pressure* is the mean net pressure acting the piston forward = the mean height \times the scale of the indicator-spring.

To find the *Mean Effective Pressure* from the Indicator.—Draw a length, *LB*, into a number, say 10, equal parts, setting off each equal part at *B*, and nine other parts between it, erect ordinates perpendicular to the atmospheric line at the points of division at *Lk*, making *LB* the length of the ordinates. Take the lengths of these ordinates, add them together, and divide by their number.

mean height, which multiplied by the scale of the indicator-spring (I.E.P.). Or find the area by a planimeter, or other means (see p. 55), and divide by the length LH to obtain the mean height. P Pressure is the pressure acting on the piston at the beginning of the stroke. P_0 Final Pressure is the pressure above the line of perfect vacuum exist at the end of the stroke if the steam had not been released is found by continuing the expansion-curve to the end of the

INDICATED HORSE-POWER OF ENGINES, SINGLE-CYLINDER.

$$\text{Indicated Horse-power I.H.P.} = \frac{P L a n}{33,000}$$

P = mean effective pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; L = length of stroke in inches; a = area of piston in square inches. For accuracy, one half of the area of the piston-rod must be subtracted from the area of the piston-rod passes through one head, or the whole area of the rod if it passes through both heads; n = No. of single strokes per min. = $\frac{1}{2} \times$ No. of

$$P = \frac{P a n}{33,000}, \text{ in which } S = \text{piston speed in feet per minute,}$$

$$P = \frac{P L^2 n}{42,017} = \frac{P d^2 n}{42,017} = .0000238 P L^2 n = .0000238 P d^2 n,$$

d = diam. of cyl. in inches. (The figures 238 are exact, since $42,017$ is exactly 2.38 times $17,660$.) If product of piston-speed \times mean effective pressure = $42,017$, then the horse-power would equal the square of the diameter.

Rule for Estimating the Horse-power of a Single-Cylinder Engine. Square the diameter and divide by 2. This is the product of the mean effective pressure and the piston-speed of $42,017$, or, say, $21,000$, viz., when M.E.P. = 30 and $S = 700$; or $P = 35$ and $S = 600$; when M.E.P. = 38.2 and $S = 550$; and when $P = 40$ and $S = 500$. These conditions correspond to those of ordinary high-speed engines and shaft governor high-speed engines.

Horse-power, Mean Effective Pressure, and Piston-Speed, to find Size of Cylinder.—

$$D = \frac{33,000 \times \text{I.H.P.}}{P L n}, \quad \text{Diameter} = 205 \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{P S}} \quad (\text{Exact})$$

Horse-power is the actual horse-power of the engine as indicated by a friction-brake or dynamometer. It is the indicated horse-power minus the friction of the engine.

For Roughly Approximating the Horse-power of a Single-Cylinder Engine from the Diameter of its Low-Speed Cylinder.—The indicated horse-power of an engine being

which P = mean effective pressure per sq. in., a = piston-speed in

d , and d = diam. of cylinder in inches; if $a = 600$ ft. per min., approximately the speed of modern stationary engines, and $P = 35$ is an approximately average figure for the M.E.P. of single-cylinder engines, and of compound engines referred to the low pressure end I.H.P. = $\frac{1}{2} d^2$; hence the rough-and-ready rule for horse-power is: Square the diameter in inches and divide by 2. This applies to multiple expansion engines as well as to single cylinder and

For most economical loading, the M.E.P. referred to the low-pressure end of compound engines is usually not greater than that of the high-pressure end. For the greater economy is obtained by a greater number of stages of higher pressures, and the greater the number of stages at a given initial pressure the lower the mean effective pressure. The following table gives approximately the figures of mean total and effective

ture pressures for the different types of engines, together with the factor which the square of the diameter $\frac{1}{16}$ is to be multiplied to obtain the power at most economical loading, for a piston-speed of 600 ft. per min.

Type of Engine.	Initial Absolute Steam-pressure.	Number of Expansion-steps.	Terminal Absolute Press., lbs.	Ratio Mean Total to Initial Pressure.	Mean Total Pressure, lbs.	Total Back Pressure, lbs.	Mean lbs. Live Steam Pressure, the ratio the piston speed, ft. per min.
Non-condensing.							
Single Cylinder.	100	5.	20	.522	52.2	15.5	96.7
Compound	130	7.5	16	.402	40.2	15.5	82.7
Triple.....	160	10	16	.330	33.0	15.5	67.5
Quadruple.....	200	12.5	10	.282	28.2	15.5	60.9

Condensing Engines.

Single Cylinder.	100	10.	10	.330	33.0	2	31.0
Compound.....	120	15.	8	.247	24.7	2	22.9
Triple.....	160	20.	8	.200	20.0	2	20.0
Quadruple.....	200	25.	8	.169	16.9	2	17.8

For any other piston-speed than 600 ft. per min., multiply the factor in the last column by the ratio of the piston-speed to 600 ft.

Nominal Horse-power.—The term "nominal horse-power" is not used in the time of Watt, and was used to express approximately the power of an engine as calculated from its diameter, estimating the mean pressure in the cylinder at 7 lbs. above the atmosphere. It has long been in use in America, and is nearly obsolete in England.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for a given Speed. = product of its area of piston in square inches, length of stroke in feet, and number of single strokes per minute divided by 33,000.

— C. The product of the mean effective pressure as found by the indicator, and this constant is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for a given Speed. = product of its area of piston and length of stroke in feet, divided by 33,000. This multiplied by the mean effective pressure and by the number of single strokes per minute is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of any Engine of a given Diameter of Cylinder, whatever the length of stroke = area of piston in square inches \times .000125. A table of constants derived from this formula is given below.

The constant multiplied by the piston-speed in feet per minute, the M.E.P. gives the I.H.P.

Errors of Indicators.—The most common error is that of the indicator, which may vary from its normal rating, the error may be due to improper testing apparatus and allowed for. But after making the correction, even with the best work, the results are liable to variable errors which amount to 2 or 3 per cent. See BARUS, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. 1, p. 400; A. S. M. E., xi. 329; David Smith, U. S. N., Proc. Eng. & Cond. Marine Division.

Indicator "Rigs," or Reducing-motions; Interpretation of Diagrams; Errors of Steam-distribution, etc. For these see chapters of general nature of Indicators; also works on the Indicator.

Table of Engine Constants for Use in Figuring Horse-power.—The "horse-power constant" for cylinders from 1 to 100 in diameter, advancing by .01 in, for one foot of piston-rod, is given in the second of M.E.P. Find the diameter of the cylinder in the table. If the diameter contains no fraction the constant will be a whole number. If the diameter contains a fraction the constant will be a decimal. If the diameter is not in the table, find the nearest diameter, and then read horizontally to the column corresponding to the required piston-speed.

Constants multiplied by the piston-speed and by the M.E.P. give the power.

Water in Pier.	Even Inches.	+ 1/8 or .125.	+ 1/4 or .25.	+ 3/8 or .375.	+ 1/2 or .5.	+ 5/8 or .625.	+ 3/4 or .75.	+ 7/8 or .875.
	.0000238	.0000301	.0000372	.0000450	.0000535	.0000628	.0000729	.0000837
	.0000252	.0001074	.0001205	.0001343	.0001487	.0001640	.0001800	.0001967
	.0002142	.0002324	.0002514	.0002711	.0002915	.0003127	.0003347	.0003574
	.0003808	.0004050	.0004299	.0004554	.0004819	.0005091	.0005370	.0005656
	.0005050	.0005251	.0005460	.0005676	.0005899	.0006129	.0006369	.0006615
	.0005568	.0005829	.0006097	.0006372	.0006655	.0006945	.0007241	.0007543
	.0011662	.0012082	.0012510	.0012944	.0013384	.0013837	.0014296	.0014759
	.0015292	.0015711	.0016138	.0016569	.0017005	.0017445	.0017889	.0018337
	.0019278	.0019677	.0020083	.0020496	.0020916	.0021341	.0021770	.0022203
	.0023400	.0023808	.0024224	.0024648	.0025079	.0025515	.0025956	.0026399
	.0027795	.0028245	.0028694	.0029144	.0029594	.0030044	.0030494	.0030944
	.0034272	.0034690	.0035114	.0035544	.0035979	.0036419	.0036860	.0037302
	.0040222	.0040699	.0041178	.0041657	.0042137	.0042617	.0043097	.0043578
	.0046648	.0047144	.0047638	.0048131	.0048625	.0049119	.0049613	.0050107
	.0053550	.0054044	.0054539	.0055031	.0055525	.0056019	.0056513	.0057007
	.0060928	.0061484	.0062047	.0062617	.0063187	.0063757	.0064327	.0064897
	.0068782	.0069307	.0069831	.0070356	.0070880	.0071405	.0071929	.0072454
	.0077112	.0077687	.0078262	.0078837	.0079412	.0079987	.0080562	.0081137
	.00855018	.0086076	.0086651	.0087226	.0087801	.0088376	.0088951	.0089526
	.0092000	.0092575	.0093150	.0093725	.0094300	.0094875	.0095450	.0096025
	.0104958	.0105533	.0106108	.0106683	.0107258	.0107833	.0108408	.0108983
	.0115192	.0115767	.0116342	.0116917	.0117492	.0118067	.0118642	.0119217
	.0125002	.0125577	.0126152	.0126727	.0127302	.0127877	.0128452	.0129027
	.0137098	.0137673	.0138248	.0138823	.0139398	.0139973	.0140548	.0141123
	.0147500	.0148075	.0148650	.0149225	.0149800	.0150375	.0150950	.0151525
	.0160998	.0161573	.0162148	.0162723	.0163298	.0163873	.0164448	.0165023
	.0173502	.0174077	.0174652	.0175227	.0175802	.0176377	.0176952	.0177527
	.0186592	.0187167	.0187742	.0188317	.0188892	.0189467	.0190042	.0190617
	.0200156	.0200731	.0201306	.0201881	.0202456	.0203031	.0203606	.0204181
	.0214200	.0214775	.0215350	.0215925	.0216500	.0217075	.0217650	.0218225
	.0228712	.0229287	.0229862	.0230437	.0231012	.0231587	.0232162	.0232737
	.0243712	.0244287	.0244862	.0245437	.0246012	.0246587	.0247162	.0247737
	.0259182	.0259757	.0260332	.0260907	.0261482	.0262057	.0262632	.0263207
	.0275128	.0275703	.0276278	.0276853	.0277428	.0278003	.0278578	.0279153
	.0291550	.0292125	.0292700	.0293275	.0293850	.0294425	.0295000	.0295575
	.0308448	.0309023	.0309598	.0310173	.0310748	.0311323	.0311898	.0312473
	.0325822	.0326397	.0326972	.0327547	.0328122	.0328697	.0329272	.0329847
	.0343672	.0344247	.0344822	.0345397	.0345972	.0346547	.0347122	.0347697
	.0361998	.0362573	.0363148	.0363723	.0364298	.0364873	.0365448	.0366023
	.0380800	.0381375	.0381950	.0382525	.0383100	.0383675	.0384250	.0384825
	.0400078	.0400653	.0401228	.0401803	.0402378	.0402953	.0403528	.0404103
	.0419892	.0420467	.0421042	.0421617	.0422192	.0422767	.0423342	.0423917
	.0440002	.0440577	.0441152	.0441727	.0442302	.0442877	.0443452	.0444027
	.0460468	.0461043	.0461618	.0462193	.0462768	.0463343	.0463918	.0464493
	.0481950	.0482525	.0483100	.0483675	.0484250	.0484825	.0485400	.0485975
	.0503908	.0504483	.0505058	.0505633	.0506208	.0506783	.0507358	.0507933
	.0526542	.0527117	.0527692	.0528267	.0528842	.0529417	.0529992	.0530567
	.0549852	.0550427	.0551002	.0551577	.0552152	.0552727	.0553302	.0553877
	.0573900	.0574475	.0575050	.0575625	.0576200	.0576775	.0577350	.0577925
	.0598600	.0599175	.0599750	.0600325	.0600900	.0601475	.0602050	.0602625
	.0623900	.0624475	.0625050	.0625625	.0626200	.0626775	.0627350	.0627925
	.0649800	.0650375	.0650950	.0651525	.0652100	.0652675	.0653250	.0653825
	.0676300	.0676875	.0677450	.0678025	.0678600	.0679175	.0679750	.0680325
	.0703400	.0703975	.0704550	.0705125	.0705700	.0706275	.0706850	.0707425
	.0731100	.0731675	.0732250	.0732825	.0733400	.0733975	.0734550	.0735125
	.0759400	.0759975	.0760550	.0761125	.0761700	.0762275	.0762850	.0763425
	.0788300	.0788875	.0789450	.0790025	.0790600	.0791175	.0791750	.0792325
	.0817800	.0818375	.0818950	.0819525	.0820100	.0820675	.0821250	.0821825
	.0847900	.0848475	.0849050	.0849625	.0850200	.0850775	.0851350	.0851925
	.0878600	.0879175	.0879750	.0880325	.0880900	.0881475	.0882050	.0882625
	.0909900	.0910475	.0911050	.0911625	.0912200	.0912775	.0913350	.0913925
	.0941800	.0942375	.0942950	.0943525	.0944100	.0944675	.0945250	.0945825
	.0974300	.0974875	.0975450	.0976025	.0976600	.0977175	.0977750	.0978325
	.1007400	.1007975	.1008550	.1009125	.1009700	.1010275	.1010850	.1011425
	.1041100	.1041675	.1042250	.1042825	.1043400	.1043975	.1044550	.1045125
	.1075400	.1075975	.1076550	.1077125	.1077700	.1078275	.1078850	.1079425
	.1110300	.1110875	.1111450	.1112025	.1112600	.1113175	.1113750	.1114325
	.1145800	.1146375	.1146950	.1147525	.1148100	.1148675	.1149250	.1149825
	.1181900	.1182475	.1183050	.1183625	.1184200	.1184775	.1185350	.1185925
	.1218600	.1219175	.1219750	.1220325	.1220900	.1221475	.1222050	.1222625
	.1255900	.1256475	.1257050	.1257625	.1258200	.1258775	.1259350	.1259925
	.1293800	.1294375	.1294950	.1295525	.1296100	.1296675	.1297250	.1297825
	.1332300	.1332875	.1333450	.1334025	.1334600	.1335175	.1335750	.1336325
	.1371400	.1371975	.1372550	.1373125	.1373700	.1374275	.1374850	.1375425
	.1411100	.1411675	.1412250	.1412825	.1413400	.1413975	.1414550	.1415125
	.1451400	.1451975	.1452550	.1453125	.1453700	.1454275	.1454850	.1455425
	.1492300	.1492875	.1493450	.1494025	.1494600	.1495175	.1495750	.1496325
	.1533800	.1534375	.1534950	.1535525	.1536100	.1536675	.1537250	.1537825
	.1575900	.1576475	.1577050	.1577625	.1578200	.1578775	.1579350	.1579925
	.1618600	.1619175	.1619750	.1620325	.1620900	.1621475	.1622050	.1622625
	.1661900	.1662475	.1663050	.1663625	.1664200	.1664775	.1665350	.1665925
	.1705800	.1706375	.1706950	.1707525	.1708100	.1708675	.1709250	.1709825
	.1750300	.1750875	.1751450	.1752025	.1752600	.1753175	.1753750	.1754325
	.1795400	.1795975	.1796550	.1797125	.1797700	.1798275	.1798850	.1799425
	.1841100	.1841675	.1842250	.1842825	.1843400	.1843975	.1844550	.1845125
	.1887400	.1887975	.1888550	.1889125	.1889700	.1890275	.1890850	.1891425
	.1934300	.1934875	.1935450	.1936025	.1936600	.1937175	.1937750	.1938325
	.1981800	.1982375	.1982950	.1983525	.1984100	.1984675	.1985250	.1985825
	.2029900	.2030475	.2031050	.2031625	.2032200	.2032775	.2033350	.2033925
	.2078600	.2079175	.2079750	.2080325	.2080900	.2081475	.2082050	.2082625
	.2117900	.2118475	.2119050	.2119625	.2120200	.2120775	.2121350	.2121925
	.2157800	.2158375	.2158950	.2159525	.2160100	.2160675	.2161250	.2161825
	.2198300	.2198875	.2199450	.2199925	.2200500	.2201075	.2201650	.2202225
	.2239400	.2239975	.2240550	.2241125	.2241700	.2242275	.2242850	.2243425
	.2281100	.2281675	.2282250	.2282825	.2283400	.2283975	.2284550	.2285125
	.2313400	.2313975	.2314550	.2315125	.2315700	.2316275	.2316850	.2317425
	.2346300	.2346875	.2347450	.2348025	.2348600	.2349175	.2349750	.2350325
	.2379800	.2380375	.2380950	.2381525	.2382100	.2382675	.2383250	.2383825
	.2413900	.2414475	.2415050	.2415625	.2416200	.2416775	.2417350	.2417925
	.2448600	.2449175	.2449750	.2450325	.2450900	.2451475	.2452050	.2452625
	.2483900	.2484475	.2485050	.2485625	.2486200	.2486775	.2487350	.2487925
	.2519800	.2520375	.2520950	.2521525	.2522100	.2522675	.2523250	.2523825
	.2556300	.2556875	.2557450	.2558025	.2558600	.2559175	.2559750	.2560325
	.2593400	.2593975	.2594550	.2595125	.2595700	.2596275	.2596850	.2597425
	.2631100	.2631675	.2632250	.2632825	.2633400	.2633975	.2634550	.2635125
	.2669400	.2669975	.2670550	.2671125	.2671700	.2672275	.2672850	.2673425
	.2708300	.2708875	.2709450	.2710025	.2710600	.2711175	.2711750	.2712325
	.2747800	.2748375	.2748950	.2749525	.2750100	.2750675	.2751250	.2751825
	.2787900	.2788475	.2789050	.2789625	.2790200	.2790775	.2791350	.2791925
	.2828600	.2829175	.2829750	.2830325	.2830900	.2831475	.2832050	.2832625
	.2869900	.2870475	.2871050	.2871625	.2872200	.2872775	.2873350	.2873925
	.2911800	.2912375	.2912950	.2913525	.2914100	.2914675	.2915250	.2915825
	.2954300	.2954875	.2955450	.2956025	.2956600	.2957175	.2957750	.2958325
	.2997400	.2997975	.2998550	.2999125	.3000000	.3000575	.3001150	.3001725
	.3041100	.3041675	.3042250	.3042825	.3043400	.3043975	.3044550	.3045125
	.							

Horse-power per Pound Mean Effective Pressure

Formula, $\frac{\text{Area in sq. in.} \times \text{piston speed}}{33,000}$

Diam. of Cylinder, inches.	Speed of Piston in feet per minute—							
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800
4	.0891	.0762	.1142	.1523	.1904	.2285	.2666	.3047
4½	.0182	.0064	.1116	.1928	.2410	.2892	.3374	.3856
5	.0505	.1190	.1785	.2380	.2975	.3570	.4165	.4760
5½	.0720	.1440	.2160	.2880	.3600	.4320	.5040	.5760
6	.0857	.1714	.2571	.3427	.4284	.5141	.6000	.6857
6½	.1000	.2011	.3017	.4022	.5028	.6033	.7039	.8045
7	.1166	.2332	.3499	.4665	.5831	.6997	.8163	.9329
7½	.1339	.2678	.4016	.5355	.6694	.8033	.9371	.1071
8	.1523	.3046	.4570	.6093	.7616	.9139	1.0662	1.2185
8½	.1720	.3439	.5159	.6878	.8598	1.0317	1.2037	1.3756
9	.1928	.3856	.5784	.7711	.9639	1.1567	1.3495	1.5423
9½	.2148	.4296	.6444	.8592	1.0740	1.2888	1.5036	1.7184
10	.2380	.4760	.7140	.9520	1.1900	1.4280	1.6660	1.9040
11	.2880	.5760	.8639	1.1519	1.4399	1.7279	2.0159	2.3039
12	.3427	.6854	1.0282	1.3709	1.7136	2.0563	2.3990	2.7417
13	.4022	.8044	1.2067	1.6093	2.0111	2.4133	2.8155	3.2177
14	.4665	.9330	1.3994	1.8639	2.3924	2.7699	3.1474	3.5293
15	.5355	1.0710	1.6065	2.1429	2.6775	3.0230	3.4185	3.8096
16	.6093	1.2186	1.8278	2.4311	3.0461	3.4237	3.8240	4.2243
17	.6878	1.3756	1.0635	2.6513	3.3397	3.6969	4.0747	4.5460
18	.7711	1.5422	2.3134	3.0845	3.8270	4.6267	5.2978	6.0189
19	.8592	1.7184	2.5775	3.4667	4.2659	5.1551	6.0143	6.8360
20	.9520	1.9040	2.8560	3.8080	4.7040	5.7120	6.6610	7.6080
21	1.0499	2.0999	3.1498	4.1983	5.2470	6.2975	7.3471	8.3917
22	1.1519	2.3038	3.4558	4.6077	5.7500	6.8015	8.0044	9.1000
23	1.2580	2.5180	3.7771	5.0361	6.2965	7.5511	8.8331	9.9666
24	1.3709	2.7418	4.1129	5.4835	6.8941	8.2259	9.5969	10.8000
25	1.4875	2.9750	4.4625	5.9500	7.4575	8.9250	10.4125	11.6125
26	1.6089	3.2178	4.8266	6.4375	8.0444	9.6811	11.2625	12.4600
27	1.7330	3.4700	5.2051	6.9400	8.6775	10.4700	12.1450	13.3375
28	1.8619	3.7318	5.5978	7.4625	9.3266	11.1966	13.0611	14.2444
29	2.0016	4.0032	6.0047	8.0063	10.0008	12.0009	14.0111	15.1875
30	2.1520	4.2840	6.4260	8.5680	10.7300	12.8522	14.9944	16.1600
31	2.2872	4.5744	6.8615	9.1487	11.4336	13.7323	16.0100	17.1600
32	2.4371	4.8742	7.3114	9.7485	12.1466	14.6331	17.0600	18.1875
33	2.5918	5.1836	7.7765	10.3677	12.8800	15.5500	18.1433	19.2400
34	2.7513	5.5026	8.2588	11.0065	13.7500	16.5000	19.2500	20.3600
35	2.9155	5.8310	8.7405	11.6662	14.6578	17.4899	20.3800	21.5000
36	3.0845	6.1690	9.2331	12.3399	15.5922	18.5000	21.5400	22.6600
37	3.2582	6.5164	9.7377	13.0393	16.5901	19.5319	22.7300	23.8400
38	3.4365	6.8734	10.2510	13.7447	17.5840	20.6020	23.9400	25.0400
39	3.6200	7.2400	10.7800	14.4660	18.7000	21.7000	25.1600	26.2600
40	3.8089	7.6160	11.3215	15.2032	19.8400	22.8400	26.4000	27.5000
41	4.0008	8.0016	12.0062	16.0003	20.0004	24.0005	27.6600	28.7600
42	4.1983	8.3966	12.5965	16.7980	20.9882	25.1900	28.9700	29.9600
43	4.4009	8.8012	13.2032	17.6002	22.0003	26.5000	30.3000	31.1800
44	4.6077	9.2154	13.8283	18.4331	23.0398	27.8400	31.6600	32.4200
45	4.8195	9.6390	14.4709	19.2778	24.0999	29.0151	33.0400	33.6800
46	5.0361	10.0722	15.1083	20.1444	25.1800	30.2100	34.4400	34.9600
47	5.2574	10.5145	15.7722	21.0330	26.2967	31.5400	35.8600	36.2600
48	5.4835	10.9667	16.4561	21.9394	27.4378	32.9001	37.2900	37.5800
49	5.7141	11.4289	17.1433	22.8588	28.5922	34.2899	38.7400	38.9200
50	5.9500	11.9000	17.8650	23.8000	29.7500	35.7000	40.2000	40.2800
51	6.1909	12.3811	18.5714	24.7662	30.9322	37.1400	41.5800	41.6600
52	6.4371	12.8711	19.3007	25.7444	32.1778	38.6100	42.9800	43.0600
53	6.6854	13.3700	20.0566	26.7422	33.4877	40.1000	44.4000	44.4800
54	6.9361	13.8780	20.8399	27.7600	34.8600	41.6000	45.8400	45.9200
55	7.1895	14.3960	21.6399	28.7988	36.2900	43.1000	47.3000	47.3800
56	7.4455	14.9240	22.4566	29.8588	37.7778	44.6000	48.7800	48.8600
57	7.7041	15.4620	23.2899	30.9399	39.3222	46.1000	50.2800	50.3600
58	7.9655	16.0100	24.1399	32.0422	40.9222	47.6000	51.7900	51.8800
59	8.2299	16.5680	24.9966	33.1666	42.5800	49.1000	53.3200	53.4000
60	8.4972	17.1360	25.8699	34.3111	44.2900	50.6000	54.8600	54.9400

correct form of the pendulum rigging. It is shown that the pulley on the pendulum, to which the cord is attached, does not

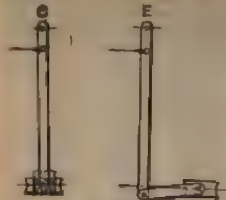


FIG. 141.

a serious error is introduced, which is magnified if a brumby pulley is used. The adjoining figures show the two forms recommended.

Theoretical Water-consumption calculated from Indicator-card.—The following method is given by Prof. (Power, Sept. 1893): p = mean effective pressure, l = length of foot, a = area of piston in square inches, $a + 144$ = area in square percentage of clearance to the stroke, b = percentage of stroke where water rate is to be computed, n = number of strokes per hour, $60n$ = number per hour, w = weight of a cubic foot of steam at the pressure as shown by the diagram corresponding to that at the water rate is required, w' = that corresponding to pressure at

$$\text{Number of cubic feet per stroke} = l \left(\frac{b+c}{100} \right) \frac{a}{144}.$$

$$\text{Corresponding weight of steam per stroke in lbs.} = l \left(\frac{b+c}{100} \right) \frac{a}{144} w.$$

$$\text{Volume of clearance} = \frac{lca}{14,400}.$$

$$\text{Weight of steam in clearance} = \frac{lcanw'}{14,400}.$$

$$\text{Total weight of steam per stroke} = l \left(\frac{b+c}{100} \right) \frac{wa}{144} - \frac{lcanw'}{14,400} = \frac{ln}{14,400} [(b+c)w - cw'].$$

$$\text{Total weight of steam from diagram per hour} = \frac{60lna}{14,400} [(b+c)w - cw'].$$

The indicated horse-power is $p l a n \div 33,000$. Hence the steam consumption per indicated horse-power is

$$= \frac{\frac{60lna}{14,400} [(b+c)w - cw']}{\frac{p l a n}{33,000}} = \frac{137.50}{p} [(b+c)w - cw'].$$

Changing the formula to a rule, we have: To find the water rate per indicated horse-power at any point in the stroke.

RULE.—To the percentage of the entire stroke which has been cut off by the piston at the point under consideration add the percentage of clearance. Multiply this result by the weight of a cubic foot of steam at the pressure of that at the required point. Subtract from this the percentage of clearance multiplied by weight of a cubic foot of steam at a pressure equal to that at the end of the compression. The result by 137.50 divided by the mean effective pressure.

NOTE.—This method only applies to points in the expansion of the steam cut off and release.

For triple expansion engines read dividing by 3 for mean effective pressure, on the supposition that all work

The beneficial effect of compression in reducing the water-consumption of the engine is clearly shown by the formula. If the compression is carried to the point that it produces a pressure equal to that at the point of expansion, the weight of steam per cubic foot is equal, and $w = w'$. In this case the effect of clearance entirely disappears, and the formula

$$\frac{187.5}{\mu} (\text{bu}).$$

of no compression, w' becomes zero, and the water-rate =

$$\frac{187}{p} - [(b + c)u].$$

Denton (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1363) gives the following table of total water-consumption for a perfect Mariotte expansion with steam at 100 lb. above atmosphere, and 2 lbs. absolute back pressure :

of Expansion, <i>r</i> .	M.E.P., lbs. per sq. in.	Lbs. of Water per hour per horse-power, <i>W</i> .
10	52.4	9.65
15	38.7	8.74
20	30.4	8.20
25	25.9	7.84
30	22.2	7.63
35	19.5	7.45

ifference between the theoretical water-consumption found by the and the actual consumption as found by test represents "water not ed for by the indicator," due to cylinder condensation, leakage ports, radiation, etc.

Leakage of Steam.—Leakage of steam, except in rare instances, has no effect upon the lines of the diagram that it can scarcely be detected. A satisfactory way to determine the tightness of an engine is to take it out in motion, apply a full boiler-pressure to the valve, placed in a position, and to the piston as well, which is blocked for the purpose at a distance away from the end of the stroke, and see by the eye whether it occurs. The indicator-cocks provide means for bringing into view which leaks through the steam-valves, and in most cases that which is the piston, and an opening made in the exhaust-pipe or observation-atmospheric escape-pipe, are generally sufficient to determine with regard to the exhaust-valves.

gain accounted for by the indicator should be computed for both off and the release points of the diagram. If the expansion-line detached from the hyperbolic curve a very different result is shown at it from that shown at the other. In such cases the extent of the expansion by cylinder condensation and leakage is indicated in a much different manner at the cut-off than at the release. (Tabor Indicator

COMPOUND ENGINES.

pound, Triple- and Quadruple-expansion Engines.

compound engine is one having two or more cylinders, and in which, after doing work in the first or high-pressure cylinder completion in the other cylinder or cylinders.

From "compound" is commonly restricted, however, to engines in which expansion takes place in two stages only—high and low pressure. Triple-expansion and quadruple-expansion engines being used where expansion takes place respectively in three and four stages. The number of stages may be greater than the number of stages of expansion for three different reasons; thus in the compound or two-stage expansion engine the pressure stage may be effected in two cylinders so as to obtain stages of nearly equal sizes of cylinders and of three cranks in triple expansion engines there are frequently two of them being placed tandem with the high pressure intermediate cylinder, as in mill engines with quadruple expansion engines of the steamers *Campania*.

Werner, &c. and Rankine, $\frac{p}{p_1} = r$ being the ratio of expansion. But measure the ratio dependent on the boiler-pressure thus.

lbs. per sq. in.	60	90	105	120
$r = \frac{p}{p_1}$	3	4	4.5	5

(See *Seaton's Manual*, p. 26, etc., for analytical method; *Sennett*, p. 40, etc.; *Clark's Steam-engine*, p. 445, etc.; *Clark, Rules, Tables, Data*, p. 39, etc.)

M. M. Farlane Gray states that he finds the mean effective pressure of the compound engine reduced to the low-pressure cylinder to be equal to the square root of 4 times the boiler pressure.

Approximate Horse-power of a Modern Compound Marine-engine. (Seaton.)—The following rule will give approximately the horse-power developed by a compound engine made in accordance with

modern marine practice. Estimated H.P. = $\frac{p \pi \times \sqrt{p} \times R \times S}{3300}$

D = diameter of l.p. cylinder; p = boiler-pressure by gauge;

R = revs. per min.; S = stroke of piston in feet.

Ratio of Cylinder Capacity in Compound Marine Engines. (Seaton.)—The low-pressure cylinder is the measure of the p.

of a compound engine, for so long as the initial steam pressure and initial expansion are the same, it signifies very little, so far as total power is concerned, whether the ratio between the low and high-pressure cylinders is 2 or 1, but as the power developed should be nearly equally divided between the two cylinders, in order to get a good and steady working engine, there is a necessity for exercising a considerable amount of discretion in fixing off the ratio.

In choosing a particular ratio the objects are to divide the power evenly and to avoid as much as possible "drop" and high initial strain.

If increased economy is to be obtained by increased boiler pressure, the rate of expansion should vary with the initial pressure, so that the pressure at which the steam enters the condenser should remain constant. In the case with the ratio of cylinders constant, the cut-off in the high-pressure cylinder will vary inversely as the initial pressure.

Let r be the ratio of the cylinders; r , the rate of expansion; p_1 the initial pressure; then cut-off in high-pressure cylinder = $R \div r$; r varies with p_1 so that the terminal pressure p_m is constant and consequently $r = p_1 \div p_m$. Therefore cut-off in high-pressure cylinder = $R \times p_m \div p_1$.

Ratio of Cylinders as Found in Marine Practice.—The ratio of cylinders may be taken at one-tenth of the boiler-pressure (absolute), and the absolute pressure, to work economically at full speed, when the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder does not exceed 30 ins., and the boiler-pressure 70 lbs., the ratio of the low-pressure cylinder to the high-pressure cylinder should be 3.5; for a boiler-pressure of 80 lbs. it should be 4.0; for 90 lbs., 4.5. If these proportions are adhered to, the use or want of an expansion-valve to either cylinder. If, however, the ratio be reduced, an expansion-valve should be fitted to the high-pressure cylinder.

The economy of steam is not of first importance, but rather a consideration of cylinder capacities may with advantage be decreased. At a boiler pressure of 100 lbs. it may be 3.75 to 4.

In marine engines there is no necessity to divide the work equally between cylinders, but when the steam-pressure exceeds 90 lbs. absolute, the ratio should be 3.5 to 4.

When the boiler pressure is that the l. p. cylinder shall be more than 100 ins. in diameter, it should be divided into two cylinders. In this case the ratio of the diameter of the two l. p. cylinders to that of the h. p. may be 3.4 for 80 lbs., 3.4 for 90 lbs., 3.7 for 105 lbs. and 4.0 for 115 lbs.

Measures Space in Compound Engines should be from 1.5 to 2.0 times the space of the high-pressure cylinder, when the cranks are at 90° or 120°. When the cranks are at 180° or nearly so, the space should be reduced. In the case of triple-compound engines the ratio is 1.5 to 2.0 and the intermediate cylinder leading the low-pressure cylinder will do. The pressure in the receiver should be about half the boiler pressure. (Seaton.)

erbolic curve of expansion in the first cylinder, and gh the continuation-line of back pressure stroke of the first piston, the pressure for the steam-cond piston. At the point h the stroke of the second piston is exhausted into the vacuum, ml .

of the second cylinder, characterized by the absence of period of admission; the steam-line gh being expanded by the expansion of y of steam contained in h into the second. When stroke is completed, the steam transferred from h into the second cylinder, pressure and volume of a second cylinder are the whole of the initial steam had been admitted at once into the receiver engine.

of the steam is also the same, according to both distributions, **engine, without Clearance. Ideal Diagrams.**—Receiver-engine the pistons of the two cylinders are connected at right angles to each other on the same shaft. The steam exhausted from the first cylinder and supplies it to which the steam is cut off and then expanded to the end of the receiver, the volume cut off in the second cylinder must be the same as the volume cut off in the first cylinder, for the second cylinder must admit at each stroke as is discharged from the first cylinder.

is the line of admission and hg the exhaust-line for the first

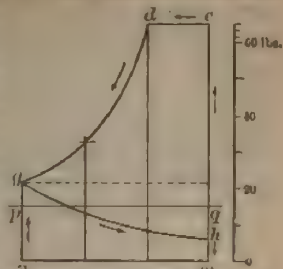


FIG. 142.—WOOLF ENGINE—IDEAL INDICATOR DIAGRAMS.



FIG. 143.—RECEIVER ENGINE, IDEAL INDICATOR DIAGRAMS.

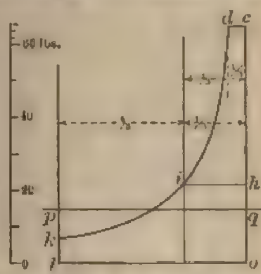


FIG. 144.—RECEIVER ENGINE, IDEAL INDICATOR DIAGRAMS REDUCED AND COMBINED.

hg is the expansion-curve and pg the atmospheric line. In the exhaust-line of the first cylinder, between it and the vacuum, ol , the diagram of the second cylinder is formed: hi , of admission, coincides with the exhaust line hg of the first cylinder in the ideal diagram no intermediate fall of pressure, and non-curve. The arrows indicate the order in which the

of the receiver-engine, the expansive working of the receiver is divided into two consecutive stages, is, as in the continuous from the point of cut-off in the first stroke of the second cylinder, where it is defined in the first and second diagrams may be placed

combined to form a continuous diagram. For this purpose take the diagram as the basis of the combined diagram, namely, *hokle*, Fig. 1. The period of admission, *hi*, is one third of the stroke, and as the two cylinders are as 1 to 3, *hi* is also the proportional length of the first as applied to the second. Produce *oh* upwards, and set off *oe* equal to the total height of the first diagram above the vacuum-line *am*, and shorten the base *hi*, and the height *he*, complete the first diagram of steam-line *ed*, and the expansion line *di*.

It is shown by Clark (S. E., p. 432, *et seq.*) in a series of calculations, that the receiver-engine is an elastic system of compound, in which considerable latitude is afforded for adapting the pressure of the receiver to the demands of the second cylinder, without considerably diminishing the effective work of the engine. In the Woolf engine, on the contrary, it is of much importance that the intermediate volume between the first and second cylinders, which is the cause of an immediate fall of pressure, should be reduced to the lowest practicable.

Supposing that there is no loss of steam in passing through the receiver by cooling and condensation, it is obvious that whatever steam passes through the first cylinder must also find its way through the second cylinder. By varying, therefore, in the receiver-engine, the period of admission in the second cylinder, and thus also the volume of steam admitted to the stroke, the steam will be measured into it at a higher pressure and of a bulk, or at a lower pressure and of a greater bulk; the pressure and bulk naturally adjusting themselves to the volume that the steam from the first cylinder is permitted to occupy in the second cylinder. With a wide admission, the pressure in the receiver may be maintained nearly equal to the pressure of the steam as exhausted from the first cylinder. On the contrary, with a wider admission, the pressure in the receiver may be "dropped" to three fourths or even one half of the pressure of the steam from the first cylinder.

(For a more complete discussion of the action of steam in the receiver engine, see Clark on the Steam engine.)

Combined Diagrams of Compound Engines.—The method of making a correct combined diagram from the indicator diagrams of several cylinders in a compound engine is to set off all the diagrams on the same horizontal scale of volumes, adding the clearances to the cylinders

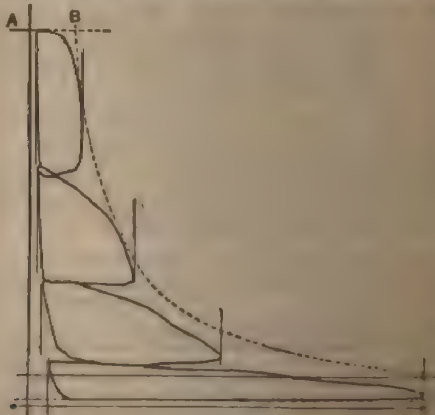


Fig. 1M.

proper. When this is attended to, the successive diagrams will fall into their right places relatively to one another, and will agree with any theoretical expansion-curve. (Proc. A. S. M. E., N. E., Oct. 1886.)

Werner, $\frac{1}{2}$; and Rankine, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, r being the ratio of expansion makes the ratio dependent on the boiler-pressure thus.

Lbs. per sq. in.	60	90	105
$\sqrt{P + 6}$	= 3	4	4.5

(See Seaton's Manual, p. 95, etc., for analytical method; Seaton; Clark's Steam-engine, p. 445, etc; Clark, Rules, Tables, &c.)

Mr. J. McFarlane Gray states that he finds the mean efficiency of the compound engine reduced to the low-pressure cylinder is merely the square root of 5 times the boiler-pressure.

Approximate Horse-power of a Modern Compound Marine-engine. (Seaton.)—The following rule will give approximately the horse-power developed by a compound engine made in accordance

modern marine practice. Estimated H.P. = $\frac{D^2 \times S \times p \times R \times E}{7460}$

D = diameter of l.p. cylinder; p = boiler-pressure by gauge; R = revs. per min.; S = stroke of piston in feet.

Ratio of Cylinder Capacity in Compound Engines. (Seaton.)—The low-pressure cylinder is the measure of a compound engine, for so long as the initial steam pressure and expansion are the same. It signifies very little, so far as total power concerned, whether the ratio between the low and high pressure is 3 or 4; but as the power developed should be nearly equal between the two cylinders, in order to get a good and steady work there is a necessity for exercising a considerable amount of fixing on the ratio.

In choosing a particular ratio the objects are to divide the power and to avoid as much as possible "drop," and high initial steam.

If increased economy is to be obtained by increased boiler pressure, the rate of expansion should vary with the initial pressure, so that at which the steam enters the condenser should remain constant. If, with the ratio of cylinders constant, the cut-off in the low cylinder will vary inversely as the initial pressure.

Let R be the ratio of the cylinders; r , the rate of expansion; p , pressure; then cut off in high-pressure cylinder = $R + 1$; r cut so that the terminal pressure p_n is constant, and consequently therefore, cut off in high pressure cylinder = $R \times p_n \div p$.

Ratio of Cylinders as Found in Marine Practice.—The rate of expansion may be taken at one-tenth of the boiler pressure, one-twelfth the absolute pressure), to work economically at. Therefore, when the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder does 100 inches, and the boiler-pressure 70 lbs., the ratio of the low to the high-pressure cylinder should be 3.5; for a boiler-pressure of 90 lbs., 4.0; for 100 lbs., 4.5. If these proportions are adhered to, there will be no need of an expansion-valve to either cylinder. If "drop," the ratio be reduced, an expansion-valve should be in the high-pressure cylinder.

Where economy of steam is not of first importance, but rather power, the ratio of cylinder capacities may with advantage be so that with a boiler pressure of 100 lbs. it may be 3.75 to 4.

In tandem engines there is no necessity to divide the work, the ratio is generally 4, but when the steam-pressure exceeds 90 lbs. is better, and for 100 lbs. 5.0.

When the power requires that the l.p. cylinder shall be more diameter, it should be divided in two cylinders. In this case the combined capacity of the two l.p. cylinders to that of the h.p. for 75 lbs. absolute, 3.4 for 95 lbs., 3.7 for 105 lbs., and 4.0 for 115.

Receiver Space in Compound Engines.—The receiver should be 1.5 times the capacity of the high pressure cylinder, when the angle of turn is from 90° to 120°. When the cranks are at 180° the space may be very much reduced. In the case of triple engines, with cranks at 120° and the intermediate cylinder last pressure, a very small receiver will do. The pressure in the receiver should be half the boiler pressure. (Seaton.)

or Calculating the Expansion and the Work of Steam in Compound Engines.

(Condensed from Clark on the "Steam-engine.")

the first cylinder in square inches;
 the second cylinder in square inches;
 the capacity of the second cylinder to that of the first;
 the stroke in feet, supposed to be the same for both cylinders;
 the admission to the first cylinder in feet, excluding clearance;
 at each end of the cylinders, in parts of the stroke, in feet;
 the stroke plus the clearance, in feet;
 the admission plus the clearance, in feet;
 a given part of the stroke of the second cylinder, in feet;
 the initial pressure in the first cylinder, in lbs. per square inch, sup-
 posed to be uniform during admission;
 the pressure at the end of the given part of the stroke;
 the total pressure for the whole stroke;
 the ratio of expansion in the first cylinder, or $L \div l$;
 the ratio of expansion in the first cylinder, or $L' \div l'$;
 the combined ratio of expansion, in the first and second cylinders;
 the final pressure in the first cylinder to any intermediate
 pressure between the first and second cylinders;
 the volume of the intermediate space in the Woolf engine,
 and up to, and including the clearance of the second piston,
 the capacity of the first cylinder plus its clearance. The value
 is correctly expressed by the actual ratio of the volumes, on
 the assumption that the intermediate space is a vacuum,
 and receives the exhaust-steam from the first cylinder. In point
 of fact, there is a residuum of un-exhausted steam in the interme-
 diate space, at low pressure, and the value of N is thereby prac-
 tically reduced below the ratio here stated. $N = \frac{n}{n-1} - 1$.

the work in one stroke, in foot-pounds.

the expansion in the second cylinder:

$$\text{In the Woolf engine, } \frac{\left(r \frac{L}{L'}\right) + N}{1 + N};$$

$$\text{In the receiver-engine, } \frac{(n-1)r}{n}.$$

the ratio of expansion = product of the ratios of the three con-
 ditions, in the first cylinder, in the intermediate space, and
 in the second cylinder,

$$\text{In the Woolf engine, } R' \left(r \frac{L}{L'} + N\right);$$

$$\text{In the receiver-engine, } r \frac{L'}{L}, \text{ or } rR'.$$

$$\text{the ratio of expansion behind the pistons} = \frac{n-1}{n} r R' = R''.$$

the work in the two cylinders for one stroke, with a given cut-off and a
 given actual ratio of expansion:

$$\text{Woolf engine, } w = aP[l'(1 + \text{hyp log } R'') - r];$$

$$\text{Receiver-engine, } w = aP \left[l'(1 + \text{hyp log } R'') - r \left(1 + \frac{r-1}{R'}\right) \right].$$

the intermediate fall of pressure.

the intermediate fall, when the pressure falls to $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{1}{3}$
 of the initial pressure in the 1st cylinder, the reduction of work is 0.25, 1.05, 4.05, and 10.05 per cent.

Common Rule for Proportioning the Cylinders of multiple engines is: for two-cylinder compound engines, the cylinder square root of the number of expansions, and for triple-expansion ratios of the high to the intermediate and of the intermediate to the low being the cube root of the number of expansions, the high to the low being the product of the two ratios, that is, the cube root of the number of expansions. Applying this rule to the above given, assuming a terminal pressure (absolute) of 10 lbs. respectively, we have, for triple-expansion engines:

Terminal Pressure, 10 lbs.		Terminal Pressure, 8 lbs.	
No. of Expansions.	Cylinder Ratios, areas.	No. of Expansions.	Cylinder Ratios, areas.
13	1 to 2.35 to 5.53	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 to 2.53 to 6.42
14	1 to 2.41 to 5.81	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 to 2.60 to 6.74
15	1 to 2.47 to 6.08	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 to 2.66 to 7.06
16	1 to 2.52 to 6.35	20	1 to 2.71 to 7.37

of the diameters is the square root of the ratios of the areas, and the diameters of the first and third cylinders is the same as the areas of first and second.

In his *Marine Engineering*, says: When the pressure of steam emerges 115 lbs. absolute, it is advisable to employ three cylinders, each of which the steam expands in turn. The ratio of the low-high-pressure cylinder in this system should be 5, when the pressure is 125 lbs. absolute; when 135 lbs. absolute, 5.4; when 145 lbs. absolute, 5.8; when 155 lbs. absolute, 6.2; when 165 lbs. absolute, 6.6. If low-pressure to intermediate cylinder should be about one half of low-pressure and high-pressure, as given above. That is, if 1 l. p. to h. p. is 6, that of l. p. to int. should be about 3, and consequent of int. to h. p. about 2. In practice the ratio of int. to h. p. is so that the diameter of the int. cylinder is 1.5 that of the h. p. portion of the triple-compound engine has admitted of ships being at higher rates of speed than formerly obtained without exceeding ration of fuel of similar ships fitted with ordinary compound in such cases the higher power to obtain the speed has been developed by increasing the rate of expansion, the low-pressure cylinder being in the capacity of the high-pressure, with a working pressure of absolute. It is now a very general practice to make the diameter of the intermediate cylinder equal to the sum of the diameters of the h. p. and l. p.; hence,

diameter of int. cylinder = 1.5 diameter of h. p. cylinder;
diameter of l. p. cylinder = 2.5 diameter of h. p. cylinder.

As the ratio of l. p. to h. p. is 6.35; the ratio of int. to h. p. is 2.35; of l. p. to int. is 2.78.

of Cylinders for Different Classes of Engines.

M. E., Feb. 1887, p. 361.—As to the best ratios for the cylinders of an engine there seems to be great difference of opinion. Consideration, however, is due to the requirements of the case, inasmuch as it is expected that the same ratio would be suitable for an economical engine, where the space occupied and the weight were of importance, as in a war ship, where the conditions were reversed. In an engine, for example, a theoretical terminal pressure of about 7 absolute vacuum would probably be aimed at, which would give a capacity of high pressure to low pressure of 1 to 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ or 1 to 8. In a war ship a terminal pressure would be required of 12 to 13 lbs. absolute, and need a ratio of capacity of 1 to 5; yet in both these instances the cylinders were correctly proportioned and suitable to the requirements. It is obviously unwise, therefore, to introduce any hard-and-

Three-stage Expansion Engines.—1. Three cranks.

Two cranks with 1st and 2d cylinders tandem, 3. Two cranks with 1st and 3d cylinders tandem. The most common type is 1. Two cylinders arranged in the sequence high, intermediate, low.

Sequence of Cranks.—Mr. Wyllie (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1887) gave sequence high, low, intermediate, while Mr. Mudd favors high, low, low. The former sequence, high, low, intermediate, gave an approximately horizontal exhaust-line, and thus minimizes the range of receiver initial load; the latter sequence, high, intermediate, low, increases range and also the load.

Mr. Morrison, in discussing the question of sequence of cranks, gave a diagram showing that with the cranks arranged in the sequence low, intermediate, the mean compression into the receiver was 17% of the stroke; with the sequence high, intermediate, low, it was 15%.

In the former case the compression was just what was required, the receiver-pressure practically uniform; in the latter case the compression caused a variation in the receiver-pressure to the extent some 25%, lbs.

Velocity of Steam through Passages in Compound Engines. (Proc. Inst. M. E., Feb. 1887.)—In the SS. *Fura*, taking of the cylinder multiplied by the piston-speed in feet per second, dividing by the area of the port the velocity of the initial steam in the high-pressure cylinder port would be about 100 feet per second; in the intermediate cylinder the initial steam would be about 90. In the intermediate cylinder the initial steam had a velocity of about 180, and the exhaust of 130. In the low cylinder the initial steam entered through the port with a velocity of about 140, and in the exhaust-port the velocity was about 140 feet per second.

QUADRUPL-EXPANSION ENGINES.

H. H. Supplee (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 583) states that a study of 14 quadruple-expansion engines, nearly all intended to be operated at a pressure of 180 lbs. per sq. in., gave average cylinder ratios of 1 to 2, 2 to 4, 4 to 8, or nearly in the proportions 1, 2, 4, 8.

If we take the ratio of areas of any two adjoining cylinders as the root of the number of expansions, the ratio of the 1st to the 4th will be the fourth root. On this basis the ratios of areas for different pressures and rates of expansion will be as follows:

Gauge-pressures.	Absolute Pressures.	Terminal Pressures.	Ratio of Expansion	Ratio of Areas of Cyls.
100	175	12	14.0	1.195
		10	17.5	1.205
		8	21.9	1.220
180	195	12	16.2	1.201
		10	19.5	1.210
		8	24.4	1.226
200	215	12	17.9	1.205
		10	21.5	1.215
		8	26.0	1.230
220	235	12	19.6	1.210
		10	23.5	1.220
		8	29.4	1.235

Seaton says: When the pressure of steam employed exceeds 100 lbs. per sq. in., four cylinders should be employed, with the steam expansion in each successively; and the ratio of l. p. to h. p. should be as low as possible. If economy of fuel is of prime consideration it should be as low as possible. The ratio of l. p. to h. p. should be 1.8, that of second intermediate to l. p. 2, and that of l. p. to second int. 2.2.

In a paper read before the North East Coast Institution of Engineering Shipbuilders, 1890, William Russell Cummins advocates the use of a quadruple cylinder engine with four cranks as being more suitable for high speeds than the three-cylinder three-crank engine. The cylinder ratios should be designed so as to obtain equal initial loads in each of the cylinders. The ratios determined for the triple engine are 1, 2.34, 4.54, and for the quadruple 1, 2.08, 4.46, 10.47. He advocates long stroke, high piston velocities, 1000 ft. per minute, and 250 lbs. boiler-pressure, no jacketing of cylinders, and steam and exhaust valves.

Table of Diameters of Recent Triple-expansion Engines, Chiefly Marine.

Compiled from several sources, 1890-1893.

Notes: *H* = high pressure, *I* = intermediate, *L* = low pressure.

<i>L</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>L</i>
8	16	25.6	41	22	36	40	36	58	94
13	16.4	23.6	38.5	23	38	40	38	61.5	100
12	16.5	24.5	31	23.5	38	61	28	56	86
12.5	17	27	44	24	37	56	39	61	97
18.2	17	26.5	42	25	40	64	40	59	88
19	17	28	45	26	42	60	39	57	106
16	18	27	40	26	42.5	70	40	60	100
22.5	18	29	48	28	44	72	41	66	101
25.6	18	30.5	51	28.5	44	70	41.5	67	109.5
25	18.5	29.5	43.5	29.5	46	78	42	60	92
24	18.5	33.6	35.4	30	48	77	43	66	92
25	19.7	29.0	47.5	32	46	70	43	68	110
30	20	30	43	32	51	82	43.5	67	106.4
26.5	20	32.5	36	33	54	82	45	71	113
30.5	20	32	32	33.9	55.1	84	45.5	68	185.7
30.7	21	32	48	34	54	85	47	75	181.5
33.3	21	36	51	34	50	90	47	75	181.5
36	21.7	33.5	49.2	34.5	51	85	47	79	98
39	21.9	34	57	34.5	57	92	47	79	98
38	22	34	51						

Figures are bracketed there are two cylinders of a kind. Two 31", two 31" = one 42.8", two 32.5" = one 46.0", two 36" = one 52.3", two 40" = one 56.6", two 51.5" = one 115", two 57" = one 140". The average ratio of diameters of the engines in the above table is nearly 1 to 1.60 to 2.56 and was nearly 1 to 2.56 to 6.55.

Comparison of the Corliss engine at the Centennial Exhibition with the Allis-Corliss quadruple-expansion engine at the Chicago

	1893. { Quadruple- expansion. }	1876. Simple
Number of cylinders	4	2
Stroke	24, 40, 60, 70 in.	40 in.
Weight	72 in.	120 in.
Diameter of face	30 ft.	30 ft.
Weight of face	76 in.	34 in.
Weight per minute	186,000 lbs.	125,440 lbs.
Weight of face	60	36
Weight of face	2000 H.P.	1400 H.P.
Weight of face	3000 H.P.	2500 H.P.
Weight of face	650,000 lbs.	1,360,000 lbs.

The shaft body or wheel-seat of the Allis engine has a diameter of 19 inches, and crank bearings 18 inches, with a total of 18 inches. The crank-disks are of cast iron and are 8 feet in diameter—plus are 9 inches in diameter by 9 inches long.

Tandem Triple-expansion Engine, built by Watts, & Co., Newark, N. J., is described in *Am. Mach.*, April 26, 1894. The cylinder tandem engines coupled to one shaft, cranks at 90°, and 48 in. stroke, 65 revolutions per minute, rated H.P. 18,000; main shaft 12 ft. diameter, 12 ft. face, weight 174,000 lbs.; main shaft at the crank; main journals 19 x 28 in.; crank-plus 9 1/2 x 10 in.; eccentric lines of two engines 24 ft. 1 1/2 in.; Corliss eccentricities for the exhaust valves of the l.p. cylinder

Principal Engine in the Power-Plant at the World's Columbian Exposition, 1893.

[illegible]

ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE OF STEAM-ENGINES. Economy of Expansive Working under Various Condi- tions, Single Cylinder.

(Abridged from Clark on the Steam Engine.)

SINGLE CYLINDERS WITH SUPERHEATED STEAM, NONCONDENSING.—In-cylinder locomotive, cylinders and steam-pipes enveloped by the hot air in the smoke-box. Net boiler pressure 100 lbs.; net maximum pressure in cylinders 80 lbs. per sq. in.

Eff. per cent.	20	25	30	35	40	50	60	70	80
Ratio of expansion	3.91	3.31	2.87	2.53	2.26	1.86	1.59	1.39	1.23
Water per I.H.P. per hour,									
.....	18.5	19.4	20	21.2	22.2	24.5	27	30	33

SINGLE CYLINDERS WITH SUPERHEATED STEAM, CONDENSING.—The best results obtained by Horn, with a cylinder $23\frac{3}{4} \times 87$ in. and steam superheated 150° F., expansion ratio $3\frac{3}{4}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$, total maximum pressure in cylinder to 60 lbs. were 15.63 and 15.99 lbs. of water per I.H.P. per hour.

SINGLE CYLINDERS OF SMALL SIZE, 8 OR 9 IN. DIAM., JACKETED, NONCONDENSING.—The best results are obtained at a cut-off of 20 per cent, with a maximum pressure in the cylinder; about 25 lbs. of water per I.H.P. per hour.

SINGLE CYLINDERS, NOT STEAM-JACKETED, CONDENSING.—Best results.

Engine.	Cylinder, Diam. and Stroke.	Cut-off.	Actual Expan- sion Ratio.	Total Maxi- mum Pressure in Cyl- inder per sq. in.	Water as Steam per I.H.P. per hour.
	Ins.	per cent.	ratio.	lbs.	lbs.
Walsby and Wheelock ...	18×48	12.5	6.95	104.4	19.53
No. 6.	$23\frac{3}{4} \times 67$	16.3	5.84	61.5	19.93
.....	52×66	24.6	3.84	54.5	26.46
.....	25×24	18.5	5.32	87.7	26.25
.....	26×36	18.3	4.46	60.4	26.86
.....	35×30	18.3	5.07	46.9	26.69
.....	30.1×30	15.0	4.94	81.7	21.89

SAME ENGINES, AVERAGE RESULTS.

Long Stroke.	Inches.	Cut-off, Per cent.	Lbs.	Lbs.
Walsby and Wheelock ...	18×48	12.5	104.4	19.53
.....	$23\frac{3}{4} \times 67$	16.3	61.5	19.93
Short Stroke.				
.....	25×24	18.5	87.7	26.25
Eng. Nos. 20, 21, 22, 23	26×36	18.3 to 33.3 average 25	79.0	24.05
Eng. Nos. 27, 28, 29..	36×30	18.3 to 26.4 average 19.8	46.8	26.86
Eng. Nos. 24, 25, 23, 1	30.1×30	12.5 to 15.5 average 15.8	78.2	23.50

Feed-water Consumption of Different Types of Engines.

The following tables are taken from the circular of the Tabor Indicator Works Mfg. Co., 1889). In the first of the two columns under Feed-water consumed, in the tables for simple engines, the figures are obtained by calculation from nearly perfect indicator diagrams, with allowance for cylinder condensation according to the table on page 752, but without allowance for leakage, with back-pressure in the non-condensing table taken at 15 lbs. above zero, and in the condensing table at 3 lbs. above zero. The condensing curve is supposed to be hyperbolic, and commences at 0.31 of stroke, with a clearance of 3% of the piston-displacement. No. 2 gives the feed-water consumption for jacketed compound

densing engines of the best class. The water condensed is included in the quantities given. The ratio of areas of the two as 1 to 4 for 120 lbs. pressure; the clearance of each cylinder cut off in the two cylinders occurs at the same point of stroke; pressure in the l. p. cylinder is 1 lb. per sq. in. below the back of h. p. cylinder. The average back pressure of the whole area of cylinder is 4.5 lbs. for 10% cut-off; 4.75 lbs. for 20% cut-off, and cut-off. The steam accounted for by the indicator at cut-off cylinder (allowing a small amount for leakage) is .74 at 10% cut-off, .82 at 20% cut-off, and .89 at 30% cut-off. The loss by condensation between is such that the steam accounted for at cut off in the l. p. cylinder is in proportion of that shown at release in the h. p. cylinder 10% cut-off, .87 at 20% cut-off, and .89 at 30% cut-off.

The data upon which table No. 3 is calculated are not given, but water consumption is somewhat lower than has yet been recorded, lowest steam consumption of a triple-exp. engine yet recorded.

TABLE No. 1.

FEED-WATER CONSUMPTION, SIMPLE ENGINES.
NON-CONDENSING ENGINES. CONDENSING ENGINES.

Per Cent Cut-off.	Non-Condensing Engines.		Feed-water Required per I.H.P. per Hour.		Condensing Engines.		Feed-water Required per I.H.P. per Hour.	
	Initial Pressure above Atmosphere, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Corresponding to Diagrams with no Leakage, lbs.	Corresponding to Actual Results Attained in Practice, assuming Slight Leakage.	Initial Pressure above Atmosphere, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Corresponding to Diagrams with no Leakage, lbs.	Corresponding to Actual Results Attained in Practice, assuming Slight Leakage.
10	60	8.70	37.26	40.95	5	60	14.42	15.42
	70	12.33	30.99	33.68		70	16.96	17.96
	80	16.07	27.81	29.88		80	19.50	20.50
	90	19.76	25.43	27.43		90	22.04	23.04
	100	23.45	23.45	25.73		100	24.58	25.58
20	60	21.12	27.55	29.43	10	60	22.34	23.34
	70	26.57	25.44	27.04		70	26.03	27.03
	80	32.02	21.04	25.64		80	29.72	30.72
	90	37.47	18.30	24.57		90	33.41	34.41
	100	42.92	22.25	23.77		100	37.10	38.10
30	60	30.47	27.24	29.70	15	60	29.00	30.00
	70	37.21	25.70	28.43		70	33.68	34.68
	80	48.07	24.71	26.39		80	38.36	39.36
	90	50.79	23.91	25.78		90	42.04	43.04
	100	57.49	23.27	24.68		100	45.72	46.72
40	60	37.75	27.92	29.73	20	60	34.72	35.72
	70	45.50	26.66	28.18		70	40.18	41.18
	80	53.25	25.76	27.17		80	45.64	46.64
	90	61.01	25.03	26.35		90	51.10	52.10
	100	68.76	24.47	25.73		100	56.56	57.56
50	60	48.43	28.94	30.66	30	60	41.06	42.06
	70	51.34	27.70	29.70		70	50.59	51.59
	80	60.41	26.99	28.33		80	57.57	58.57
	90	68.90	26.32	27.62		90	64.54	65.54
	100	77.43	25.76	26.99		100	71.52	72.52
60	60	51.34	27.70	29.70	40	60	44.04	45.04
	70	54.25	26.99	28.33		70	51.02	52.02
	80	63.32	26.32	27.62		80	58.00	59.00
	90	71.39	25.76	26.99		90	65.00	66.00
	100	78.40	25.20	26.36		100	72.00	73.00
70	60	54.25	26.99	28.33	50	60	47.02	48.02
	70	57.16	26.32	27.62		70	54.00	55.00
	80	66.23	25.76	26.99		80	61.00	62.00
	90	74.30	25.20	26.36		90	68.00	69.00
	100	81.31	24.64	25.73		100	75.00	76.00
80	60	57.16	26.32	27.62	60	60	50.00	51.00
	70	60.07	25.76	26.99		70	57.00	58.00
	80	69.14	25.20	26.36		80	64.00	65.00
	90	77.21	24.64	25.73		90	71.00	72.00
	100	84.22	24.08	25.10		100	78.00	79.00
90	60	60.07	25.76	26.99	70	60	53.00	54.00
	70	62.98	25.20	26.36		70	60.00	61.00
	80	72.05	24.64	25.73		80	67.00	68.00
	90	80.12	24.08	25.10		90	74.00	75.00
	100	87.13	23.52	24.47		100	81.00	82.00
100	60	62.98	25.20	26.36	80	60	56.00	57.00
	70	65.89	24.64	25.73		70	63.00	64.00
	80	74.96	24.08	25.10		80	70.00	71.00
	90	83.03	23.52	24.47		90	77.00	78.00
	100	90.04	22.96	23.84		100	84.00	85.00

TABLE No. 2.

DATA FOR COMPOUND CONDENSING ENGINES.

are above here.	Mean Effective Pressure. Atmosphere.		Feed water Required per I.H.P. per Hour, lbs.
L.P. Cyl. lbs.	H.P. Cyl., lbs.	L.P. Cyl., lbs.	
4.0	11.67	2.66	16.22
7.8	15.33	3.37	15.00
11.0	16.54	3.23	13.86
4.3	26.73	3.48	14.00
8.1	35.13	7.56	13.67
12.1	39.49	9.74	13.09
4.6	37.61	7.48	14.09
5.5	46.41	10.10	14.21
11.7	56.00	12.26	13.87

TABLE No. 3.

DATA FOR TRIPLE-EXPANSION CONDENSING ENGINES.

are above here.	Mean Effective Pressure.				Feed water Required per I.H.P. per Hour, lbs.
lb.	L.P. Cyl., lbs.	H.P. Cyl., lbs.	I. Cyl., lbs.	L.P. Cyl., lbs.	
7.8	1.3	38.5	17.1	8.5	12.05
11.8	2.8	46.5	18.6	7.1	11.4
14.8	3.8	55.0	20.0	8.0	10.75
16.9	2.6	51.5	22.8	8.6	11.05
23.8	3.9	59.5	23.7	9.1	11.4
31.3	5.3	70.0	25.5	10.0	10.85
30.8	3.7	60.5	26.7	10.1	12.3
36.6	4.8	70.5	28.0	10.8	11.6
42.8	6.3	82.5	30.0	11.8	11.15

Optical Point of Cut-off in Steam-engines.

and Denton, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. ii. p. 147-181; also, at Maximum Efficiency, R. H. Thurston, vol. ii. p. 128.) The best ratio of expansion is not one of economy of construction and economy of cost of boiler alone. The question of engine, depreciation of value of engine, repairs of engine, (1) for us we increase the rate of expansion, and thus, (2) fixed by the back-pressure and condensation of steam, (3) out of fuel required and cost of boiler per unit of work, (4) the dimensions of the cylinder and the size of the engine required power. We thus increase the cost of the engine, (5) the rate of expansion, while at the same time we decrease the consumption, the cost of boiler, etc. So that there is a point of cut-off, determinable by calculation and graph, which will secure the greatest efficiency for a given expansion, taking into consideration the cost of fuel, wages of engineer, cost on cost, depreciation of value, repairs to and insurance on, and oil, waste, etc., used for engine. In case of freight, the value of the room occupied by fuel should be considered the cost of fuel.

Calculated Performances of Vertical High-Speed Engines. The following tables are taken from a circular of the *Eng. Soc. New York*, describing the engines made by the *Lake Works, Buffalo, N. Y.* The engines are fair representatives of those largely in use for driving dynamos directly with steam, and were calculated by E. F. Williams, designer of the same, somewhat abridged to save space:

Simple Engines—Non-condensing.

Diam. of Cyl. inches.	Stroke, inches.	Revs. per Min. ute.	H.P. when Cutting off at $\frac{1}{5}$ stroke.			H.P. when Cutting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke.			H.P. when Cutting off at $\frac{1}{3}$ stroke.			Dimen- sions of Wheels		Steam pipe, in.
			70 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	70 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	70 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	diam. face		
			lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	Ft.	In.	
2	10	870	20	25	30	26	31	36	32	37	43	3	4	2 1/2
2 1/2	12	318	27	32	39	34	41	47	41	48	56	4 1/2	5	3 1/2
3	14	277	31	49	60	52	62	71	63	74	85	5 1/2	6 1/2	4 1/2
3 1/2	16	248	35	64	77	67	81	93	82	96	111	6 1/2	7 1/2	5 1/2
4	18	222	40	80	96	84	100	116	102	120	138	7 1/2	8 1/2	6 1/2
4 1/2	20	181	45	115	138	120	144	166	146	172	198	8 1/2	9 1/2	7 1/2
5	24	158	119	144	173	151	181	208	188	215	248	10	11	8 1/2
5 1/2	28	138	179	218	261	227	272	313	276	324	373	11 1/2	13	9 1/2
6	32	120	221	267	322	281	336	386	340	400	460	13 1/2	15	11 1/2
6 1/2	34	112	209	325	392	342	407	470	414	487	560	14 1/2	16	12 1/2
Mean eff. press., lb.			24	29	35	30.5	36	42	37	43.5	50			
Ratio of expans'n.			5			4			3					
Terminal pressure (about) lbs.			17.9	20	22.3	22.4	25	27.6	27.9	31.3	36.8			
Cyl. condensat'n, %			26	26	26	24	24	24	21	21	21			
Steam per I.H.P. per hour. . . . lbs.			32.9	30	27.4	31.2	29.0	27.9	32	31.4	30			

NOTE.—The nominal power rating of the engines is at 80 lbs. gauge pressure, steam cut-off at $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke.

NOTE.—The nominal power rating of the engines is at 30 lbs. gauge pressure steam cut-off at $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke.

Compound Engines—Non-condensing—High-pressure Cylinder and Receiver Jacketed.

H.P.	H.P.	L.P.	Diam. Cylinder, inches.	Stroke, inches.	Revolutions per Minute.	H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.		H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{3}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.		H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{2}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{3}{4}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{4}{5}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{5}{6}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{2}{3}$: 1.	
						80 lbs.	90 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.
						lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
5 1/2	6 1/2	12	10	370	7	15	19	32	23	31	35	46	44	53	64	53	64	53	64
6 1/2	7 1/2	12	12	318	9	19	24	40	29	38	45	59	58	70	81	70	81	70	81
7 1/2	8 1/2	14	14	277	11	24	30	60	41	58	67	87	88	104	121	104	121	104	121
8 1/2	10 1/2	16	16	248	13	27	47	78	57	76	87	114	109	136	156	136	156	136	156
10 1/2	12 1/2	18	18	222	15	33	68	112	81	109	125	164	166	193	221	193	221	193	221
12 1/2	14 1/2	20	20	185	17	38	84	139	100	133	154	202	192	227	261	227	261	227	261
13 1/2	15 1/2	24	24	158	23	43	84	112	135	181	206	271	258	323	374	323	374	323	374
16 1/2	18 1/2	28	28	138	25	57	118	151	180	242	277	363	346	439	507	439	507	439	507
18 1/2	20 1/2	32	32	120	27	74	152	194	232	312	357	468	444	558	647	558	647	558	647
20 1/2	22 1/2	34	34	112	34	94	194	240	412	297	400	457	601	572	715	715	809	809	809
24 1/2	28 1/2	42	42	93	38	138	285	365	603	436	587	670	880	828	1048	1048	1217	1217	1217
28 1/2	34 1/2	48	48	80	48	180	374	477	789	570	767	877	1171	1092	1390	1390	1590	1590	1590
Mean eff. press., lbs.						3.3	6.8	8.7	14.4	10.4	14.0	16	21	20	25	29	34	34	40
Ratio of expansion . . .						13 1/2		13 1/2		10 1/2		13 1/2		6 1/2		5 1/2		4 1/2	
Cyl. condensation, % . .						14	14	16	16	12	12	13	13	10	10	11	11	11	11
Ter. press. (about) lbs.						7.3	7.7	7.9	9	9	10.4	10.5	12	14	15.3	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4
Loss from expanding below atmosphere, %						34	15	17	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
St. per I.H.P. p. hr. lbs.						55	42	47	29	33	27.7	28	33.4	30	36	37	37	37	37

The original table contains figures of horse-power, etc., for 110 and 120 lbs. cylinder ratio of 4 to 1; and 140 lbs., ratio $\frac{4}{5}$ to 1.

ATED PERFORMANCES OF STEAM-ENGINES. 779

ind-engines—Condensing—Steam-jacketed.

	Revolutions per Minute.	H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{2}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{3}{4}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.			
		Cyl. Ratio, $3\frac{1}{2}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, 4 : 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $3\frac{1}{2}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, 4 : 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $3\frac{1}{2}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, 4 : 1.	
		80 lbs.	110 lbs.	115 lbs.	125 lbs.	80 lbs.	110 lbs.	115 lbs.	125 lbs.	80 lbs.	110 lbs.	115 lbs.	125 lbs.
370	44	59	53	62	55	70	88	75	70	97	95	106	106
318	56	76	67	78	70	90	87	95	90	123	120	134	134
277	83	112	100	116	104	133	129	141	133	183	179	200	200
246	109	147	131	152	136	174	169	185	174	230	224	261	261
222	156	210	187	218	195	250	242	265	250	343	325	374	374
185	192	260	231	269	241	308	298	327	308	423	414	480	480
158	258	318	310	363	323	413	400	439	412	568	555	619	619
139	346	467	415	484	433	554	536	588	554	761	744	830	830
120	446	602	535	624	558	714	691	758	714	981	959	1070	1070
112	572	772	686	801	715	915	887	972	915	1258	1230	1373	1373
93	838	1131	1006	1174	1018	1341	1299	1435	1341	1814	1801	2012	2012
80	1036	1480	1316	1531	1370	1757	1699	1860	1757	2411	2356	2632	2632
press, lbs.	20	27	24	28	25	32	31	34	32	44	43	48	48
ension...		13 $\frac{1}{4}$		16 $\frac{1}{4}$		10		13 $\frac{1}{4}$		6 $\frac{3}{4}$		8 $\frac{1}{4}$	
on, f...	18	18	20	20	15	15	18	18	12	12	14	14	14
hr. lbs.	17.8	16.8	16.6	15.2	17.0	16.4	16.3	15.8	17.5	17.0	16.8	16.0	16.0

able contains figures for 95 lbs., cylinder ratio $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 1; and to 1.

ansion Engines, Non-condensing.—Receiver only Jacketed.

P.	Stroke, inches.	Revolutions per Minute.	Horse-power when Cutting off at 42 per cent of Stroke in First Cylinder.		Horse-power when Cutting off at 50 per cent of Stroke in First Cylinder.		Horse-power when Cutting off at 65 per cent of Stroke in First Cylinder.	
			180 lbs.	200 lbs.	180 lbs.	200 lbs.	180 lbs.	200 lbs.
10	370	55	64	70	84	95	106	106
12	318	70	84	90	106	120	137	137
14	277	104	121	133	158	179	204	204
16	246	133	158	174	207	234	267	267
18	222	195	236	250	296	335	382	382
20	185	241	279	308	366	414	471	471
24	158	323	374	413	490	565	632	632
28	138	433	502	554	637	744	848	848
32	120	558	647	714	847	959	1093	1093
36	112	715	829	915	1080	1230	1401	1401
42	93	1048	1215	1341	1592	1801	2053	2053
48	80	1370	1589	1754	2082	2356	2685	2685
press, lbs.		25	20	32	38	43	49	49
ension...		16		13		10		10
ens...		14		12		10		10
hr. lbs.	20.76	19.86	19.25	17.00	17.80	17.80	17.80	17.80
ap. lbs.	2.59	2.39	2.40	2.12	2.23	2.23	2.23	2.23

Triple-expansion Engines—Condensing—Jacketed.

Diameter Cylinders, inches.			Stroke, inches.	Revolutions per Minute.	Horse power when Cut-ting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ Stroke in First Cylin-der.			Horse power when Cut-ting off at $\frac{1}{2}$ Stroke in First Cylin-der.			Horse power when Cut-ting off at $\frac{3}{4}$ Stroke in First Cylin-der.		
H.P.	L.P.	L.P.			120 lbs.	140 lbs.	160 lbs.	120 lbs.	140 lbs.	160 lbs.	120 lbs.	140 lbs.	160 lbs.
48	72	12	10	370	85	42	48	44	53	50	57	72	64
52	84	12	12	318	45	53	62	56	67	73	73	92	107
62	102	12	14	277	67	79	92	83	100	112	108	137	156
72	12	12	16	246	87	103	120	109	131	147	141	180	208
82	142	12	18	222	125	148	172	156	187	211	203	257	299
10	16	25	20	195	154	183	212	192	231	260	250	317	368
11	18	28	24	168	206	246	284	258	310	348	335	426	494
13	22	33	28	138	277	329	381	346	415	467	450	571	661
15	24	38	32	120	357	424	491	446	535	602	580	730	834
17	27	43	36	112	458	543	629	572	696	792	741	941	1087
20	33	52	42	93	670	796	922	838	1006	1131	1059	1323	1537
23	36	60	48	80	877	1041	1206	1096	1316	1480	1424	1806	2092
Mean effec. press., lbs.					16	19	22	20	24	27	26	33	38
No. of expansions....					26.8			20.1			13.4		
Percent cyl. condens.					10	19	19	16	16	16	12	12	12
St. p. I. H.P. p. hr., lbs.					14.2	13.9	13.3	14.3	13.9	13.2	14.3	13.6	13.0
Coal at 8 lb. evap., lbs.					1.6	1.73	1.60	1.78	1.74	1.65	1.78	1.70	1.62

Type of Engine to be used where Exhausted needed for Heating.—In many factories more or less of the steam exhausted from the engines is utilized for heating, drying, &c. Where all the exhaust-steam is so used the question of condensing steam in the engine itself is eliminated, and the high pressure steam is entirely suitable. Where only part of the exhaust-steam is so used, the quantity so used varies at different times, the question of adopting a condensing, or a compound engine becomes more complex. This is treated by C. T. Mann in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. x, p. 48. It is the ratios of the volumes of the cylinders in compound engines according to the amount of exhaust steam that can be used for heating, case is given in which three different pressures of steam, or more, could be used, as in a worsted dye-house: the high or boiler pressure of the engine, an intermediate pressure for cranking, and low pressure for heating, drying, etc. If it did not make too much complication for the engine, the boiler-pressure might be used in the high pressure cylinder, exhausting into a receiver from which steam could be taken for small engines and cranking, the steam remaining in the receiver going into the intermediate cylinder and expanded there to from 5 to 10 lbs. to the atmosphere and exhausted into a second receiver. From this the low-pressure steam needed for drying, heating, &c. is drawn, etc., the steam remaining in receiver passing into the condenser.

Comparison of the Economy of Compound and Single Cylinder Corliss Condensing Engines, each about Sixteen Times.

(D. S. Jacobs, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. x, p. 48.) The engines used in obtaining comparative results are located at I. and II. of the Pawtucket Water Co.

The tests show that the compound engine is about 50% more economical than the single-cylinder engine. The dimensions of the two are as follows: Single 20" x 48"; compound 15" and 20". The compound engine developed 100 horsepower per hour was single 20.35 lbs. compound 100.35 lbs. The compound engine is steam-jacketed, practically on all boiler-pressure, viz. single 109.3 lbs., com-

kin-pressure in the case of the compound engine is 12 1/2 lbs., or 2 1/2 lb. more than for the single engine. If the steam pressure be raised in the case of the single engine, and the indicated work be increased by the consumption for the single cylinder engine would be 19.97 bar per horse-power.

Cylinder vs. Three-cylinder Compound Engine.—A triple-expansion engine, built for the Merrimack Thread Co., Mass., is constructed so that the intermediate cylinder may be cut circuit and the high-pressure and low-pressure cylinders run as a compound, using the same conditions of initial steam pressure.

The diameters of the cylinders are 12, 16, and 24 1/2 inches, the first two being 36 in. and that of the low-pressure cylinder 45 in.

The results of a test reported by S. M. Green and G. I. Rockwood, Trans. vol. xiii, 647, are as follows: In lbs. of dry steam used per I.H.P.

12 and 24 1/2 in. cylinders only used two tests 12.57 and 12.76 lbs., average 12.67. All three cylinders used, two tests 12.57 and 12.50 lbs., average 12.54. The difference is only 1%, and would indicate that more than two cylinders are unnecessary in a compound engine, but it is pointed out by Prof. that the conditions of the test were especially favorable for the compound engine, and not relatively so favorable for the three cylinders. The steam pressure was 142 lbs. and the number of expansions about 25. Discussion on the Rockwood type of engine, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol.

of Water contained in Steam on the Efficiency of an engine. (From a lecture by Walter C. Kerr, before the Institute, 1891.)—Standard writers make little mention of the effect of moisture on the expansive properties of steam, but by common sense and any demonstration they seem to agree that moisture has an ill effect simply to the percentage amount of its presence.

Moisture will increase the water rate of an engine 5%. Tests reported in 1893 by R. C. Carpenter and L. S. Marks, Trans. vol. xv., in which water in varying quantity was introduced into the cylinder, causing the quality of the steam to range from 90% to 98% dry, throughout the range of qualities used the consumption of dry

indicated horse-power per hour remains practically constant, and that the water was an inert quantity, doing neither good nor harm. It is that the extra work done by the heat of the entrained water vapor is sensibly equal to the extra negative work which it does in expansion and compression, that the heat carried in by the entrained water forms no useful function, and that a fair measure of the economy here is the consumption of dry and saturated steam.

The Commercial Economy of Best Modern Types of Compound and Triple-expansion Engines. (J. E. Denton, *Mechanist*, Dec. 17, 1891.)—The following table and deductions relative commercial economy of the compound and triple type for stationary practice in steam plants of 500 indicated horse-power, are based on the tests of Prof. Schröter, of Munich, of engines built by him, and those of Geo. H. Barris on the best plants of America, and estimates of cost obtained from several first-class builders.

Wain, or Corliss engines of compound-receiver type, expanding 16 times. Pressure 120 lbs.	(Lbs. water per hour per I.H.P., by measurement.	13.6	14.0
	(Lbs. coal per hour per I.H.P., assuming 8.5 lbs. actual evaporation.	1.60	1.65
Wain, or Corliss engines of triple-expansion four-cylinder condensing type, expanding 24 times. Boiler pressure,	(Lbs. water per hour per I.H.P., by measurement.	12.56	12.80
	(Lbs. coal per hour per I.H.P., assuming 8.5 lbs. actual evaporation.	1.48	1.50

The figures in the first column represent the best recorded performance. Those in the second column the probable reliable performance.

Cost of triple-expansion plant per horse-power, including chimney, heaters, foundations, piping and erection.....

The table shows the total annual cost of operation, with the plant running 300 days in the year, for 10 hours per day.

Hours running per day.....	10	
Expense for coal. Compound plant.....	Per H.P.	
Expense for coal. Triple plant.....	\$9.00	
Annual saving of triple plant in fuel.....	9.00	
Annual interest at 5% on \$4.50.....	\$0.23	
Annual depreciation at 5% on \$4.50.....	0.23	
Annual extra cost of oil, 1 gallon per 24-hour day, at \$0.50, or 15% of extra fuel cost.....	0.15	
Annual extra cost of repairs at 3% on \$4.50 per 24 hours.....	0.06	
	\$0.67	
Annual saving per H.P.....	\$0.23	

The saving between the compound and triple types is much involved in the step from the single-expansion condensing steam engine. The increased cost per horse-power of the triple compound is due almost entirely to the extra cost of the triple foundations, the boilers costing the same or slightly more for its strength. In the case of the single *versus* the compound, about one third of the increased cost of the compound engine is the less cost of the latter's boilers.

Taking the total cost of the plants at \$33.50, \$36.50 and \$40.00 power respectively, the figures in the table imply that the total saving is as follows for coal at \$1 per ton:

1. A compound 500 horse-power plant costs \$18,250, and saves \$10,000 for 10 hours' service, and \$1885 for 24 hours' service, per year, the triple costing \$16,750. That is, the compound saves its extra cost of service in about one year, or in 24-hour service in four months.

2. A triple 500 horse-power plant costs \$20,500, and saves about \$10,000 in 10-hour service, or \$826 in 24-hour service, over a compound, thereby saving its extra cost in 10-hour service in about 12½ years, or in 24-hour service in about 3½ years.

Triple-expansion Pumping-engine at Milton.—**Highest Economy on Record, 1893.** (See paper on "Contemporary Economy of the Steam-engine," by R. H. Thurston, A. S. M. E., xv, 813).—Cylinders 28, 48 and 71 in. by 60 in. in volumes 1 to 3 to 7; total number of expansions 19.50, clearance 1.4%; int. 1.5%; l. p. 0.77%; volume of receivers: 1st, 101.3 cu. ft.; steam-pressure gauge during test, average 121.5 lbs.; vacuum absolute; revolutions 29.3 per minute; indicated horse-power, 160.6, l. p. 238.9; total, 373.3; total friction, horse-power 5.91; steam per I.H.P. per hour 11.678; B.T.U. per I.H.P. per min. 7.5; foot-pounds per 100 lbs. of coal, 149,906,000; per million B.T.U., 17.

Steam per I.H.P. per hour, from diagram.....	9.35	
..... release.....	10.1	
Steam accounted for by indicator at cut-off, per cent.....	75.4	
..... release.....	91.0	
Per cent of total steam used by jackets.....	0.25	

Highest Economy of the Two-cylinder Compound Pumping-engines.—Repeated tests of the *Paymaster* engine, 16 and 30½ by 30 in. stroke, gave a water consumption of 12.0 lb. per I.H.P. per hour. Steam pressure 124 lbs.; revolutions 29.3; expansions about 16. Cylinders jacketed. The lowest water consumption of jackets in use; both jackets supplied with steam of boiler pressure. Average saving due to jackets was only about 2½ per cent. (See M. E., xl, 328 and 1038; xiii, 176.)

This record was beaten in 1894 by a *Leavitt* pumping engine, 16 by 30 in. stroke, A. S. M. E. xvi; cylinders 17, 31 and 34 in. by 30 in. stroke; revolutions per min. 19.37; piston speed 271.5 ft. per min.; steam-pressure gauge, 140 lbs. Cylinders and receiver jacketed.

I.H.P. per hour, 12 333 lbs. Duty per million B.T.U. = 138,126,000

Test of a Triple-expansion Pumping-engine with and without Jackets, at Laketon, Ind., by Prof. J. E. Denton (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1910).—Cylinders 24, 34 and 54 in. by 36 in. stroke; 38 revs. per min. developed about 820; boiler-pressure 150 lbs. Tests made on eight different days with different sets of conditions in jackets. At 150 lbs. boiler-pressure, and about 30 expansions, with any pressure above 43 lbs. in all of jackets and reheaters, or with no pressure in the high jacket, the percentage was as follows: With 2.5% of moisture in the steam entering the jackets used 16% of the total feed-water. About 20% of the latter condensed during admission to the high cylinder, and about 13.85 lbs. of water was consumed per hour per indicated horse-power. With no jackets or reheaters in action the feed-water consumption was 14.90 lbs., or more than with jackets and reheaters. The consumption of lubricating oil was two thirds of a gallon of machine oil and one and three quarters gallon of cylinder oil per 24 hours. The friction of the engine in eight tests on different days varied from 5.1% to 8.1%.

As regards the measurements of indicated horse-power and water as an error of one per cent, which is probably a minimum allowance in most careful determinations, the steam economy is the same for the following conditions:

Any pressure from 43 to 181 in the intermediate and low jackets and reheaters.

Any pressure from 0 to 151 in the jacket of high cylinder.

Any cut-off from 21% to 23% in high cylinder, from 39% to 43% in intermediate cylinder, from 40% to 53% in low cylinder.

Steam Consumption of Three Types of Sulzer Engines.

(B. Donkin, Jr., *Eng'g*, Jan. 15, 1892, p. 77.)

MEAN AND AVERAGES OF TWENTY-ONE PUBLISHED EXPERIMENTS OF THE SULZER TYPE OF STEAM-ENGINE. ALL HORIZONTAL CONDENSING AND STEAM-JACKETED. From 1872 to 1891.

Steam-pressure above Atmosphere.	Piston-speed.	Indicated Horse-power.	Steam Consumption, pounds per I.H.P. per hour, including Steam-pipe water and Jacket Water.	Steam Consumption, pounds per I.H.P. per hour, excluding Steam-pipe water, but including Jacket Water.	Remarks.
lbs.	ft. per min.		lbs.	lbs.	
72 to 95	272 to 438	157 to 400	19.7 to 10.8	17.9 to 10.2	5 exp.
84 to 101	384 to 589	133 to 524	Mean 19.4	Mean 18.95	1872-78
104 to 120	444 to 607	108 to 615	13.35 to 16.0	13.4 to 15.5	10 exp.
			Mean 14.44	Mean 14.3	1888-91
			11.85 to 12.36	11.7 to 12.7	6 exp.
			Mean 12.36	Mean 12.16	1888-90

Triple-expansion Corliss engine at Narragansett E. L. Co., Providence, R. I., by E. P. Allis Co. Cylinder 14, 25 and 33 in. by 48 in. stroke tested at 150 lbs. steam-pressure; steam per I.H.P. per hour 12.91 I.H.P. 516. A full account of this engine, with records of tests is given by Denton, in Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 643.

Triple-expansion compound engine, tested at Chicago Exposition, by Geo. Fris (Eng'g Record, Feb. 17, 1894). Cylinder 14 and 24 by 34 in. stroke; at 165 r.p.m.; 120 lbs. steam-pressure. I.H.P. in four tests condensed one non-condensing. 295 224 123 277 357 per horse-power per hour. 16.07 15.71 17.22 16.07 20.24

Triple-expansion Compound Non-condensing Engine under Variable Loads.—F. M. Ritz, in a paper on the "Steam Engine in a Form of Single-acting Engine" (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1894) an engine designed to meet the following problem: Given

extreme range of conditions as to load or steam-pressure, either fluctuate together or apart, violently or with easy gradations, for an engine whose economical performance should be as good as the engine were specially designed for a momentary condition, is not to be complete and automatic. In the ordinary non-condensing engine with light loads the high-pressure cylinder is frequently to supply all the power and in addition drag along with it the low-pressure cylinder, whose cylinder indicates negative work. Mr. Biss (a peculiar value of a receiver of predetermined volume which acts as a chamber for compression in the high-pressure cylinder). The house compound single-acting engine is designed upon this principle. The following results of tests of one of these engines rated at 15 H.P. at economical load are given :

WATER RATES UNDER VARYING LOADS, LBS. PER H.P. PER HOR.

Horse-power.....	210	170	140	115	100
Non condensing	22.0	21.9	22.2	22.2	22.4
Condensing	18.4	18.1	18.2	18.2	18.3

Efficiency of Non-condensing Compound Engines.

See Church, *Am. Mach.*, Nov. 19, 1891. The compound engine, condensing, at its best performance will exhaust from the low-pressure cylinder at a pressure 2 to 6 pounds above atmosphere. Such an engine is limited in its economy to a very short range of power, for the motion of its valve-motion will not permit of any great increase beyond its rated power, and any material decrease below its rated power at once in expansion curve in the low-pressure cylinder below atmospheric pressure. In words, decrease of load tells upon the compound engine severely, and much more severely, than upon the non-compound engine. It commences the moment the expansion line crosses a line parallel to the atmospheric line, and at a distance above it representing the mean pressure necessary to carry the frictional load of the engine. When the pressure falls to this point the low-pressure cylinder becomes an air-cylinder, more or less of its stroke, the power to drive which must come from the high-pressure cylinder alone. Under the light loads common in industries the low-pressure cylinder is thus a positive resistance to a greater portion of its stroke. A careful study of this problem on the functions of a fixed intermediate clearance, always in common with the high-pressure cylinder, and having a volume bearing the same ratio to that of the high-pressure cylinder that the high-pressure cylinder bears to the low-pressure. Diagrams were laid out on this principle, and until the best theoretical results were obtained. The designs were then put down on these lines, and the subsequent performance of the engines, of which some 600 have been built, have fully confirmed the judgment of the designers.

The effect of this constant clearance is to supply sufficient power to the low-pressure cylinder under light loads to hold its expansion curve at atmospheric pressure, and at the same time leave a sufficient clearance in the high-pressure cylinder to permit of governing the engine on its full load under light loads.

Economy of Engines under Varying Loads.

W. C. Unwin's lecture before the Society of Arts, London, 1892. The general result of numerous trials with large engines was that with a load an indicated horse-power should be obtained with a consumption of 14 pounds of coal per indicated horse-power for a condensing engine, and 18 pounds for a non-condensing engine, figures which correspond to 15 pounds to 24 pounds of coal per effective horse-power. It was difficult to ascertain the consumption of coal in ordinary cases, but such facts as were known showed it was more than on trial.

In electric lighting stations the engines work under a very light load, and the results are far more unfavorable. An excellent non-condensing engine, which on full-load trials worked with under 100 per cent effective horse-power hour, in the ordinary daily working of an electric station used 74 pounds per effective horse-power hour in 1890, which was reduced to 4.3 pounds in 1891 and 3.8 pounds in 1892. Possibly in the case of the engines at electric light stations working under a light load, the consumption of coal per effective horse-power hour was 44 pounds per effective horse-power hour. In the case of engines working with a fluctuating load, still more unfavorable results were obtained.

ENGINES IN ELECTRIC CENTRAL STATIONS.

Year	1886.	1890.	1892.
Coal used per hour per effective H.P.	8.4	5.6	4.9
indicated " " "	6.5	4.85	3.8

Electric-lighting stations the load factor, viz., the ratio of the average to the maximum, is extremely small, and the engines worked under unfavorable conditions, which largely accounted for the excessive fuel consumption at these stations.

Steam-engines the fuel consumption has generally been reckoned on indicated horse power. At full power trials this was satisfactory inasmuch as the internal friction is then usually a small fraction of the total. Experiment has, however, shown that the internal friction is nearly constant and hence, when the engine is lightly loaded, its mechanical efficiency is greatly reduced. At full load small engines have a mechanical efficiency of 0.85, and large engines might reach at least 0.9, but if the internal friction remained constant this efficiency would be much reduced at low loads. Thus, if an engine working at 100 indicated horse power had an efficiency of 0.85, then when the indicated horse power fell to 50 the effective power would be 35 horse-power and the efficiency only 0.7. Similarly, if the indicated horse-power the effective horse-power would be 10 and the efficiency

Experiments on a Corliss engine at Crenson gave the following results:

Effective power at full load	1.0	0.75	0.50	0.25	0.125
Mechanical efficiency	0.82	0.79	0.74	0.63	0.48
Condensing, " " "	0.96	0.83	0.78	0.67	0.52

At light loads the economy of gas and liquid fuel engines fell off even more rapidly than in steam-engines. The engine friction was large and nearly constant, and in some cases the combustion was also less perfect at low loads. At the Dresden Central Station the gas-engines were kept running at nearly their full power by the use of storage-batteries. The results of some experiments are given below:

Indicated power.	Gas-engine, cu. ft. of Gas per H.P. per hour.	Petroleum Eng., Lbs. of Oil per B.H.P. per hr.	Petroleum Eng., Lbs. of Oil per B.H.P. per hr.
100	22.2	0.96	0.68
75	28.6	1.11	0.99
50	28.0	1.44	1.20
30	40.8	2.58	1.82
12½	66.8	4.25	3.07

Steam Consumption of Engines of Various Sizes.—W. C. (in Cassier's Magazine, 1894) gives a table showing results of 19 tests of engines of different types. In non-condensing simple engines, the steam consumption ranged from 65 lbs. per hour in a 5-horse-power engine to 22 in a 134-H.P. Harris-Corliss engine. In non-condensing compound engines, the only type tested was the Willans, which ranged from 27 lbs. in a 1-P. slow-speed engine, 122 ft. per minute, with steam pressure of 81 lbs. to 2 lbs. in a 10-H.P. engine, 401 ft. per minute, with steam pressure 165 lbs. A Willans triple-expansion non-condensing engine, 30 H.P., 172 lbs. pressure, and 400 ft. piston speed per minute, gave a consumption of 18.5 lbs. In condensing engines, nine tests of simple engines gave results ranging only from 18.4 to 22 lbs., and, leaving out a beam pumping-engine running at slow speed (240 ft. per minute) and low steam pressure (45 lbs.), the range is only from 18.4 to 19.8 lbs. In compound-condensing engines over 100 H.P. in 15 tests the range is from 13.9 to 20 lbs. In three triple-expansion engines the range was 11.7, 12.2, and 12.45 lbs., the lowest being a Sulzer engine of 350 H.P. In marine compound engines, the Fujiyama and Colchester, tested by Kennedy, gave steam consumption of 21.2 and 21.7 lbs.; and the Turtur and Turtur triple-expansion engines gave 15.0 and 19.8 lbs. Among the most favorable results which can be regarded as not exceptional, it appears that in test trials, with constant and full load, the expenditure of steam and coal is about as follows:

Kind of Engine.	Per Indicated Horse-power Hour.		Per Effective Horse-power Hour.	
	Coal, lbs.	Steam, lbs.	Coal, lbs.	Steam, lbs.
Non-condensing	1.80	16.5	2.00	
Condensing	1.50	13.5	1.75	

These may be regarded as minimum values, rarely surpassed by efficient machinery, and only reached with very good machinery under favorable conditions of a test trial.

Small Engines and Engines with Fluctuating Load.—These are usually very wasteful of fuel. The following figures, illustrating the economy, are given by Prof. Unwin, *Cassier's Magazine*, 1891.

COAL CONSUMPTION PER INDICATED HORSE-POWER IN SMALL ENGINES.

In Workshops in Birmingham, Eng.

Probable I.H.P. at full load	12	45	60	45	75
Average I.H.P. during observation	2.96	7.37	8.2	8.6	23.61
Coal per I.H.P. per hour during observation, lbs.	36.0	21.25	22.61	18.13	11.69

It is largely to replace such engines as the above that power is distributed from central stations.

Steam Consumption in Small Engines.

Tests at Royal Agricultural Society's show at Plymouth, Eng., June 27, 1890.

Rated H.P.	Compound or Simple.	Diam. of Cylinders.		Stroke, ins.	Max. Steam pressure	Per Brake H.P. per hour.	
		h.p.	l.p.			Coal.	Water.
5	simple	7	...	10	75	12.32	78.1
3	compound	3	0	6	110	4.82	42.61
2	simple	4½	...	7½	75	11.77	69.2

Steam-consumption of Engines at Various

(Prof. Denton and Jacobus, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 720; 1896.)
non-condensing, fixed cut-off, Meyer valve.

STEAM-CONSUMPTION, LBS. PER I.H.P. PER HOUR.

Figures taken from plotted diagram of results.

Revs. per min.	8	12	16	20	24	32	40	48	56
¼ cut off, lbs.	39	35	32	30	29.3	29	28.7	28.5	28.1
⅓ " " "	39	34	31	29.5	29	28.4	28	27.5	27.1
½ " " "	39	33	34	33	32	30.8	29.4	28.2	28.3

STEAM-CONSUMPTION OF SAME ENGINE; FIXED SPEED, 60 REVS. PER MIN.

Varying cut-off compared with throttling engine for same steam and boiler-pressures:

Cut-off, fraction of stroke	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.25	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6
Boiler-pressure, 90 lbs.	29	27.5	27	27	27.2	27.8	28.5	29.1
60 lbs.	39	34.2	32.2	31.5	31.1	31.6	32.2	32.9

THROTTLING-ENGINE, ⅓ CUT-OFF, FOR CORRESPONDING HORSE-POWER.

Boiler-pressure, 90 lbs.	42	37	35.8	31.5	29.8			
60 lbs.	50.1	40	45.8	44.6	41			

Some of the principal conclusions from this series of tests are as follows:

1. There is a distinct gain in economy of steam as the speed increases to 16, 24, and 32 revolutions per minute. The loss in economy at ¼ cut-off is at the rate of 1.12 lb. of water per I.H.P. for each 100 revolutions per minute from 80 to 2½ revolutions, and at the rate of 1 lb. of water below 2½ revolutions. Also, at all speeds the ¼ cut-off is more economical than either the ⅓ or ½ cut-off.
2. At 90 lbs. boiler pressure and above ⅓ cut-off, to produce 100 I.H.P. requires about 20% less steam than to cut off at ¼ stroke and run throttle.
3. For the same conditions with 60 lbs. boiler pressure, to produce the same mean effective pressure at ⅓ cut-off requires

about $\frac{1}{4}$, requires about 30% more steam than for the latter

Piston-speed in Engines. (Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1883, p. 10.) The torpedo boat is an excellent example of the advance towards lightness, and shows what can be accomplished by studying lightness in combination. In running at $22\frac{1}{2}$ knots an hour, an engine of 16 in. stroke will make 480 revolutions per minute, which is 12 ft. per minute for piston-speed; and it is remarked that engines that high rate work much more smoothly than at lower speeds, the difficulty of lubrication diminishing as the speed increases.

High-speed Corliss Engine.—A Corliss engine, 30×42 in., has a wire-rod mill at the Trenton Iron Co.'s works since 1877, at 1100 ft. piston-speed per minute (Trans. A. S. M. E., ii. 1883, p. 120). The piston-speed of 1200 ft. per min. has been realized in locomotive

Limitation of Engine-speed. (Chas. T. Porter, in a paper on "Limitation of Engine-speed," Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 806.)—The limitation to high rotative speed in stationary reciprocating steam-engines is not found in the danger of heating or of excessive wear, nor, as is commonly believed, in the centrifugal force of the fly-wheel, nor in the knocking in the centres, nor in vibration. He gives two objections to high speeds: First, that "engines ought not to be run as fast as they can," second, the large amount of waste room in the port, which is not for proper steam distribution. In the important respect of steam, the high-speed engine has thus far proved a failure, it was looked for from high speed, because the loss by condensation on a given surface would be divided into a greater weight of steam, but this has not been realized. For this unsatisfactory result we must lay the blame chiefly on the excessive amount of waste room. The method of expressing the amount of waste room in the percentage added to the total piston displacement, is a misleading one. It should be expressed as the percentage which it adds to the length of steam admission. For example, if the steam is cut off at $\frac{1}{5}$ of the stroke, 8% added by room to the total piston displacement means 40% added to the steam admitted. Engines of four, five and six feet stroke may be run at from 700 to 800 ft. of piston travel per minute, but for economy, says Mr. Porter, 600 ft. per minute should be the limit.

Use of the Steam-jacket.—Tests of numerous engines with and without steam-jackets show an exceeding diversity of results, ranging from 30% saving down to zero, or even in some cases showing an increase of steam consumption.

The opinions of engineers at this date (1894) is also as diverse as the results. There is a tendency towards a general belief that the jacket is a valuable appendage to an engine as was formerly supposed. An examination of facts and opinions on the steam-jacket is given by Prof. Porter in Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 462. See also Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 440; xiii. 173; xii. 435 and 1340; and Jour. F. I., April, 1891, p. 376. The following are a few statements selected from these papers.

Mr. Porter reports by the research committee on steam-jackets of the British Institution of Mechanical Engineers in 1889, increased efficiency due to the use of the steam-jacket of from 1% to 10% according to varying circumstances.

Mr. Porter asserts that "it has been abundantly proved that steam-jacketing is not only advisable but absolutely necessary, in order that high expansion may be efficiently carried out and the greatest possible amount of heat attained."

Mr. Porter also finds the gain by its use, under the conditions of ordinary practice, as a general average, to be about 30% on small and 8% or 9% on large engines, varying through intermediate values with intermediate sizes, and understood that the jacket has an effective circulation, and that all sides are jacketed.

Mr. Unwin considers that "in all cases and on all cylinders the steam-jacket is useful; provided, of course, ordinary, not superheated, steam is used. The advantages may diminish to an amount not worth the interest cost."

Mr. Cotterill says: Experience shows that a steam-jacket is advantageous in the amount to be gained will vary according to circumstances. It may be that the advantage is small. Great care must be taken in drawing conclusions from any special set of experiments of jacketing.

Mr. E. D. Levitt has expressed the opinion that, in his practice, jackets produce an increase of efficiency of from 1½ to 2%.

In the Pawtucket pumping engine, 15 and 30½ × 30 in., 30 rev. steam-pressure 125 lbs. gauge, cut-off ¼ in h.p. and ¾ in l.p.; barrels only jacketed, the saving by the jackets was from 14 to 6%.

The superintendent of the Holly Mfg. Co., compound pump, says: "In regard to the benefits derived from steam jackets on cylinders, I am somewhat of a skeptic. From data taken on engines and tests made I am yet to be convinced that there is any value in the steam-jacket." . . . "You might practically say is no difference."

Professor Schröter from his work on the triple-expansion engine of the Salzer type in his own laboratory, concludes: (1) The efficiency of the jacket may vary within very wide limits, or even be negative. (2) The shorter the cut-off the greater the gain by the jacket. (3) The use of higher pressure in the jacket than in the cylinder produces an advantage. The greater this difference the better. The high-pressure cylinder may be left unjacketed without great loss, but the others should always be jacketed.

The test of the Laketon triple-expansion pumping-engine shows a gain of 8.3% by the use of the jackets, but Prof. Denton points out (M. E., xiv, 1412) that all but 1.9% of the gain was ascribable to the range of expansion used with the jackets.

Test of a Compound Condensing Engine with and without Jackets at different Loads.—(R. C. Carpenter, M. E., xiv, 428.)—Cylinders 9 and 11 in. 11 in. stroke; 112 lbs. boiler-pressure; capacity 100 H.P.; 265 revs. per min. Vacuum, 23 in. Hg. From several tests curves are plotted, from which the following principles are taken.

Indicated H.P.	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110
Steam per I.H.P. per hour:									
With jackets, lbs.	22.6	21.4	20.3	19.0	17.9	16.7	15.6	14.9	14.2
Without jackets, lbs.	22.6	21.4	20.3	22.0	20.5	19.0	17.2	16.1	15.4
Saving by jacket, p. c.				10.9	7.3	4.6	3.1	1.0	-1.4

This table gives a clue to the great variation in the apparent gain of the steam-jacket as reported by different experimenters. With a compound engine it appears that when running at its most economical rate, 100 H.P., without jackets, very little saving is made by use of the jacket. When running light the jacket makes a considerable saving, but when loaded it is a detriment.

At the load which corresponds to the most economical rate, 60 H.P. in jackets, or 100 H.P. the use of the jacket makes a saving of 4.6% at a load of 60 H.P. the saving by use of the jacket is about 10%. The shape of the curve indicates that the relative advantage of the jacket is still greater at lighter loads than 60 H.P.

Counterbalancing Engines.—Prof. Unwin gives the following formulae for counterbalancing vertical engines:

$$W_1 = W_2 \frac{r}{p} \dots \dots \dots$$

in which W_1 denotes the weight of the balance weight and p the distance of its centre of gravity, W_2 the weight of the crank-pin and half of the connecting rod, and r the length of the crank. For horizontal

$$W_1 = \frac{1}{2}(W_2 + W_3) \frac{r}{p} \text{ to } \frac{3}{4}(W_2 + W_3) \frac{r}{p} \dots \dots$$

in which W_1 denotes the weight of the piston, piston-rod, cross-head, and the other half of the weight of the connecting rod.

The *American Machinist*, commenting on these formulae, says: "The formulae for counterbalancing are often used; formula (1) will not balance too light for vertical engines. We should use formula (2) for counterbalancing for both horizontal and vertical engines. In which the counterbalance should be equal to the reciprocating weight, in which the counterbalance should be equal to the weight of the piston, piston-rod, cross-head, and the other half of the weight of the connecting rod."

Eventing Vibrations of Engines.—Many suggestions have been made for remedying the vibration and noise attendant on the working of big engines which are employed to run dynamos. A plan which has great satisfaction is to build hair-felt into the foundations of the

An electric company has had a 90-horse-power engine removed from its foundations, which were then taken up to the depth of 4 feet. A mat of felt 5 inches thick was then placed on the foundations and run up 2 feet sides, and on the top of this the brickwork was built up.—*Safety Valve*.

Steam-engine Foundations Embedded in Air.—In the sugar-works of Chautauque, at Philadelphia, Pa., the engines are distributed nearly all over the buildings, a large proportion of them being on upper floors. Some are bolted to iron beams or girders, and are consequently

part of all foundation. Some of these engines ran noiselessly and satisfactorily, while others produced more or less vibration and rattle. To cure the latter the engineers suspended foundations from the bottoms of the beams, so that, in looking at them from the lower floors, they were literally hanging in the air.—*Iron Age*, Mar. 13, 1890.

Cost of Coal for Steam-power.—The following table shows the cost of coal and the cost of coal per day and per year for various horse-powers, from 1 to 1000, based on the assumption of 4 lbs. of coal being used per hour per horse-power. It is useful, among other things, in estimating the saving that may be made in fuel by substituting more economical boilers and engines for those already in use. Thus with coal at \$3.00 per ton, a saving of \$100 per year in fuel may be made by replacing a steam plant of 1000 requiring 4 lbs. of coal per hour per horse-power, with one requiring 3 lbs.

Coal Consumption, at 4 lbs. per H.P. per hour; 10 hours a day; 300 days in a Year.						\$1.50.		\$2.00.		\$3.00.		\$4.00.	
Lbs.			Short Tons.			Per Short Ton.		Per Short Ton.		Per Short Ton.		Per Short Ton.	
						Cost in Dollars.		Cost in Dollars.		Cost in Dollars.		Cost in Dollars.	
Per Day.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.		Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.
40	0.079	5.357	.02	6	.83	9	.04	12	.06	18	.08	24	.08
400	1.746	63.757	.20	60	.30	90	.40	120	.60	180	.80	240	.80
1,000	4.163	133.92	.50	150	.75	225	1.00	300	1.50	450	2.00	600	2.00
2,000	8.326	267.85	1.00	300	1.50	450	2.00	600	3.00	900	4.00	1,200	4.00
3,000	12.489	401.78	1.50	450	2.25	675	3.00	900	4.50	1,350	6.00	1,800	6.00
4,000	16.652	535.71	2.00	600	3.00	900	4.00	1,200	6.00	1,800	8.00	2,400	8.00
5,000	20.815	669.64	2.50	750	3.75	1,125	5.00	1,500	7.50	2,250	10.00	3,000	10.00
6,000	24.978	803.57	3.00	900	4.50	1,350	6.00	1,800	9.00	2,700	12.00	3,600	12.00
8,000	33.304	1,071.42	4.00	1,200	6.00	1,800	8.00	2,400	12.00	3,600	16.00	4,800	16.00
10,000	41.630	1,339.27	5.00	1,500	7.50	2,250	10.00	3,000	15.00	4,500	20.00	6,000	20.00
12,000	49.956	1,607.13	6.00	1,800	9.00	2,700	12.00	3,600	18.00	5,400	24.00	7,200	24.00
14,000	58.282	1,874.98	7.00	2,100	10.50	3,150	14.00	4,200	21.00	6,300	28.00	8,400	28.00
16,000	66.608	2,142.84	8.00	2,400	12.00	3,600	16.00	4,800	24.00	7,200	32.00	9,600	32.00
18,000	74.934	2,410.69	9.00	2,700	13.50	4,050	18.00	5,400	27.00	8,100	36.00	10,800	36.00
20,000	83.260	2,678.55	10.00	3,000	15.00	4,500	20.00	6,000	30.00	9,000	40.00	12,000	40.00
24,000	101.112	3,214.25	12.00	3,600	18.00	5,400	24.00	7,200	36.00	10,800	48.00	14,400	48.00
28,000	118.964	3,749.95	14.00	4,200	21.00	6,300	28.00	8,400	42.00	11,600	56.00	16,800	56.00
32,000	136.816	4,285.65	16.00	4,800	24.00	7,200	32.00	9,600	48.00	12,400	64.00	19,200	64.00
36,000	154.668	4,821.35	18.00	5,400	27.00	8,100	36.00	10,800	54.00	14,200	72.00	21,600	72.00
40,000	172.520	5,357.05	20.00	6,000	30.00	9,000	40.00	12,000	60.00	16,000	80.00	24,000	80.00

oring Steam Heat.—There is no satisfactory method for equalizing heat on the engines and boilers in electric-light stations. Storage-batteries have been used, but they are expensive in first cost, repairs, and attention. *Halpin, of London, proposes to store heat during the day in specially constructed reservoirs. As the water in the boilers is raised to 250 lbs. pressure it is conducted to cylindrical reservoirs resembling English horizontal water-tanks, and stored there for use when wanted. In this way a comparative boiler-plant can be used for heating the water to 250 lbs. pressure in the twenty-four hours of the day, and the stored water used at any time, according to the magnitude of the demand.*

from the cost of the total amount of steam generated, in order to cost properly chargeable to power. The figures in lines 29 based on an assumption made by Mr. Main of losses of heat of 25% between the boiler and the exhaust-pipe, an allowance probably too large.

ROTARY STEAM-ENGINES.

turbines.—The steam turbine is a small turbine wheel which can be used as the ordinary turbine does with water. (For description of the Dow steam turbines see *Modern Mechanism*, p. 398.) The Parsons turbine is a series of parallel-flow turbines mounted side by side on a single shaft; the Dow turbine is a series of radial outward-flow turbines, like a series of concentric rings in a single plane, a stationary ring between each pair of movable rings. The speeds of the turbines enormously exceed those of any form of engine with reciprocating motion, or even of the so-called rotary engines. The three- and four-cylindered Parsons turbines, in which the several cylinders are grouped radially about a common crank and shaft, often exceed 10,000 per minute, and have been driven, experimentally, above 20,000. A steam turbine of Parsons makes 10,000 and even 20,000 revolutions per minute. A Dow turbine is reputed to have attained 25,000. (See *Trans. Am. Soc. M. E.*, x. p. 680, and xii. p. 888; *Trans. Assoc. of Eng'g Societies*, 1889; *Eng'g News*, Jan. 13, 1889, and Jan. 8, 1892; *Eng'g News*, Feb. 27, 1892.) A turbine, exhibited in 1889, weighed 68 lbs., and developed 10 H.P. on consumption of 47 lbs. of steam per H.P. per hour, the steam being at 70 lbs. The Dow turbine is used to spin the fly-wheel of the steam engine. The dimensions of the wheel are 13.8 in. diam., 6.5 in. thick, and of gyration 5.57 in. The energy stored in it at 10,000 revs. per minute is 10,000 ft.-lbs.

The Pelton Steam Turbine, shown at the Chicago exhibition, is a reaction wheel somewhat similar to the Pelton water-wheel. The steam is directed by a nozzle against the plane of the turbine at quite a distance from the circumference of the medium of the blades. The angle of the blades is the same at the side of admission as at the side of discharge. The width of the blade is constant along the length of the turbine.

The steam is expanded to the pressure of the surroundings before arriving at the turbine. This expansion takes place in the nozzle, and is caused by the sides diverging. As the steam passes through this nozzle its specific volume is increased in a greater proportion than the length of the channel, and for this reason its velocity is increased, its momentum, till the end of the expansion at the last sectional area of the nozzle. The greater the expansion in the nozzle the greater its final point. A pressure of 75 lbs. and expansion to an absolute pressure of 1 atmosphere give a final velocity of about 2025 ft. per second. In the steam turbine the steam is carried further in this steam turbine than in ordinary steam engines, and is on account of the steam expanding completely during its passage through the turbine.

The greatest possible effect the admission to the blades must have is the velocity of discharge as low as possible. These blades require in the steam turbine an enormous velocity of rotation, as high as 1300 to 1650 ft. per second. The centrifugal force, which is a limit to the use of very high velocities. In the 5 horse-power turbine the velocity of periphery is 574 ft. per second, and the number of revolutions 30,000 per minute.

Unfortunately the turbine may be manufactured it is impossible, on account of the unevenness of the material, to get its centre of gravity to correspond to its geometrical axis of revolution; and however small this eccentricity may be, it becomes very noticeable at such high velocities. It is remedied in solving the problem by providing the turbine with a yielding shaft. This yielding shaft allows the turbine at the high rate of rotation to revolve around its true centre of gravity, the shaft meanwhile describing a surface of revolution.

The speed is reduced from 30,000 revolutions to 3000 revolutions per minute on the turbine shafts, which sets in motion a cog-wheel on its own diameter. These gearings are provided with several intermediate angles of about 45°. The shaft of the larger cog-wheel, of 3000 revolutions, is provided at its outer end with a transmission of the power.

Rotary Steam-engines, other than steam turbines, have been invented by the thousands, but not one has attained a commercial success. The possible advantages, such as saving of space, to be gained by rotary engines are overbalanced by its waste of steam.

The Tower Spherical Engine, one of the most recent of rotary engines, is described in *Proc. Inst. M. E.*, 1885, also in *Mechanism*, p. 296.

DIMENSIONS OF PARTS OF ENGINES.

The treatment of this subject by the leading authorities on the steam engine is very unsatisfactory, being a confused mass of rules and formulas based partly upon theory and partly upon practice. The practice thus shows an exceeding diversity of opinion as to correct dimensions. The treatment given below is chiefly the result of a study of the works of the late Mr. Seaton, Unwin, Thurston, Marks, and Whitham, and is largely a compilation of a series of articles by the author published in the *Journal of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers*, in 1894, with many alterations and much additional matter added in order to make a comparison of many of the formulae they have been applied to the assumed cases of six engines of different sizes and in some of these comparisons has led to the construction of new formulae.

Cylinder. (Whitham).—Length of bore = stroke + breadth of piston ring — $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; length between heads = stroke + thickness of piston + sum of clearances at both ends; thickness of piston = breadth of piston + thickness of flange on one side to carry the ring + thickness of piston plate.

Thickness of flange or follower... $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\frac{3}{8}$ in.
For cylinder of diameter..... 8 to 10 in. $\frac{3}{8}$ in. 60

Clearance of Piston. (Seaton).—The clearance allowed between the piston and the cylinder wall varies with the size of the engine from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{3}{16}$ in. for roughness of castings and for wear at the working joint. Naval and other very fast-running engines have a larger allowance. In a vertical direct acting engine the piston is so arranged as to bring the piston nearer the bottom are three, viz., the journals, the crank-pin brasses, and piston-rod gudgeon-brasses.

Thickness of Cylinder. (Thurston).—For engines of all types and under moderate steam-pressures, some builders have for many years restricted the stress to about 2550 lbs. per sq. in.

$$t = ap_1 D + b \dots \dots \dots$$

is a common proportion; t , D , and b being thickness, diam., and added quantity varying from 0 to $\frac{1}{4}$ in., all in inches; p_1 is the internal steam-pressure per sq. in. In this expression b is made horizontal than for vertical cylinders, as, for example, in the one case and 0.2 in the other, the one requiring no boring and the other. The constant a is from 0.0004 to 0.0006, the first value for vertical cylinders, or short strokes; the second for horizontal engines of long strokes.

Thickness of Cylinder and its Connections for Engines. (Seaton).— D = the diam. of the cylinder in inches. p = the safety-valves in lbs. per sq. in.; f , a constant multiplier = 1 for barrel + 25 in.

Thickness of metal of cylinder barrel or liner, not to be less than 3000 when of cast iron.

$$\text{Thickness of cylinder-barrel} = \frac{p \times D}{5000} + 0.6 \text{ in.} \dots \dots \dots$$

$$\text{“ “ liner} = 1.1 \times f \dots \dots \dots$$

$$\text{Thickness of liner when of steel } p \times D + 6000 \div 0.5$$

$$\text{“ metal of steam-ports} = 0.6 \times f$$

$$\text{“ “ valve-box sides} = 0.65 \times f$$

When made of exceedingly good material, at least twice the thickness of that given by the above rules.

of metal of valve-box covers	= 0.7	$\times f$, if single thickness.
" cylinder bottom	= 1.1	$\times f$, if double "
" " "	= 0.65	$\times f$, if single "
" " covers	= 1.0	$\times f$, if double "
" " "	= 0.6	$\times f$, if single "
cylinder flange	= 1.4	$\times f$, if double "
" cover-flange	= 1.3	$\times f$, if single "
" valve-box "	= 1.0	$\times f$, if double "
" door-flange	= 0.9	$\times f$, if single "
" face over ports	= 1.2	$\times f$, if double "
" " "	= 1.0	$\times f$, when there is a false-face.
" false-face	= 0.8	$\times f$, when cast iron.
" " "	= 0.6	$\times f$, when steel or bronze.

and gives the following from different authorities:

$$\text{Van Buren: } \begin{cases} t = 0.0001 D p + 0.15 \sqrt{D}; & \dots \dots \dots (5) \\ t = 0.03 \sqrt{D p}. & \dots \dots \dots (6) \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Tredgold: } t = \frac{(D + 2.5)p}{1900} \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

$$\text{Weisbach: } t = 0.8 + 0.00033 p D \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

$$\text{Santon: } t = 0.5 + 0.0004 p D \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

$$\text{Haswell: } \begin{cases} t = 0.0004 p D + \frac{1}{8} \text{ (vertical); } & \dots \dots \dots (10) \\ t = 0.0005 p D + \frac{1}{8} \text{ (horizontal). } & \dots \dots \dots (11) \end{cases}$$

and recommends (6) where provision is made for the reborring, and ample strength and rigidity are secured, for horizontal or vertical cylinders of large or small diameter; (9) for large cylinders using steam of 100 lbs. gauge-pressure, and

$$t = 0.003 D \sqrt{p} \text{ for small cylinders. } \dots \dots \dots (12)$$

$$\text{Marks gives } t = 0.00025 p D \dots \dots \dots (13)$$

a smaller value than is given by the other formulæ quoted; but says that it is not advisable to make a steam-cylinder less than 0.75 in. under any circumstances.

Following table gives the calculated thickness of cylinders of engines of 100 lbs. diam., assuming p the maximum unbalanced pressure on the piston, in lbs. per sq. in. As the same engines will be used for calculating other dimensions, other particulars concerning them are here given for reference.

DIMENSIONS, ETC., OF ENGINES.

No.	1 and 2.	3 and 4.	5 and 6.
1 horse-power..... I.H.P.	50	450	1250
2 cyl. in D	10	80	50
3 vel. L	1	2 3/4	5
4 min. R	250	125 180	65 30
5 speed, ft. per min. S	500	650	700
6 piston, sq. in. a	78 54	700 80	1963.5
7 active pressure . . . M.E.P.	42	32 1/2	30
8 unbalanced press. P	7854	70,096	190,350
9 weight per sq. in. w	100	100	100

THICKNESS OF CYLINDER BY FORMULA.	1 and 2.	3 and 4.	5 and 6.
(1) $.0001pD + 0.5$, short stroke....	.80	1.70	2.50
(1) $.0005pD + 0.5$, long stroke....	1.00	2.00	3.00
(2) $.00035pD$53	.99	1.67
(3) $.00022pD + 0.6$80	1.40	1.60
(5) $.0001pD + .15 \sqrt{D}$57	1.12	1.56
(6) $.001 Dp$95	1.64	2.12
(7) $\frac{1000}{(D + 2.5)} p$66	1.71	2.76
(8) $.00033pD + 0.8$	1.13	1.79	2.45
(9) $.0004pD + 0.5$90	1.70	2.50
(10) $.0001pD + \frac{1}{16}$ (vertical)53	1.33	2.13
(11) $.0005pD + \frac{1}{16}$ (horizontal)63	1.33	2.63
(12) $.0037 \frac{1}{2} p$ (small engines)....	.30(?)
(13) $.00045pD$25(?)	.84(?)	1.40(?)
Average of first eleven76	1.48	2.26

The average corresponds nearly to the formula $t = .00037 Dp + 0.4$ in. A convenient approximation is $t = .0001 Dp + 0.3$ in., which gives for

Diameters	10	20	30	40	50	60 in.
Thicknesses70	1.10	1.50	1.90	2.30	2.70 in.

The last formula corresponds to a tensile strength of cast iron of 12,500 lbs., with a factor of safety of 10 and an allowance of 0.3 in. for reborring.

Cylinder-heads. Thurston says: Cylinder-heads may be given the same thickness, at the edges and in the flanges, exceeding somewhat that of the cylinder. An excess of not less than 25% is usual. It may be thinner in the middle. Where made, as is usual in large engines, of two disks with intermediate radiating, connecting ribs or webs, that section which is subjected against shearing is probably ample. An examination of the designs of experienced builders, by Professor Thurston, gave

$$t = \frac{17p}{3000} + \frac{1}{4} \text{ inch,} \quad (7)$$

D being the diameter of that circle in which the thickness is taken.

Thurston also gives $t = .008 D \sqrt{p} + 0.25$. (8)

Marks gives $t = 0.008 D \frac{1}{2} p$. (9)

He also says a good practical rule for pressures under 100 lbs. per sq. in. is to make the thickness of the cylinder-heads $1\frac{1}{4}$ times that of the walls, and applying this factor to his formula for thickness of walls, or $.00022pD$, we have

$$t = .00035pD. \quad (10)$$

Whitham quotes from Seaton,

$$t = \frac{pD + 500}{2000}, \text{ which is equal to } .0005pD + .25 \text{ inch.} \quad (11)$$

Seaton's formula for cylinder bottoms, quoted above, is

$$t = 1.1f, \text{ in which } f = .00022pD + .85 \text{ inch, or } t = .00022pD + .93. \quad (12)$$

Applying the above formulae to the engines of 10, 30, and 50 inches diameter, with maximum unbalanced steam-pressure of 100 lbs. per sq. in. we have

Cylinder diameter, inches =	10	30	50
(1) $t = .00033 Dp + .25$	= .53	1.25	1.82
(2) $t = .005 D \sqrt{p} + .25$	= .75	1.75	2.75
(3) $t = .003 D \sqrt{p}$	= .30	.90	1.50
(4) $t = .00035 Dp$	= .35	1.05	1.75
(5) $t = .0005 Dp + .25$	= .75	1.75	2.75
(6) $t = .00022 Dp + .93$	= 1.15	1.59	2.03
Average of 665	1.38	2.10

Average is expressed by the formula $t = .00086Dp + .31$ inch.
 In "Modern Locomotive Construction," p. 24, gives for locomotive
 heads for pressures up to 120 lbs.:

Boilers, in.....	19 to 22	16 to 18	14 to 15	11 to 13	9 to 10
th, in.....	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$

At the pressure at 120 lbs. per sq. in., the thicknesses $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. and $\frac{3}{4}$ in.
 cylinders 22 and 10 in. diam., respectively, correspond to the formula
 $.00086Dp + .31$ inch.

Stiffened Cylinder-covers.—Seaton objects to webs for
 cast-iron cylinder-covers as a source of danger. The strain on
 is one of tension, and if there should be a nick or defect in the
 edge of the web the sudden application of strain is apt to start a

He recommends that high-pressure cylinders over 24 in. and low-
 cylinders over 40 in. diam. should have their covers cast hollow,
 with thicknesses of metal. The depth of the cover at the middle should
 be $\frac{1}{4}$ the diam. of the piston for pressures of 80 lbs. and upwards,
 and of the low-pressure cylinder-cover of a compound engine equal to
 the high-pressure cylinder. Another rule is to make the depth at
 the middle not less than 1.3 times the diameter of the piston-rod. In the
 Navy the cylinder-covers are made of steel castings, $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ in.
 generally cast without webs, stiffness being obtained by their form,
 and often a series of corrugations.

Cylinder-head Bolts.—Diameter of bolt-circle for cylinder-head =
 diam. of cylinder + 2 × thickness of cylinder + 2 × diameter of bolts.
 It should not be more than 6 inches apart (Whitham).

It gives for number of bolts $b = \frac{.7854D^2p}{5000c} = .0001571 \frac{D^2p}{c}$, in which $c =$
 the single bolt, $p =$ boiler-pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; 5000 lbs. is taken
 as safe strain per sq. in. on the nominal area of the bolt.

In case: Cylinder-cover studs and bolts, when made of steel, should
 be such a size that the strain in them does not exceed 5000 lbs. per sq. in.
 If less than $\frac{7}{8}$ inch diameter it should not exceed 4500 lbs. per sq. in.
 If iron the strain should be 30% less.

Seaton says: Cylinder flanges are made a little thicker than the cylin-
 der usually of equal thickness with the flanges of the heads. Cylinder-
 flange should be so closely spaced as not to allow springing of the flanges
 flange, say, 4 to 5 times the thickness of the flanges. Their diameter
 should be proportioned for a maximum stress of not over 4000 to 5000 lbs.
 per inch.

D = diameter of cylinder, p = maximum steam-pressure, b = number
 of bolts, s = size or diameter of each bolt, and 5000 lbs. be allowed per sq.
 nominal area of the bolt, $.7854D^2p = 3027bs^2$; whence $bs^2 = .0003D^2p$;

$$s = \frac{D}{30} \sqrt{\frac{p}{b}} \quad \text{For the three engines we have:}$$

Diameter of cylinder, inches.....	10	30	50
Diameter of bolt-circle, approx....	13	35	57.5
Circumference of circle, approx....	40.8	110	180
Minimum No. of bolts, circ. + 6.....	7	18	30

$$\text{Diam. of bolts, } s = .0114D \sqrt{\frac{p}{b}} \quad \text{..... } \frac{3}{4} \text{ in.} \quad 1.00 \quad 1.29$$

Diameter of bolt for the 10-inch cylinder is 0.54 in. by the formula,
 which is as small as should be taken, on account of possible overstrain
 wrench in screwing up the nut.

Piston. Details of Construction of Ordinary Pist-
 (Seaton).—Let D be the diameter of the piston in inches, p the effec-
 ture per square inch on it, x a constant multiplier, found as follows:

$$x = \frac{D}{50} \times \sqrt{p} + 1.$$

The thickness of front of piston near the boss	= $0.2 \times s$
" " " rim	= $0.17 \times s$
" back "	= $0.16 \times s$
" boss around the rod	= $0.8 \times s$
" flange inside packing-ring	= $0.23 \times s$
" " at edge	= $0.25 \times s$
" packing-ring	= $0.15 \times s$
" junk-ring at edge	= $0.23 \times s$
" " inside packing-ring	= $0.21 \times s$
" " at bolt-holes	= $0.35 \times s$
" metal around piston edge	= $0.35 \times s$
The breadth of packing-ring	= $0.63 \times s$
" depth of piston at centre	= $1.4 \times s$
" lap of junk-ring on the piston	= $0.45 \times s$
" space between piston body and packing-ring	= $0.8 \times s$
" diameter of junk-ring bolts	= $0.1 \times s \pm 0.5$
" pitch " " "	= 10 diameters
" number of webs in the piston	= $(D \div 30) \div 12$
" thickness " " "	= $0.18 \times s$

Marks gives the approximate rule: Thickness of piston-head, which l = length of stroke, and d = diameter of cylinder in inches. Marks says in a horizontal engine the rings support the piston, or at least part of it, under ordinary conditions. The pressure due to the weight of the piston upon an area equal to 0.7 the diameter of the cylinder, the breadth of ring-face should never exceed 300 lbs. per sq. in. He also a formula much used in this country: Breadth of ring-face = $0.45 \times$ diameter of cylinder.

For our engines we have diameter = 30 32

Thickness of rings

Marks, \sqrt{ld} ; long stroke.....	3.31	3.48
Marks, " : short stroke.....	3.94	4.11
Seaton, depth at centre = $1.4s$	4.30	4.47
Seaton, breadth of ring = $0.8s$	1.90	2.00
Whitham, breadth of ring = $.15D$	1.50	1.60

Diameter of Piston Packing-rings.—These are turned, before they are cut, about $\frac{1}{8}$ inch diameter larger than the cylinder for cylinders up to 30 inches diameter, and then enough is cut out to spring them to the diameter of the cylinder. For larger cylinders they are turned proportionately larger. Seaton recommends $\frac{1}{16}$ of the diameter of the cylinder.

Cross-section of the Rings.—The thickness is commonly $\frac{1}{30}$ th of the diam. of cyl. + $\frac{1}{8}$ inch, and the width = thickness $\times 2$. For an eccentric ring the mean thickness may be the same as for a uniform thickness, and the minimum thickness = $\frac{2}{3}$ the maximum. A circular issued by J. H. Dunbar, manufacturer of packing, Youngstown, O., says: Unless otherwise ordered, the thickness of the ring be made equal to $.03 \times$ their diameter. This thickness has been found to be satisfactory in practice. It admits of the ring being made about $\frac{1}{16}$ inch to the foot larger than the cylinder, and has, when new, a tension of two pounds per inch of circumference, which is ample to prevent leakage if the surface of the ring and cylinder are smooth.

As regards the width of rings, authorities "scatter" from very thin to very wide, the latter being fully ten times the former. For instance, Marks gives $W = d \div 0.14 + .08$. Whitham's formula is $W = d \div 15$. In his formula W is the width of the ring in inches, and d the diameter of the cylinder in inches. Unwin's formula makes the width of a 20" ring $W = .03 \times 20 + .08 = .36$ ", while Whitham's is $20 \div 15 = 1.33$ " for the same size ring. There is much less difference in the practice of engine-builders in respect, but there is still room for a standard width of ring. It is that for cylinders over 16" diameter $\frac{1}{16}$ " is a popular and practical rule, and $\frac{1}{8}$ " for cylinders of that size and under.

Fit of Piston-rod into Piston. (Seaton.)—The usual and reliable practice is to turn the piston-rod with a square end for small engines, and $\frac{1}{8}$ inch for large ones, making the

of the rod is three fourths of that of the body, then parallel, the rod should then fit into the piston so close that the shoulder for large pistons, and 1/16 in. for small pistons, prevents the rod from splitting the piston, and turned true after long wear without encroaching on the cylinder.

Secure the rod by a nut, and the size of the rod should be such that the section at the bottom of the thread does not break under a load of 7,000 lbs. for iron, 7,000 lbs. for steel. The depth of this nut should be such that the diameter which would be found by allowing these threads to be locked to prevent its working loose.

Iron-rods.—Unwin gives

$$d'' = bD \sqrt[4]{p}, \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

in which d'' is the diameter in inches, p is the maximum unbalanced pressure in lbs. per sq. in., and the constant $b = 0.0167$ for iron, and $b = 0.0175$ for steel, from an examination of a considerable number of cases.

$$d'' = \sqrt[4]{\frac{D^3 p L^3}{a}} + \frac{D}{80} \text{ nearly, } \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

in which $a = 10,000$ and upward in the various cases of engine screw engines or ordinary fast engines on which the rods are used, while "low-speed engines" being less strong give $a = 15,000$, often.

The diameter of the rod to the piston and to the crosshead should be at least 8 or 10. Marks gives

$$\text{for iron; for steel } d'' = 0.0105D \sqrt[4]{p}; \quad \dots (3)$$

$$\text{for iron; for steel } d'' = 0.03325 \sqrt[4]{D^3 L^3 p}, \quad (4)$$

in which L is the length of stroke, all dimensions in inches. Deduce the diameter of the rod from (3), and if this diameter is less than 1/12, then use 1/12.

$$\text{Diameter of piston-rod} = \frac{\text{Diameter of cylinder}}{F} \sqrt[4]{p}.$$

Values of F :

Direct-acting	$F = 60$
Return connecting-rod, 2 rods	$F = 80$
Ordinary stroke, direct-acting	$F = 50$
Long " "	$F = 48$
Long " "	$F = 45$
Long stroke, oscillating ..	$F = 45$

The diameter of the rod should be long, as compared with the stroke usual for the cylinder.

For a low-pressure engine p , the effective pressure should be taken as the working pressure, or 15 lbs. above that to which the steam is exhausted; for a compound engine the value of p for the first cylinder should be taken as the absolute pressure, less 15 lbs., and for the second cylinder as half the absolute boiler-pressure; and for a high-pressure engine the value of p should be the pressure to which the escape-valve is loaded, or the pressure, which can be got in the cylinder, at the escape-valve, in the rule.

The diameter of the rods for the engines of 10, 30, and 50 in. diameter, should be 1/12, 1/8, and 1/4 in. respectively.

Diameter of Piston-rods.

Diameter of Cylinder, inches.....	10		
Stroke, inches.....	12	21	30
Unwin, iron, $.0167 \sqrt{D \bar{p}}$	1.67	1.67	5.01
Unwin, steel, $.0144 \sqrt{D \bar{p}}$	1.44	1.44	4.33
Thurston $\sqrt{\frac{D^2 p L}{10,000} + \frac{D}{80}}$ (L in feet). ..	1.13	3.15
Thurston, same with $a = 15,000$	1.40
Marks, iron, $.0179 \sqrt{D \bar{p}}$	1.79	5.33
Marks, iron, $.03901 \sqrt{D^{1.15} \bar{p}}$	1.35	1.91	3.76
Marks, steel, $.0105 \sqrt{D \bar{p}}$	(1.05)	(3.15)
Marks, steel, $.03525 \sqrt[1.15]{D^{1.15} \bar{p}}$	1.32	1.73	3.36
Seaton, naval engines, $\frac{D}{60} \sqrt{\bar{p}}$	1.67	5.01
Seaton, land engine, $\frac{D}{45} \sqrt{\bar{p}}$	2.22
Average of four for iron.....	1.49	1.82	4.90

The figures in brackets opposite Marks' third formula since they are less than $\frac{1}{2}$ of the stroke, and the fourth formula would be taken instead. The figure 1.79 formula would be rejected for the engine of 24-inch stroke.

An empirical formula which gives results approximately is $d' = .013 \sqrt{D \bar{p}}$.

The calculated results from this formula, for the six engines, are: 1.42, 1.88, 3.90, 5.61, 6.37, 9.01.

Piston-rod Guides.—The thrust on the guide, when the rod is at its maximum angle with the line of the piston-rod, is given by the formula: Thrust = total load on piston \times tangent of angle of connecting-rod = $p \tan \theta$. This angle, θ , is the angle between the stroke of piston + length of connecting-rod.

Ratio of length of connecting-rod to stroke.....	2
Maximum angle of connecting-rod with line of piston-rod.....	14° 29'
Tangent of the angle.....	.258
Secant of the angle.....	1.0327

Seaton says: The area of the guide-block or slipper on which the thrust is taken, should in no case be less than will admit of 100 lbs. on the square inch; and for good working these surfaces should be sufficiently large to permit of a pressure exceeding 100 lbs. per sq. in. When the surfaces are well lubricated this allowance may be exceeded.

Thurston says: The rubbing surfaces of guides are so small that if V be their relative velocity in feet per minute, and p the pressure on the guide in lbs. per sq. in., $pV < 60,000$ and $p < 600$.

The lower is the safer limit; but for marine and stationary engines allowable to take $p = 60,000 + V$. According to Rankine

$p = \frac{44800}{V + 20}$, where p is the pressure in lbs. per sq. in. and V is the rubbing in feet per minute. This includes the sum of the rubbing of the two rubbing surfaces together.

Some British builders of portable engines restrict the rubbing of the guides and cross heads to less than 40, sometimes 30, feet per minute.

For a mean velocity of 600 feet per minute, Rankine gives $p = 74.6$ lbs. per sq. in.

calculated pressure p_1 = pressure per square inch
 area of piston p_2 = pressure at valve per square inch
 length of connecting rod = length of crank. This is
 formula $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{p_1 \cos \theta + p_2}{12}}$. For $\theta = 45^\circ$, $p_1 = 100$ and p_2
 for the three engines 70, 80 and 90 in. diam. this would
 give $d = 2.5$, 2.6 and 2.8 sq. in. respectively. Whitham
 pressure of the steam may be as high as 500 lbs. per sq. in.,
 and is equal in magnitude and freedom from dust. Station-
 engines are usually designed to carry 100 lbs. per sq. in.,
 and is reduced from 100 lbs. to 50 lbs. by grooves. In locomotive
 engines ranges from 40 to 60 lbs. per sq. in. of slide, on ac-
 count of the slide, dirt, sand, etc.

Agreement among the authorities as to the formula for
 $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{p_1 \cos \theta + p_2}{12}}$, but the value given to p_2 , the allow-
 ance for the range, all the way from 35 lbs. to 500 lbs.

Eng-rod. Ratio of length of connecting rod to length
 of crank generally to the ratio of 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, the
 long and easy-working rod, the former a rather short, but
 one Thurston. Whitham gives the ratio of from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$.

The Connecting-rod.—The calculation of the diameter of
 a theoretical basis, considering it as a strut subject to
 bending stresses, and also to stress due to its inertia,
 is quite complicated. See Whitham, Steam engine
 design, Manual of S. E., p. 100. Empirical formulas are as
 follows: largest at the middle, D = diam. of cylinder, l =
 length of rod in inches, p = maximum steam pressure per sq. in.

diam. at middle, $d'' = 0.0272 \sqrt[3]{Dl \sqrt{p}}$.

diam. at necks, $d'' = 1.0$ to $1.1 \times$ diam. of piston-rod.

diam. at middle, $d'' = \frac{D}{55} \sqrt[3]{p}$.

diam. at necks, $d'' = \frac{D}{60} \sqrt[3]{p}$.

or, $d'' = 0.0179 D \sqrt[3]{p}$ if diam. is greater than $1\frac{1}{24}$ length.

or, $d'' = 0.02758 \sqrt[3]{Dl \sqrt{p}}$ if diam. found by (b) is less than

diam. at middle, $d'' = a \sqrt[3]{Dl \sqrt{p} + C}$, D in inches, L in
 ft. $C = \frac{1}{2}$ inch for fast engines, $a = 0.08$ and $C = \frac{1}{4}$ inch for

slow. The rod may be considered as a strut free at both ends
 and diameter accordingly.

The diam. at the ends may be 0.875 of the diam. at the middle. Seaton's empirical formula when translated into terms of P and L is also practically the same.

(10) Taking Seaton's more complex formula, with length of rod = $2.5 \times$ length of stroke, and $r = 12$ and 16 , respectively for diam. at middle = $.02294 \sqrt{P}$ and $.02411 \sqrt{P}$ for short and long engines, respectively.

Applying the above formulas to the engines of our list, we have

Diameter of Connecting-rods.

Diameter of Cylinder, inches.	10		30	
Stroke, inches.....	12	24	30	40
Length of connecting-rod L	30	60	78	120
(3) $d'' = \frac{D}{55} \sqrt{P} = .0182D \sqrt{P}$	1.62	1.82	2.43	3.46
(5) $d'' = .0170D \sqrt{P}$	1.79	2.37
(6) $d'' = .02758 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P}}$	2.14	3.23
(7) $d'' = 0.15 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P} + \frac{1}{4}}$	2.87	2.00
(7) $d'' = 0.08 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P} + \frac{1}{4}}$	2.54	3.03
(9) $d'' = .03 \sqrt{P}$	2.67	2.67	2.97	2.97
(10) $d'' = .02294 \sqrt{P}$; $.02411 \sqrt{P}$	2.03	2.14	2.40	2.41
Average.....	2.24	2.26	2.34	2.34

Formule 5 and 6 (Marks), and also formula 10 (Seaton), give the diameters for the long-stroke engine; formula 7 give the average for the short-stroke engines. The average figures show but little difference in diameter between long and short-stroke engines; this is what is expected, for while the connecting-rod, considered simply as a beam, would require an increase of diameter for an increase of length, remaining the same, yet in an engine generally the shorter the rod the greater the number of revolutions, and consequently the greater strains due to inertia. The influences tending to increase the diameter therefore tend to balance each other, and to render the diameter almost independent of the length. The average figures correspond to the simple formula $d'' = .021D \sqrt{P}$. The diameters of rod for the diameters of engine by this formula are, respectively, 2.10, 2.20, 2.30. Since the total pressure on the piston $P = .7854 r p$, the formula is lent to $d'' = .0237 \sqrt{P}$.

Connecting-rod Ends.—For a connecting rod end of the type, where the end is secured with two bolts, each bolt should be fitted for a safe tensile strength equal to two thirds the maximum thrust in the connecting-rod.

The cap is to be proportioned as a beam loaded with the maximum of the connecting-rod, and supported at both ends. The cap should be made for rigidity as well as strength, allowing a maximum deflection of 1/100 inch. For a strap-and-key connecting-rod end the strap is of the same tensile strength, considering that two thirds of the pull on the rod may come on one arm. At the point where the metal is secured by key and gib, the straps must be thickened to make the cross-section at that of the remainder of the strap. Between the end of the strap and the strap is liable to fail in double shear, and sufficient metal should be provided at the end to prevent such failure.

The breadth of the key is generally one fourth of the width of the strap, and the length, parallel to the strap, should be such that the end have a shearing strength equal to the tensile strength of the strap. The taper of the key is generally about 1/4 inch in 10

rod Connecting-rod.—In modern high-speed engines it is to insure the connecting-rod of rectangular section of circular to sides being parallel, and the degree increasing regularly from head end to the crank-pin end. According to Whistler, the heating of the rod due to its thermal expansion is greatest at 1/3 the length from the head end, and, according to this theory, that is the point at which the heat would be greatest, although in practice the section is made greatest at crank-pin end.

or Thurston furnishes the author with the following rule for tapered rod of rectangular section. Take the section as computed by the

$d = 0.1 \sqrt[3]{DL \sqrt{p + 3}}$ for a circular section, and for a rod 1/3 the length, placing the computed section at 1/3 the length from the small end, carrying the taper straight through the first section to the large end, bringing the computed section at the large point and making it the section for which a tapered form is not required.

the above formula, multiplying L by 1/3, and changing it to t in becomes $d = 1.30 \sqrt[3]{DL \sqrt{p + 3}}$. Taking a rectangular section we area as the round section, whose diameter is d , and making the section A = twice the thickness t , we have $.7854 d^2 = A t = 2 t^2$,

or $.625 d = .0209 \sqrt[3]{DL \sqrt{p + 3}}$, which is the formula for the thickness between the parallel sides of the rod. Making the degree at head end = 1.56, and at 1/3 the length = 21, the equivalent section at end is 2.254. Applying the formula to the short-stroke engines of

of cylinder, inches.....	10	30	50
connecting-rod.....	12	30	43
connecting-rod.....	30	75	130
$t = .0209 \sqrt[3]{DL \sqrt{p + 3}} =$	1.61	5.89	8.39
grosshead end, 1.56 =.....	2.42	5.41	8.39
crank end, 21.4 =.....	3.22	8.11	12.58

thicknesses t , found by the formula $t = .0209 \sqrt[3]{DL \sqrt{p + 3}}$, agree with the more simple formula $t = .01 D \sqrt[3]{p + .60}$, the thicknesses by this formula being respectively 1.6, 5.6, and 5.6 inches.

crank-pin. A crank pin should be designed (1) to avoid heating, (2) for rigidity. The heating of a crank-pin depends on the friction on its rubbing surface, and on the coefficient of friction, which varies greatly according to the effectiveness of the lubrication. It also depends upon the facility with which the heat produced may be carried off. It appears that locomotive crank-pins may be prevented to some extent from overheating by the cooling action of the air through which they pass.

$$\text{Marks gives } t = .0000247 \sqrt[3]{pND^3} = 1.032f \frac{(\text{H.P.})}{L} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Mam gives } t = 0.0075f \frac{(\text{H.P.})}{L} \quad (2)$$

t = length of crank-pin journal in inches, f = coefficient of friction, may be taken at .03 to .05 for perfect lubrication, and .08 to .10 for imperfect; p = mean pressure in the cylinder in pounds per square inch; D = diameter of cylinder in inches; N = number of single strokes per minute; indicated horse-power; L = length of stroke in feet. These are independent of the diameter of the pin, and Marks states as a rule, within reasonable limits as to pressure and speed of rubbing, a bearing is made, for a given pressure and number of revolutions, it will work; and its diameter has no effect upon its wear. The above formulae are deduced empirically from dimensions of existing marine engines. Marks says that about one-fifth required for crank-pins of propeller engines will serve for all engines, and one-tenth for locomotive engines, mark

formula for locomotive crank-pins $l = .0000247/pNT^2$, or if $p = .06$, and $N = 600$, $l = .0137^2$.

Whitman recommends for pressure per square inch of pin on naval engines 500 pounds, for merchant engines 400 pounds for pin engines 800 to 900 pounds.

Thurston says the pressure should, in the steam-engine, be not over 600 pounds per square inch for wrought-iron pins, or about 400 figure for steel. He gives the formula for length of a steel pin, $l = PR \div 600,000$,

in which P and R are the mean total load on the pin in pounds, and N the number of revolutions per minute. For locomotives, the pressure is taken as 500,000. Where iron is used this figure should be reduced to 400,000 and 250,000 for the two cases taken. Pins so proportioned if well lubricated, may always be depended upon to run over 12 years. They should be formed, perfectly cylindrical, well finished, and kept well oiled, so that they can be relied upon. It is assumed above that good bronze or brass bearings are used.

Thurston also says: The size of crank-pins required to prevent wear on the journals may be determined with a fair degree of precision by the following formulæ given below:

$$l = \frac{P(V + 20)}{44,800d} \quad (\text{Rankine, 1865}); \dots\dots\dots$$

$$l = \frac{PV}{60,000d} \quad (\text{Thurston, 1869}); \dots\dots\dots$$

$$l = \frac{PN}{850,000} \quad (\text{Van Buren, 1866}). \dots\dots\dots$$

The first two formulæ give what are considered by their authors as safe proportions, and the last gives minimum length for iron pins, velocity of rubbing surface in feet per minute.)

Formula (1) was obtained by observing locomotive practice in which liability exists of annoyance by dust, and great risk occurs from overheating while running, and (2) by observation of crank-pins of marine engines. The first formula is therefore not well suited for marine engines.

Steel can usually be worked at nearly double the pressure admitted for iron running at similar speed.

Since the length of the crank-pin will be directly as the power applied upon it and inversely as the pressure, we may take it as

$$l = a \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{L} \dots\dots\dots$$

in which a is a constant, and L the stroke of piston, in feet. The values of the constant, as obtained by Mr. Steel, are about as follows, $a = .001$ for water can be constantly used; $a = 0.045$ where water is not generally used; $a = 0.05$ where water is seldom used; $a = 0.06$ where water is never used. Unwin gives

$$l = a \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{r} \dots\dots\dots$$

in which r = crank radius in inches, $a = 0.3$ to $a = 0.4$ for iron and for marine engines, and $a = 0.066$ to $a = 0.1$ for the case of the best steel and for marine work, where it is often necessary to shorten up outside pins as far as possible.

J. B. Stanwood (*Eng'g*, June 12, 1891), in a table of dimensions of new American Corliss engines from 10 to 30 inches diameter of cylinder, gives sizes of crank-pins which approximate closely to the formula

$$l = .275D'' + .5 \text{ in.}; \quad d = .25D'' \dots\dots\dots$$

By calculating lengths of iron crank pins for the engines 10 HP and 30 HP, diameter long and short stroke, by the several formulæ above given, it is found that there is a great difference in the results, so that one formula may give a length three times as great as another. The formulæ of Thurston and Van Buren give the length much greater than the others. Mr. Steel's formula gives the length more closely.

desired lengths of iron crank pins for the several cases by Thurston and are as follows:

Length of Crank-pin.

Cylinder.....	P	30	35	40	45	50	55
.....	L in	1	2	3	4	5	6
per minute.....	R	250	175	150	125	100	75
.....	I.H.P.	50	75	100	150	200	250
pressure.....	lbs.	7,000	7,500	8,000	8,500	9,000	9,500
per cent of max		40	45	50	55	60	65
or.....	P	3,500	3,375	3,200	3,062	2,900	2,750
crank-pin.....							
$l = .9075 \sqrt{.05 \text{ I.H.P.} + L}$		2.14	1.99	1.87	1.78	1.71	1.65
$l = 1.028 \sqrt{.05 \text{ I.H.P.} + L}$		2.39	2.20	2.10	2.00	1.92	1.85
$l = .05 \text{ I.H.P.} + L$		3.00	2.50	2.00	1.60	1.30	1.10
$l = 4 \text{ I.H.P.} + r$		3.83	3.67	3.50	3.33	3.16	3.00
$l = 3 \text{ I.H.P.} + r$		2.90	2.75	2.60	2.45	2.30	2.15
.....		2.72	2.56	2.40	2.24	2.08	1.92
at steel, $l = .1 \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{r}$.93	.82	.70	.57	.44	.31
Steel, $l = \frac{PR}{600,000}$		1.37	.69	4.50	2.47	3.54	4.42

desired lengths for the long-stroke engines are too low to prevent stresses. See "Pressures on the Crank-pins," below.

Length of the Crank-pin is determined substantially as is crank. In overhung cranks the load is usually assumed as at extremity, and, equating its moment with that of the resistance,

$$\frac{1}{2}Pl = 1/32\pi d^3, \text{ and } d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1Pl}{l}}.$$

diameter of pin in inches, P = maximum load on the piston, in lb.; at 9000 lbs. For steel the diameters found by this formula need 10%. (Thurston.)

in the same formula in another form, viz.:

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{l}} \sqrt[3]{Pl} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{l}} \sqrt[3]{P} \sqrt[3]{l}$$

to be used when the ratio of length to diameter is assumed. For iron, $l = 6000$ to 9000 lbs. per sq. in.,

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{l}} = .0947 \text{ to } .0827; \quad \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{l}} = .0291 \text{ to } .0238.$$

$l = 9000$ to 13,000 lbs. per sq. in.,

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{l}} = .0827 \text{ to } .0723; \quad \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{l}} = .0238 \text{ to } .0194.$$

gives $d = 0.0827 \sqrt[3]{Pl} = 2.1068 \sqrt[3]{\frac{l \times \text{I.H.P.}}{LR}}$ for strength, and

$\sqrt[3]{P}$ for rigidity, and recommends that the diameter be calculated twice, and the largest result taken. The first is the safe assumption, with l taken at 9000 lbs. per sq. in. The second is the

Marks, calculating the diameter for rigidity, gives

$$d = 0.066 \sqrt[3]{p l^3 D^2} = 0.045 \sqrt[3]{\frac{H P l^3}{L N}}$$

p = maximum steam-pressure in pounds per square inch, D = diameter of cylinder in inches, L = length of stroke in feet, N = number of strokes per minute. He says there is no need of an investigation of the effect of a crank-pin, as the condition of rigidity gives a great excess of strength. Marks's formula is based upon the assumption that the stress is concentrated at the outer end, and cause a deflection of about a point.

It is serviceable, he says, for steel and for wrought iron alloys. Using the average lengths of the crank-pins already found, as the following for our six engines:

Diameter of Crank-pins.

Diameter of cylinder.....	10	10	30	30	30
Stroke, ft.....	1	2	2.5	2	2
Length of crank-pin,	2.72	1.30	9.86	4.32	5.7
Unwin, $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1 P l}{t}}$	2.29	1.82	7.34	5.33	11.6
Marks, $d = .066 \sqrt[3]{p l^3 D^2}$	1.89	.85	6.44	3.76	10.8

Pressures on the Crank-pins.—If we take the mean pressure on the crank pin = mean pressure on piston, neglecting the effect of the leading angle of the connecting-rod, we have the following, using the lengths already found, and the diameters according to Unwin and Marks.

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5
Diameter of cylinder, inches.....	10	10	30	30	30
Stroke, feet.....	1	2	2.5	2	2
Mean pressure on pin, pounds.....	3,290	2,390	92,492	92,492	92,492
Projected area of pin, Unwin.....	6.23	2.26	78.4	28.7	38.7
..... Marks.....	8.78	1.10	60.5	26.6	36.6
Pressure per square inch, Unwin.....	520	1,050	215	320	238
..... Marks.....	373	2,845	560	348	253

The results show that the application of the formula for length of crank-pins give quite low pressures per square inch of area for the short-stroke high speed engines of the larger sizes. The pressures for all the other engines. It is therefore evident that calculating the dimensions of a crank-pin according to the formulae given, results should be modified, if necessary, to bring the pressure per inch down to a reasonable figure.

In order to bring the pressures down to 500 pounds per square inch divide the mean pressures by 500 to obtain the projected area of length by diameter. Making $t = 1.5d$ for engines Nos. 1, 2, 4, revised table for the six engines is as follows:

Engine, No.	1	2	3	4	5
Length of crank-pin, inches.....	3.15	3.15	9.86	6.37	17.2
Diameter of crank-pin.....	3.10	3.10	7.84	5.28	12.6

Crosshead-pin or Wrist-pin.—Whitham says the bearing for the wrist pin is found by the formula for crank pin design. The diameter at the rubbing must, of course, be sufficient to resist bending action, and generally from this cause simple stress is a good working; but in any case the area calculated by using the diameter of the journal by its length, should be such that the pressure does not exceed 1,000 lbs. per sq. in., taking the maximum load for the stroke into account.

It is also found by the formula for the gudgeon pin into the bearing.

rod, and working in brasses fitted into a recess in the piston-rod end and held by a wrought-iron cap and two bolts. Seaton gives:

Diameter of gudgeon = $1.25 \times$ diam. of piston-rod,
Length of gudgeon = $1.4 \times$ diam. of piston-rod.

The pressure on the section, as calculated by multiplying length by area, exceeds 1200 lbs. per sq. in., this length should be increased.

B. Stanwood, in his "Ready Reference" book, gives for length of crosshead-pin 0.25 to 0.3 diam. of piston, and diam. = 0.18 to 0.2 diam. of piston. Since he gives for diam. of piston-rod 0.14 to 0.17 diam. of piston, dimensions for diameter and length of crosshead-pin are about 1.25 and 1.4 diam. of piston-rod respectively. Taking the maximum allowable pressure of 1200 lbs. per sq. in. and making the length of the crosshead-pin = 1.25 diam., we have $d = \sqrt[4]{P + 40}$, $l = \sqrt[4]{P + 30}$, in which P = maximum total load on piston in lbs., d = diam., and l = length of pin in inches. The engines of our example we have:

Diameter of piston, inches.....	10	30	50
Maximum load on piston, lbs.	7854	70,086	196,350
Diameter of crosshead-pin, inches.....	2.25	6.65	11.08
Length of crosshead-pin, inches.....	2.90	8.86	14.77
Stanwood's rule gives diameter, inches.....	1.8 to 2	5.4 to 6	9.0 to 10
Stanwood's rule gives length, inches	2.5 to 3	7.5 to 9	12.5 to 15
Stanwood's largest dimensions give pressure per sq. in., lbs.	1309	1329	1309

When pressures are greater than the maximum allowed by Seaton.

The Crank-arm.—The crank-arm is to be treated as a lever, so that is the thickness in direction parallel to the shaft-axis and b its breadth at section x inches from the crank-pin centre, then, bending moment M at that section = Px , P being the thrust of the connecting-rod, and f the strain per square inch,

$$Px = \frac{fab^2}{8} \text{ and } \frac{a \times b^2}{8} = \frac{T}{f}, \text{ or } a = \frac{8T}{b^2 \times f}; \quad b = \sqrt[4]{\frac{8T}{fa}}.$$

If a crank-arm were constructed so that b varied as \sqrt{x} (as given by the rule) it would be of such a curved form as to be inconvenient to manufacture, and consequently it is customary in practice to find the maximum value of b and draw tangent lines to the curve at the points; these are generally, for the same reason, tangential to the boss of the crank at the shaft.

The shearing strain is the same throughout the crank-arm; and, consequently, is large compared with the bending strain close to the crank-pin; so it is not sufficient to provide there only for bending strains. The section at this point should be such that, in addition to what is given by the relation from the bending moment, there is an extra square inch for every 1000 lbs. of thrust on the connecting rod (Seaton).

The length of the boss h into which the shaft is fitted is from 0.75 to 1.0 diam. of the shaft D , and its thickness e must be calculated from twisting strain PL . (L = length of crank.)

For different values of length of boss h , the following values of thickness e are given by Seaton:

When $h = D$, then $e = 0.35 D$; if steel, 0.3.
 $h = 0.9 D$, then $e = 0.38 D$, if steel, 0.32.
 $h = 0.8 D$, then $e = 0.40 D$, if steel, 0.33.
 $h = 0.7 D$, then $e = 0.41 D$, if steel, 0.34.

The crank-eye or boss into which the pin is fitted should bear the same relation to the pin that the boss does to the shaft.

The diameter of the shaft-end onto which the crank is fitted should be the diameter of shaft.

Seaton says: The empirical proportions adopted by builders will commonly be found to fall well within the calculated safe margin. These proportions are, from the practice of successful designers, about as follows: The wrought-iron crank, the hub is 1.75 to 1.8 times the least diameter of the shaft carrying full load; the eye is 2.0 to 2.25 the diameter of the inserted portion of the pin, and their depths are, for the eye, 1.25 to 1.5 the diameter of shaft, and for the eye, 1.25 to 1.5 the diameter.

The web is made 0.7 to 0.75 the width of adjacent hub or eye, and the depth of 0.5 to 0.6 that of adjacent hub or eye.

For the cast-iron crank the hub and eye are a little larger, the diameter respectively from 1.8 to 2 and from 2 to 2.5 times the diameter of shaft and pin. The flanges are made at either end of nearly the diameter of hub or eye. Cast-iron has, however, fallen very generally into disuse.

The crank shaft is usually enlarged at the seat of the crank to the diameter at the journal. The size should be nicely adjusted to the shrinkage or forcing on of the crank. A difference of diameter of 1% will usually suffice; and a common rule of practice is to allowance of but one half of this, or .001.

The formulae given by different writers for crank-arms practically since they all consider the crank as a beam loaded at one end and the other. The relation of breadth to thickness may vary according to the taste of the designer. Calculated dimensions for our six engines are as follows:

Dimensions of Crank-arms.

Diam. of cylinder, ins.	10	10	30	30	50
Stroke S, ins.	12	24	30	60	48
Max. pressure on pin P, (approx.) lbs.	7854	7854	70,086	70,086	120,350
Diam. crank-pin d	2.10	2.10	7.94	5.58	12.69
Diam. shaft, $a = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1 \text{ H.P.}}{R} D}$	2.74	3.46	7.70	9.70	12.55
(a = 4.69, 5.09 and 5.22) Length of boss, .8D	2.19	2.77	6.16	7.76	10.44
Thickness of boss, .4D	1.10	1.39	3.08	3.88	5.02
Diam. of boss, 1.8D	4.03	6.23	13.86	17.46	22.59
Length crank-pin eye, .8d	1.76	1.76	5.85	4.46	9.92
Thickness of crank-pin eye, .4d	.88	.88	2.94	2.23	4.46
Max. mom. T at distance $\frac{1}{2}S - \frac{1}{2}D$ from centre of pin, inch-lbs.	87,149	80,661	788,149	1,848,492	2,479,322
Thickness of crank-arm $a = .75D$	2.05	2.60	5.78	7.78	9.41
Greatest breadth, $b = \sqrt{\frac{6T}{9000d}}$	3.48	4.33	9.54	13.0	15.7
Min. mom. T_0 at distance d from centre of pin = Td	16,493	16,493	525,835	304,128	2,434,760
Least breadth, $b_1 = \sqrt{\frac{6T_0}{9000d}}$	2.32	2.06	7.81	6.01	13.13

The Shaft. — Twisting Resistance. — From the general

for torsion, we have: $T = \frac{\pi}{16} d^3 S = .19635 d^3 S$, whence $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{16T}{\pi S}}$

T = torsional moment in inch-pounds, d = diameter in inches, S = shearing resistance of the material in pounds per square inch.

If a constant force P were applied to the crank-pin tangentially the work done per minute would be

$$P \times L \times \frac{2\pi}{12} \times R = 33,000 \times \text{I.H.P.},$$

in which L = length of crank in inches, and R = revs. per min. mean twisting moment $T = \frac{1 \text{ H.P.}}{R} \times 63,025$. Therefore

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{221,327 \text{ I.H.P.}}{RS}}$$

may take the form

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{I.H.P.}{R} \times F}, \text{ or } d = a \sqrt[3]{\frac{I.H.P.}{R}},$$

F and a are factors that depend on the strength of the material as factor of safety. Taking S at 45,000 pounds per square inch for iron, and at 60,000 for steel, we have, for simple twisting by a tangential force,

Factor of safety =	5	6	8	10		5	6	8	10
a	$F = 35.7$	42.8	57.1	71.4		$a = 3.8$	3.5	2.85	4.15
or.....	$F = 28.8$	32.1	42.8	53.5		$a = 3.0$	3.18	3.5	3.77

Taking for safe working strength of wrought iron 3000 lbs., steel 4500 lbs., and cast iron 4500 lbs., gives $a = 3.394$ for wrought iron, 2.857 for steel, and 4.15 for cast iron. Thurston, for crank-axes of wrought iron, gives 4.15 or more.

Remarks: For wrought iron, f , the safe strain per square inch, should not exceed 9000 lbs., and when the shafts are more than 10 inches diameter, steel, when made from the ingot and of good materials, will stand a stress of 12,000 lbs. for small shafts, and 10,000 lbs. for those above 10 inches diameter.

Reference in the allowance between large and small shafts is to compensate for the defective material observable in the heart of large shafting, the hammering failing to affect it.

Formula $d = a \sqrt[3]{\frac{I.H.P.}{R}}$ assumes the tangential force to be uniform

It is the only acting force. For engines, in which the tangential force varies with the angle between the crank and the connecting-rod, and variation in steam-pressure in the cylinder, and also is influenced by inertia of the reciprocating parts, and in which also the shaft may be subjected to bending as well as torsion, the factor a must be increased, to allow for the maximum tangential force and for bending.

Table gives the following table showing the relation between the maximum mean twisting moments of engines working under various conditions of momentum of the moving parts being neglected, which is allowed.

Description of Engine.	Steam Cut-off at	Max. Twist Divided by Mean Twist, Moments	Cube Root of the Ratio.
Crank expansive.....	0.9	2.625	1.38
".....	0.4	2.125	1.29
".....	0.6	1.835	1.22
".....	0.8	1.608	1.20
Under expansive, cranks at 90°....	0.2	1.616	1.17
".....	0.3	1.475	1.12
".....	0.4	1.398	1.09
".....	0.5	1.296	1.08
".....	0.6	1.270	1.08
".....	0.7	1.229	1.10
".....	0.8	1.357	1.11
Under compound, cranks 120°....	h.p. 0.5, l.p. 0.66	1.40	1.12
"..... l.p. cranks.....		1.40	1.12
One another, and h.p. midway.....	" "	1.26	1.08

Table also gives the following rules for ordinary practice for ordinary engines for marine engines:

Factor of the tunnel-shafts = $\sqrt[3]{\frac{I.H.P.}{R} \times F}$, or $a \sqrt[3]{\frac{I.H.P.}{R}}$.

Compound engines, cranks at right angles:

Boiler pressure 70 lbs., rate of expansion 6 to 7, $F = 70$, $a = 4.12$.

Boiler pressure 80 lbs., rate of expansion 7 to 8, $F = 72$, $a = 4.15$.

Boiler pressure 90 lbs., rate of expansion 8 to 9, $F = 75$, $a = 4.22$.

Triple compound, three cranks at 120 degrees:

Boiler pressure 150 lbs., rate of expansion 10 to 12, $F = 62$, $a = 3.88$.

Boiler pressure 160 lbs., rate of expansion 11 to 13, $F = 64$, $a = 4.00$.

Boiler pressure 170 lbs., rate of expansion 12 to 15, $F = 67$, $a = 4.08$.

Expansive engines, cranks at right angles, and the rate of expansion:
boiler pressure 60 lbs., $F = 60$, $a = 4.48$.

Single-crank compound engines, pressure 80 lbs., $F = 26$, $a = 4.58$.

For the engines we are considering it will be a very liberal allowance ratio of maximum to mean twisting moment if we take it as equal to the ratio of the maximum to the mean pressure on the piston. The factor then, in the formula for diameter of the shaft will be multiplied by the

root of this ratio, or $\sqrt[3]{\frac{100}{42}} = 1.34$, $\sqrt[3]{\frac{100}{32.3}} = 1.45$, and $\sqrt[3]{\frac{100}{30}} = 1.49$.

10, 30, and 50-in. engines, respectively. Taking $a = 3.5$, which corresponds to a shearing strength of 60,000 and a factor of safety of 3 for steel, 45,000 and a factor of 6 for iron, we have for the new coefficient a_1 the

formula $d_1 = a_1 \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}$, the values 4.69, 5.08, and 5.22, from which

obtain the diameters of shafts of the six engines as follows:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5
Diam. of cyl.	10	10	30	30	50
Horse-power, I.H.P.	50	50	450	450	1,250
Revs. per min., R	250	125	130	65	90

Diam. of shaft $d = a_1 \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}$ 2.74 3.46 7.67 9.70 12.55

These diameters are calculated for twisting only. When the shaft is subjected to bending strain the calculation must be modified as follows.

Resistance to Bending.—The strength of a circular section to resist bending is one half of that to resist twisting. If H is the twisting moment in inch-lbs., and d the diameter of the shaft in inches,

$$B = \frac{\pi d^3}{32} \times f; \text{ and } d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{B}{f} \times 10.2};$$

f is the safe strain per square inch of the material of which the shaft is composed, and its value may be taken as given above for twisting.

Equivalent Twisting Moment.—When a shaft is subjected to both twisting and bending simultaneously, the combined strain on the shaft may be measured by calculating what is called the equivalent twisting moment; that is, the two strains are so combined as to be equal to a twisting strain only of the same magnitude and the size of shaft calculated accordingly. Rankine gave the following solution of the combination of the two strains.

If T = the twisting moment, and B = the bending moment on a shaft, then the equivalent twisting moment $T_1 = B + \sqrt{4B^2 + T^2}$.

Seaton says: Crank-shafts are subject always to twisting, bending, and shearing strains; the latter are so small compared with the former they are usually neglected directly, but allowed for indirectly by means of the factor f .

The two principal strains vary throughout the revolution, and the equivalent twisting moment can only be obtained accurately by a series of calculations of bending and twisting moments taken at fixed intervals, and from them constructing a curve of strains.

Considering the engines of our examples to have one crank on each cylinder, the extreme bending moment resulting from the thrust of the connecting rod on the crank pin will take place when the engine is at the extreme position of the effect of the inertia of the reciprocating parts, and the sum of the total pressure on the piston by the gas and steam.

parallel lines passing through the centres of the crank-pin and of the shaft bearing, at right angles to their axes; which distance is equal to length of crank-pin bearing + length of hub + $\frac{1}{2}$ length of shaft bearing + clearance that may be allowed between the crank and the two bearings. For our six engines we may take this distance as equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ length of crank-pin + thickness of crank-arm + $1.5 \times$ the diameter of the shaft as easily found by the calculation for twisting. The calculation of diameter then as below:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5	6
dia. of cyl., in. . .	10	10	30	30	50	50
horse-power,	50	50	450	450	1250	1250
revs. per min. . . .	250	125	130	65	90	45
press. on pis. P	7,854	7,854	70,686	70,686	196,350	196,350
average \circ L in. . . .	6.32	7.94	22.30	26.00	36.80	42.25
dia. $PL = B$ in. lb	49,637	62,361	1,560,222	1,837,836	7,225,680	8,295,780
dist. mom. T	47,124	94,448	1,000,290	2,120,580	4,712,400	9,424,800
dia. Twist. mom.						
$T_1 = B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$						
(approx.)	118,000	175,000	3,403,000	4,647,000	15,840,000	20,850,000

Leverage = distance between centres of crank-pin and shaft bearing = $+ 2.25d$.

Having already found the diameters, on the assumption that the shafts are subjected to a twisting moment T only, we may find the diameter for bending combined bending and twisting by multiplying the diameters already found by the cube roots of the ratio T_1 to T , or

corrected diameters $d_1 =$. . . 3.84 1.37 1.46 1.34 1.64 1.36

By plotting these results, using the diameters of the cylinders for abscissas and diameters of the shafts for ordinates, we find that for the long stroke engines the results lie almost in a straight line expressed by the formula, diameter of shaft = .43 \times diameter of cylinder; for the short-stroke engines the line is slightly curved, but does not diverge far from a straight line. One equation is, diameter of shaft = .4 diameter of cylinder. Using these formulas, the diameters of the shafts will be 4.0, 4.3, 12.0, 12.3, 20.0, 21.5. B. Stanwood, in *Engineering*, June 12, 1891, gives dimensions of shafts for Corliss engines in American practice for cylinders 10 to 30 in. diameter. The diameters range from 4 15/16 to 14 15/16, following precisely the equation, diameter of shaft = $\frac{1}{2}$ diameter of cylinder - 1/16 in.

Fly-wheel Shafts.—Thus far we have considered the shaft as resisting the force of torsion and the bending moment produced by the pressure on the crank-pin. In the case of fly-wheel engines the shaft on the opposite side of the bearing from the crank-pin has to be designed with reference to bending moment caused by the weight of the fly wheel, the weight of shaft itself, and the strain of the belt. For engines in which there is no board bearing, the weight of fly-wheel and shaft being supported by two bearings, the point of the shaft at which the bending moment is a maximum may be taken as the point midway between the two bearings or the middle of the fly-wheel hub, and the amount of the moment is the product of the weight supported by one of the bearings into the distance from the centre of that bearing to the middle point of the shaft. The shaft thus is to be treated as a beam supported at the ends and loaded in the middle. In the case of an overhung fly-wheel, the shaft having only one bearing, the point of maximum moment should be taken as the middle of the bearing, and its amount is very nearly the product of half the weight of the fly wheel and the shaft into the distance from the middle of its hub to the middle of the bearing. The bending moment should be calculated combined with the twisting moment as above shown, to obtain the resultant twisting moment, and the diameter necessary at the point of maximum moment calculated therefrom.

In the case of our six engines we assume that the weights of the shafts, together with the shaft, are double the weight of fly wheel and are found from the formula, $W = 785,100 \frac{d^2 L}{H^2}$ (given under Fly-wheel)

that the shaft is supported by an outboard bearing, the diameters of the two bearings being 2½, 5, and 10 feet for the 10 in., 30-in. and 60-in. engines, respectively. The diameters of the fly-wheels are taken so that their rim velocity will be a little less than 6000 feet per minute.

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5
Diam. of cyl., inches	10	10	30	30	30
Diam. of fly-wheel, ft.	7.5	15	14.5	29	21
Revs. per min.	250	125	130	65	80
Half wt fly-wh'l and shaft, lb.	268	536	5,963	11,936	35,941
Lever arm for max. mom., in.	15	15	30	30	60
Max. bending moment, in.-lb.	4020	8040	179,040	358,080	1,500,000

As these are very much less than the bending moments calculated from the pressures on the crank-pin, the diameters already found are sufficient for the diameter of the shaft at the fly-wheel hub.

In the case of engines with heavy hand fly-wheels and with long shafts it is of the utmost importance to calculate the diameter of the shaft with reference to the bending moment due to the weight of the fly-wheel and the shaft.

B. H. Coffey (*Power*, October, 1892) gives the formula for combined bending and twisting resistance, $T_1 = 196/T^2 S$, in which $T_1 = H + 1/2 S$ being the maximum, not the mean twisting moment, and finds the working values for 196S as below. He says: Four points should be considered in determining this value: First, the nature of the material; second, the manner of applying the loads, with shock or otherwise; third, the ratio of the bending moment to the torsional moment—the bending moment of a revolving shaft produces reversed strains in the material, which tend to weaken it; fourth, the size of the section. Inch for inch, large sections are weaker than small ones. He puts the dividing line between large and small sections at 10 in. diameter, and gives the following safe values of S for steel, wrought iron, and cast iron, for these conditions.

VALUE OF $S \times .196$.

Ratio.	Heavy Shafts with Shock.			Light shafts with Shock. Heavy Shafts No Shock.			Light Shafts No Shock.		
B to T .	Steel.	Wro't Iron.	Cast Iron.	Steel.	Wro't Iron.	Cast Iron.	Steel.	Wro't Iron.	Cast Iron.
3 to 10 or less.	1045	850	440	1565	1320	660	3390	2800	1320
3 to 2 or less.	941	785	393	1410	1170	590	1962	1600	780
1 to 1 or less.	855	715	358	1291	1074	537	1710	1410	660
B greater than T	784	655	328	1176	984	492	1560	1260	600

Mr. Coffey gives as an example of improper dimensions the shaft of a 100 H. P. engine at Willimantic, Conn., which broke while the engine was running at 425 H. P. The shaft was 17 ft 3 in. long between bearings, 18 in. diam. for 8 ft. in the middle, and 15 in. diam. for the remainder, including the bearings. It broke at the base of the first of the two large diameters, or 50½ in. from the centre of the shaft. Coffey calculates the mean torsional moment to be 446,651 inch pounds, maximum at twice the mean, and the total weight on one bearing at 1150 lbs., which, multiplied by 50½ in., gives 4,945,445 in.-lb. bending moment on the fiber. Applying the formula $T_1 = B + 1/2 H + T_2$ gives for a twisting moment 9,971,045 in.-lb. Substituting this value in the formula $T_1 = 196 S/T^2$ gives for S the shearing strain 15,070 lbs. per sq. inch. Coffey had a shearing strength of 45,000 lbs., a factor of safety of 3. Mr. Coffey considers that 6000 lbs. is all that should be allowed for these circumstances. This would give $d = 20.35$ in. If we take for T_1 a factor of value of 196S = 1100, we obtain $d^3 = 2820$ nearly, or 14 in. diameter, the actual diameter.

Length of shafts.—There is no great difference in the length of shafts, and as great a variation in practice as there is concerning crank-pin.

DIMENSIONS OF PARTS OF ENGINES.

Journal being determined from considerations of its heating, the formulae for length of crank-pins to avoid heating may also be used. The total load upon the bearing the resultant of all the pressures on it, by the pressure on the crank, by the weight of the fly-wheel, and the pull of the belt. After determining this pressure, however, resort to empirical values for the so-called constants of the formulae, which depend on the power of the bearing to carry away the heat, upon the quantity of heat generated, which latter depends on the number of square feet of rubbing surface passed on in a minute, and upon the coefficient of friction. This coefficient is an extremely variable quantity, ranging from .01 or less with perfectly polished journals, having end-play, and lubricated by a pad or oil-bath, to .10 for ordinary oil-cup lubrication.

For shafts resisting torsion only, Marks gives for length of bearing $l = 1.0247 \sqrt{p} N / p$, in which f is the coefficient of friction, p the mean pressure in pounds per square inch on the piston, N the number of single strokes per minute, and D the diameter of the piston. For shafts under the pressure due to pressure on the crank-pin, weight of fly-wheel, etc., the following: Let Q = reaction at bearing due to weight, S = steam pressure on piston, and R_1 = the resultant force; for horizontal engines $R_1 = \sqrt{Q^2 + S^2}$, for vertical engines $R_1 = Q + S$, when the pressure on the crank-pin is in the same direction as the pressure of the shaft on its bearings. $R_1 = Q - S$ when the steam pressure tends to lift the shaft from its bearings. Using empirical values for the work of friction per square inch of projected area, taken from dimensions of crank-pins in marine engines, Marks gives the formula for length of shaft-journals $l = .00009357 R_1$, which he recommends that to cover the defects of workmanship, neglect of the introduction of dust, f be taken at .16 or even greater. For shafts in brass bearings with good results if a less pressure is not used without inconvenience. Marks says that the use of empirical rules does not take account of the number of turns per minute has resulted in journals much too long for slow-speed engines and too short for high-speed engines.

Whitham gives the same formula, with the coefficient .0002575. Thurston says that the maximum allowable mean intensity of pressure may be, for all cases, computed by his formula for journals, $l = \frac{1}{60}$,

by Rankine's, $l = \frac{P(F + 20)}{44,800d}$, in which P is the mean total pressure in pounds, F the velocity of rubbing surface in feet per minute, and d the diameter of the shaft in inches. It must be borne in mind, he says, that the friction on the main bearing next the crank is the sum of that due to the action of the piston on the pin, and that due to that portion of the weight of the shaft and of pull of the belt which is carried there. The outboard bearing carries practically only the latter two parts of the total. The crank journals will be made longer on one side, and perhaps shorter on the other than that of the crank-pin, in proportion to the work falling upon them to their respective products of mean total pressure, speed of rubbing surfaces, and coefficients of friction.

Unwin says: Journals running at 150 revolutions per minute at only one diameter long. Fan shafts running 150 revolutions per minute journals six or eight diameters long. The ordinary empirical mode of determining the length of journals is to make the length proportional to the diameter, and to make the ratio of length to diameter increase with speed. For wrought-iron journals:

Revs. per min. =	50	100	150	200	250	500	1000	$\frac{l}{d} = .60$
Length ÷ diam. =	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	3.0	5.0.	

Cast-iron journals may have $l + d = 9, 10$, and steel journals $l + d$ of the above values.

Unwin gives the following, calculated from the formula $l = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{H.P.}{r}}$, in which r is the crank radius in inches, and H.P. the horse-power to the crank-pin.

THEORETICAL JOURNAL LENGTH IN INCHES.

Load on Journal in pounds.	Revolutions of Journal per minute.					
	50	100	200	300	500	1000
1,000	3	4	5	1.2	5	4
2,000	4	5	6	2.4	6	5
4,000	6	8	10	4.8	8	10
5,000	1.0	2.	3.	5.	10.	20.
10,000	2.	4.	8.	12.	20.	40.
15,000	3.	6.	12.	18.	30.	60.
20,000	4.	8.	16.	24.	40.	80.
30,000	6.	12.	24.	36.	60.	120.
40,000	8.	16.	32.	48.	80.	160.
50,000	10.	20.	40.	60.	100.	200.

Applying these different formulæ to our six engines, we have:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diam. cyl.	10	10	30	30	40	50
Horse power.	50	50	450	450	1,200	1,500
Revs. per min.	250	125	100	65	50	40
Mean pressure on crank-pin = S ..	3,250	3,200	23,185	23,185	25,000	30,000
Half wt. of fly-wheel and shaft = Q ..	268	536	5,904	11,808	25,000	30,000
Resultant press. on bearing $\sqrt{Q^2 + S^2} = R$..	3,310	3,335	23,024	23,191	25,000	30,000
Diam. of shaft journal.	3.84	4.39	11.45	13.99	20.58	25.00
Length of shaft journal:						
Marks, $l = .0000125/R$, $N(f = 10)$..	5.38	2.71	20.87	11.07	37.78	27.77
Whitham, $l = .0000515/R$, $R(f = 10)$..	4.37	2.15	16.53	8.77	29.85	19.85
Thurston, $l = \frac{PV}{60,000d}$..	3.61	1.82	14.00	7.43	25.34	15.34
Hankins, $l = \frac{PV(f + 20)}{44,800d}$..	5.22	2.78	21.70	10.85	35.19	25.19
Unwin, $l = (.0004R + 1)d$..	7.68	6.59	17.25	16.36	27.99	25.00
Unwin, $l = \frac{0.4 \text{ H.P.}}{r}$..	3.33	1.66	12.00	6.00	20.00	15.00
Average	4.92	2.99	17.05	10.00	25.51	19.40

If we divide the mean resultant pressure on the bearing by the projected area, that is, by the product of the diameter and length of the journal, we obtain the greatest and smallest length out of the seven lengths for each engine given above, we obtain the pressure per square inch upon the bearing, as follows:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pressure per sq. in., shortest journal.	259	435	176	236	191	150
Longest journal.	112	115	97	123	87	70
Average journal.	175	254	127	272	102	77
Journal of length = diam.	10	10	30	30	40	50

Many of the formulæ give for the long-stroke engines a length of journal less than the diameter, but such short journals are rarely used in practice. The last line in the above table has been calculated on the supposition that

all of the long-stroke engines are made of a length equal to the

dimensions of Corliss engines given by J. B. Stanwood (*Eng.*, June 1887) the lengths of the journals for engines of diam. of cyl. 10 to 20 in. are as the diam. of the cylinder, and a little more than twice the length of the journal. For engines above 20 in. diam. of cyl. the ratio of diam. is decreased so that an engine of 30 in. diam. has a journal of 1 1/2 in. diam. being 1 1/2 in. These lengths of journal are greater than given by any of the formulae above quoted.

It thus appears to be a hopeless confusion in the various formulae for shaft journals, but this is no more than is to be expected from the want of the coefficient of friction, and in the heat-conducting power of the material used, the coefficient varying from .10 (or even .16 as given) down to .01, according to the condition of the bearing surfaces

and efficiency of lubrication. Thurston's formula, $l = \frac{PV}{60,000d}$, reduces to

$l = .00004363PR$, in which P = mean total load on journal, and R = revolutions per minute. This is of the same form as Marks' and other formulae, in which, if f the coefficient of friction be taken at .10, the constants of PR are, respectively, .0000065 and .00000315. Taking the

these three formulae, we have $l = .00004363PR$, if $f = .10$ or $l = .0000065PR$ for any other value of f . The author believes this to be as safe as any for length of journals, with the limitation that if it brings the length of journal less than the diameter, then the length should be equal to the diameter. Whenever with $f = .10$ it gives a length

inconvenient or impossible of construction on account of limited space, provision should be made to reduce the value of the coefficient of friction below .10 by means of forced lubrication, end play, etc., and to reduce the heat, as by water-cooled journal-boxes. The value of P taken as the resultant of the mean pressure on the crank, and the weight on the bearing by the weight of the shaft, fly-wheel, etc., as given by the formula already given, viz., $R_1 = \sqrt{Q^2 + S^2}$ for horizontal and $R_1 = Q + S$ for vertical engines.

For six engines the formula $l = .0000065PR$ gives, with the limitation that for six-stroke engines that the length shall not be less than the diameter, the following:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Journal.....	4.30	4.39	16.48	12.29	30.80	21.62
per square inch on journal..	196	173	128	155	102	171

Shafts with Centre-crank and Double-crank

In centre-crank engines, one of the crank arms, and its adjoining shaft, called the after journal, usually transmit the power of the engine to be done, and the journal resists both twisting and bending, while the other journal is subjected to bending moment only. For crank-journal the diameter should be calculated the same as for a crank, using the formula for combined bending and twisting.

$T_1 = B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$, in which T_1 is the equivalent twisting moment, B the bending moment, and T the twisting moment. This value

to be used in the formula diameter = $\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.17}{S}}$. The bending mo-

ment is taken as the maximum load on piston multiplied by one fourth of the length of the crank-shaft between middle points of the two journals if the centre crank is midway between the bearings, or by one half the distance measured parallel to the shaft from the middle of the crank to the middle of the after bearing. This supposes the crank to be a beam loaded at its middle and supported at the ends, but would make the bending moment only one half of this, considering it to be a beam secured or fixed at the ends, with a point of contact one fourth of the length from the end. The first supposition is

the more correct, but since the bending moment will in any case be much less than the twisting moment, the resulting diameter will be but little greater than that if the second supposition is used. For the forward journal, which is sub-

ject to twisting moment only, diameter of shaft = $\sqrt[3]{\frac{10.23}{S}}$.

is the maximum bending moment and S the safe shearing strength of metal per square inch.

For our six engines, assuming them to be centre-crank engines, considering the crank shaft to be a beam supported at the ends in the middle, and assuming lengths between centres of shafts given below, we have:

Engine No.....	1	2	3	4	5
Length of shaft, assumed, inches, L	20	34	45	60	70
Max. press. on crank-pin, P	7,854	7,854	70,686	70,686	100
Max. bending moment, $B = \frac{1}{4}PL$, inch-lbs.....	39,270	49,637	848,232	1,000,200	3,750
Twisting moment, T	47,124	94,248	1,000,200	2,120,580	4,710
Equiv. twisting moment, $B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$	101,000	156,000	2,208,000	3,430,000	9,700
Diameter of after journal, $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T_1}{8000}}$	3.95	4.60	11.15	13.00	15.00
Diam. of forward journal, $d_1 = \sqrt[3]{\frac{10.2B}{8000}}$	3.33	3.99	10.23	11.13	13.00

The lengths of the journals would be calculated in the same case of overhung cranks, by the formula $l = 0.0003/P/L$, the resultant of the mean pressure due to pressure of steam in the cylinder and the load of the fly-wheel, shaft, etc., on each of the two journals. Unless the pressures are equally divided between the two journals, the calculated lengths of the two will be different; but it is usual to make them both of the same length, and in no case less than the diameter. The diameters also are usually made the same for the two journals, using the largest diameter found by calculation.

The crank pin for a centre crank should be of the same length as an overhung crank, since the length is determined from cooling, and not of strength. The diameter also will usually be the same, since it is made great enough to make the pressure per square inch of projected area (product of length by diameter) small enough for free lubrication, and the diameter so calculated will be great enough for strength.

Crank-shaft with Two Cranks coupled at 90°.—If the whole power of the engine is transmitted through the after crank, after crank-shaft, the greatest twisting moment is equal to T_1 , the maximum twisting moment due to the pressure on one of the cranks. If P = the maximum twisting moment produced by the steam on one of the pistons, then T_1 the maximum twisting moment on one of the crank shafts, and on the line shaft, produced when each is at an angle of 45° with the centre line of the engine, is $1.414T_1$. This value in the formula for diameter to resist simple torsion

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T_1}{S}}, \text{ we have } d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1 \times 1.414T_1}{S}}, \text{ or } d = 1.034 \sqrt[3]{\frac{T_1}{S}},$$

the maximum twisting moment produced by one of the pistons in inches, and S = safe working shearing strength of metal. For the forward journal of the after crank, and the after journal of the forward crank, the torsional moment is that due to the pressure on the forward piston only, and for the forward journal of the after crank if none of the power of the engine is transmitted to the forward crank, the torsional moment is zero, and its diameter is to be calculated only.

Designing Crank-shaft for Torsion and Flexure.—Let T_1 = the maximum twisting moment due to the pressure on the forward crank, and T_2 = the maximum twisting moment due to the pressure on the after crank.

and piston, B_2 = bending moment on either journal of the after crank to maximum pressure on after piston, T_1 = maximum twisting moment on after journal of forward crank, and T_2 = maximum twisting moment on after journal of after crank due to pressure on the after piston.

Equivalent twisting moment on after journal of forward crank = $B_1 \sqrt{B_1^2 + T_1^2}$.

Forward journal of after crank = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + T_1^2}$.

After journal of after crank = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + (T_1 + T_2)^2}$.

These values of equivalent twisting moment are to be used in the formula

Diameter of journals $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}}$. For the forward journal of the

and crank-shaft $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{10.2B_1}{S}}$.

It is customary to make the two journals of the forward crank of one meter, viz., that calculated for the after journal.

For a Three-cylinder Engine with cranks at 120° , the greatest bending moment on the after part of the shaft, if the maximum pressures on the three pistons are equal, is equal to twice the maximum pressure on one piston, and it takes place when two of the cranks make angles of 60° with the centre line, the third crank being at right angles to it. (For demonstration, see Whitham's "Steam-engine Design," p. 252.) For combined tension and flexure the same method as above given for two crank engines adopted for the first two cranks; and for the third, or after crank, if all power of the three cylinders is transmitted through it, we have the equivalent twisting moment on the forward journal = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + (T_1 + T_2)^2}$, on the after journal = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + (T_1 + T_2 + T_3)^2}$, B_2 and T_2 being respectively the bending and twisting moments due to the pressure on the after piston.

Crank-shafts for Triple-expansion Marine Engines. According to an article in *The Engineer*, April 25, 1890, should be made stronger than the formulae would call for, in order to provide for the stresses to the racing of the propeller in a sea-way, which can scarcely be calculated. A kind of unwritten law has sprung up for fixing the size of a crank-shaft, according to which the diameter of the shaft is made about D , where D is the diameter of the high-pressure cylinder. This is for solid shafts. When the speeds are high, as in war-ships, and the stroke is long, the formula becomes $0.4D$, even for hollow shafts.

The Valve-stem or Valve-rod.—The valve-rod should be designed to resist the pressure under the most unfavorable conditions, which are when the stem acts by thrusting, as a long column, when the valve is unbalanced. A balanced valve may become unbalanced by the joint leaking and when it is perfectly lubricated. The load on the valve is the product of the area of the valve and the greatest unbalanced pressure upon it per square inch, and the coefficient of friction may be as high as 25%. The product of this coefficient and the load is the force necessary to move the valve, which equals the maximum thrust on the valve-rod. From this force the diameter of the valve-rod may be calculated by Hodgkinson's formula for columns. An

empirical formula given by Seaton is: Diam. of rod = $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{Hnp}{F}}$, in which

H = length and b = breadth of valve, in inches; p = maximum absolute pressure on the valve in lbs. per sq. in., and F a coefficient whose values are, for iron: long rod 10,000, short 12,000; for steel: long rod 12,000, short 14,500. Whitham gives the short empirical rule: Diam. of valve-rod = $\frac{1}{30}$ diam. of piston-rod.

Size of Slot-link. (Seaton.)—Let D be the diam. of the valve rod

$$D = \sqrt[3]{\frac{Hnp}{12,000}}$$

Diameter of block-pin when overhung = D .
 " " secured at both ends = $0.75 \times D$.
 " eccentric-rod pins = $0.7 \times D$.
 " suspension-rod pins = $0.65 \times D$.
 " pin when overhung = $0.75 \times D$.

Breadth of link	$= 0.8 \text{ to } 0.9 \times D$
Length of block	$= 1.8 \text{ to } 1.6 \times D$
Thickness of bars of link at middle	$= 0.7 \times D$
If a single suspension rod of round section, its diameter	$= 0.7 \times D$
If two suspension rods of round section, their diameter	$= 0.5 \times D$

Size of Double-bar Links.—When the distance between eccentric pins = 6 to 8 times throw of eccentrics (throw = eccentric half-travel of valve at full gear) D as before:

Depth of bars	$= 1.25 \times D + \frac{3}{4}$ in.
Thickness of bars	$= 0.5 \times D + \frac{1}{4}$ in.
Length of sliding block	$= 2.5 \text{ to } 3 \times D$
Diameter of eccentric-rod pins	$= 0.8 \times D + \frac{1}{4}$ in.
" centre of sliding-block	$= 1.3 \times D$

When the distance between eccentric-rod pins = 5 to 5½ times eccentrics:

Depth of bars	$= 1.25 \times D + \frac{1}{4}$ in.
Thickness of bars	$= 0.5 \times D + \frac{1}{4}$ in.
Length of sliding-block	$= 2.5 \text{ to } 3 \times D$
Diameter of eccentric rod pins	$= 0.75 \times D$

Diameter of eccentric bolts (top end) at bottom of thread = $0.6 \times D$ of iron, and $0.38 \times D$ when of steel.

The Eccentric.—Diam. of eccentric-sheave = $2.4 \times$ throw + $1.2 \times$ diam. of shaft. D as before

Breadth of the sheave at the shaft	$= 1.15 \times D$
Breadth of the sheave at the strap	$= D + 0.6$
Thickness of metal around the shaft	$= 0.5 \times D$
Thickness of metal at circumference	$= 0.6 \times D$
Breadth of key	$= 0.7 \times D$
Thickness of key	$= 0.25 \times D$
Diameter of bolts connecting parts of strap	$= 0.6 \times D$

THICKNESS OF ECCENTRIC-STRAP.

When of bronze or malleable cast iron:

Thickness of eccentric-strap at the middle	$= 0.4 \times D$
" " sides	$= 0.3 \times D$

When of wrought iron or cast steel:

Thickness of eccentric-strap at the middle	$= 0.4 \times D$
" " sides	$= 0.27 \times D$

The Eccentric-rod.—The diameter of the eccentric-rod at and at the eccentric end may be calculated in the same way as connecting-rod, the length being taken from centre of strap pin. Diameter at the link end = $0.5 D + 0.2$ inch.

This is for wrought-iron; no reduction in size should be made. Eccentric rods are often made of rectangular section.

Reversing-gear should be so designed as to have more strength to withstand the strain of both the valves and their same time under the most unfavorable circumstances, it will the stiffness requisite for good working.

Assuming the work done in reversing the link-motion, W , to be due to overcoming the friction of the valves themselves through travel, then, if T be the travel of valves in inches; for a compound

$$W = \frac{T}{12} \left(\frac{l \times b \times p}{5} \right) + \frac{T}{12} \left(\frac{l' \times b' \times p'}{5} \right);$$

l , b , and p being length, breadth and maximum steam-pressure of the second cylinder; and for an expansive engine

$$W = 2 \times \frac{T}{12} \left(\frac{l \times b \times p}{5} \right), \text{ or } \frac{T}{30} l \times b \times p.$$

To provide for the friction of link-motion, eccentrics and other parts of the same, take the work as one or more times above.

strain at any part of the gear having motion when reversing, is so found by the space moved through by that part in feet; the strain in pounds; and the size may be found from the rule of construction for any of the parts of the gear. (Seaton.)

Frames or Bed-plates.—No definite rules for the design of frames have been given by authors of works on the steam-engine. Rules are left to the designer who uses "rule of thumb," or existing engines. F. A. Halsey (*Am. Mach.*, Feb. 14, 1885) has a comparison of proportions of the frames of horizontal Corliss vertical builders. The method of comparison is to compute from the number of square inches in the smallest cross-section of the frame, that is, immediately behind the pillow-block, also the total maximum pressure upon the piston, and to divide the latter by the former. The result gives the number of pounds on the piston allowed for each square inch of metal in the frame, that is, the number of pounds per square inch of smallest section. The number ranges from 217 for a 10 × 30-in. engine up to 575 for a 30 × 60-in. engine. A 30 × 60-in. engine shows 350 lbs., and a 32-in. engine running for many years shows 667 lbs. Generally the load increases with the size of the engine, and more cross-section of metal is required for relatively long strokes than with short ones.

Mr. Halsey formulates the general rule that in engines of moderate speed, and having strokes up to one and one-half times the diameter of the cylinder, the load per square inch of smallest section of the frame should be 300 pounds, which figure should be increased for higher speeds up to 500 pounds for a 30-inch cylinder of same relative dimensions. For longer strokes the load per square inch should be increased.

FLY-WHEELS.

The function of a fly-wheel is to store up and to restore the periodical fluctuation of energy given to or taken from an engine or machine, and thus to maintain a nearly constant the velocity of rotation. Rankine calls the coefficient of fluctuation of speed or of unsteadiness, in

the mean actual energy, and ΔE the excess of energy received or expended, above the mean, during a given interval. The ratio of excess or deficiency of energy ΔE to the whole energy exerted per revolution General Morin found to be from $1/6$ to $1/4$ for engines using expansion; the shorter the cut-off the higher the value; and for a pair of engines with cranks coupled at 90° the value of the $1/4$, and for three engines with cranks at 120° , $1/12$ of its value under engines. For tools working at intervals, such as punch- and plate-cutting machines, coining presses, etc., ΔE is nearly the whole work performed at each operation.

Rankine reduces the coefficient $\frac{\Delta E}{2E_0}$ to a certain fixed amount, being $1/50$ for ordinary machinery, and $1/60$ for machinery for fine

work. The reciprocal of the intended value of the coefficient of fluctuation ΔE the fluctuation or energy, I the moment of inertia of the fly-wheel, and ω_0 its mean angular velocity, $I = \frac{mg\Delta E}{\omega_0^2}$. As the rim of

the fly-wheel is usually heavy in comparison with the arms, I may be taken as the moment of inertia of the rim, in which W = weight of rim in pounds, and r the radius of the fly-wheel, $I = \frac{W r^2}{2}$, if v be the velocity of the rim in feet per second, $\omega_0 = \frac{v}{r}$.

The ordinary values of the product of time being the second, lie between 1000 and 2000 feet for engines with automatic valve-gear $W = 250,000$ lbs.

A = area of piston in square inches, S = stroke in feet, R = revolutions per minute, L = length of crank in feet.

Thurston also gives for ordinary engines

ordinary purposes, $V = 2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 per cent. For good purposes, such as cotton-spinning, the variation should be 1 per cent.

F. M. Rites (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 100) develops a new formula for rim, viz., $W = \frac{C \times \text{I.H.P.}}{R^2 D^2}$, and weight of rim per bay

which C varies from 10,000,000,000 to 20,000,000,000; also, of C , he obtains for the energy of the fly-wheel

$$\frac{C \times \text{H.P.} \times (8.14)^2 D^2 R^2}{R^2 D^2 \times 64.4 \times 8000} = \frac{850,000 \text{ H.P.}}{R} \quad \text{Fly-wheel energy}$$

The limit of variation of speed with such a weight of power per fraction of revolution is less than .003.

The value of the constant C given by Mr. Rites was deduced from the Westinghouse single-acting engines used for double-acting engines in ordinary service a value of C probably be ample.

From these formulæ it appears that the weight of the fly-wheel should vary inversely with the cube of the square of the diameter.

J. B. Stanwood (*Eng'g*, June 12, 1891) says: When the lowest piston-speed probable for an engine of a certain weight for that speed approximates closely to the formula

$$W = 700,000 \frac{d^2 s}{D^2 R^2}$$

W = weight in pounds, d = diameter of cylinder in inches, D = diameter of wheel in feet, R = revolutions per minute corresponding to 480 feet piston-speed.

In a Ready Reference Book published by Mr. Stanwood he gives the same formula, with coefficients as follows: gas engines, ordinary duty, 350,000; same, electric-lighting, 700,000; high-speed engines, 1,000,000; for Corliss engines, ordinary duty, 1,000,000.

Thurston's formula above given, $W = \frac{aAS}{R^2 D^2}$, with $a =$

Engines operating—

Hammering and crushing machinery.....	$d = 5$
Pumping and shearing machinery.....	$d = 20$ to 30
Weaving and paper-making machinery.....	$d = 40$
Milling machinery.....	$d = 50$
Spinning machinery.....	$d = 50$ to 100
Ordinary driving-engines (mounted on bed-plate), belt transmission.....	$d = 35$
Gear-wheel transmission.....	$d = 50$

Theiss's formula for weight of fly-wheel in pounds is $W = i \times \frac{d \times I.H.P.}{V^2 \times n}$

d is the coefficient of steadiness, V the mean velocity of the fly-wheel in feet per second, n the number of revolutions per minute, i = coefficient obtained by graphical solution, the values of which for different conditions are given in the following table. In the lines under "cut" means "compression to initial pressure," and O "no compression":

VALUES OF i . SINGLE-CYLINDER NON-CONDENSING ENGINES.

Speed ft. per min.	Cut-off, $1/d$.		Cut-off, $1/4$.		Cut-off, $1/3$.		Cut-off, $1/2$.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	272,690	218,580	242,010	209,170	220,760	201,920	193,340	182,840
300	240,810	187,430	208,300	178,460	188,510	170,040	174,690	167,860
400	194,670	145,400	168,590	138,460	165,210	146,610
500	158,200	108,690	132,070	105,260

SINGLE-CYLINDER CONDENSING ENGINES.

Speed ft. per min.	Cut-off, $1/3$.		Cut-off, $1/6$.		Cut-off, $1/4$.		Cut-off, $1/3$.		Cut-off, $1/2$.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	265,560	176,560	224,160	173,660	204,210	167,140	189,600	161,830	172,690	156,990
300	194,590	147,870	174,880	118,380	164,720	133,080	174,630	151,680
400	148,780	140,090

TWO-CYLINDER ENGINES, CRANKS AT 90° .

Speed ft. per min.	Cut-off, $1/6$.		Cut-off, $1/4$.		Cut-off, $1/3$.		Cut-off, $1/2$.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	21,000	Mean 60,140	59,420	Mean 54,340	49,272	Mean 50,000	37,020	Mean 36,950
300	20,160		57,000		49,150		35,500	
400	20,040		57,480		49,220		
500	20,040		60,140		

THREE-CYLINDER ENGINES, CRANKS AT 120° .

Speed ft. per min.	Cut-off, $1/6$.		Cut-off, $1/4$.		Cut-off, $1/3$.		Cut-off, $1/2$.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	33,810	32,340	33,810	35,500	34,540	32,450	35,200	33,200
300	30,180	31,670	35,140	33,810	36,470	32,850

As a mean value of i for these engines we may use 33

Centrifugal Force in Fly-wheels.—Let W = pounds; R = mean radius of rim in feet; r = revolutions per minute; v = velocity of rim in feet per second = $\frac{\pi R r}{60}$.

$$\text{Centrifugal force of whole rim} = F = \frac{W v^2}{g R} = \frac{4 W r^2 R}{90000}$$

The resultant, acting at right angles to a diameter of the rim, tends to disrupt one half of the wheel from the other half, at the section of the rim at each end of the diameter. The resultant radial forces taken at right angles to the diameter is $1 \div 2$ of these forces; hence the total force F is to be divided by 2 to obtain the tensile strain on the cross-section of the rim.

strain on the cross-section = $S = .0005457 W R r^2$. The rim of cast iron 1 inch square in section is $2\pi R \times 3.125 \div$ whence strain per square inch of sectional area of rim = $S_1 = .0002664 / D r^2 = .00002701 v^2$, in which D = diameter of wheel in feet; v = velocity of rim in feet per minute. $S_1 = .0002664$, if v is in feet per second.

For wrought iron.....	$S_1 = .0011366 R^2 r^2 = .0002842 / D r^2$
For steel.....	$S_1 = .0011593 R^2 r^2 = .0002860 / D r^2$
For wood.....	$S_1 = .0000888 R^2 r^2 = .0000222 / D r^2$

The specific gravity of the wood being taken at 0.6 = $\frac{3}{5}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ the weight of cast iron.

Example.—Required the strain per square inch in the rim of a wheel 80 ft. diameter, 60 revolutions per minute.

Answer. $15^2 \times 60^2 \times .0002664 = 752 \frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

Required the strain per square inch in a cast-iron wheel 1 mile a minute. *Answer.* $.00027 \times 5280^2 = 752 \frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

In cast-iron fly-wheel rims, on account of their thickness in securing soundness, and a tensile strength of 10,000 lbs. as much as can be assumed with safety. Using a factor of safety of 10, the maximum allowable strain in the rim of 1000 lbs. per square inch corresponds to a rim velocity of 6085 ft. per minute.

For any given material, as cast iron, the strength required depends only on the velocity of the rim, and not upon its diameter.

Chas. E. Emery (*Cass. Mag.*, 1892) says: By calculation of the arms is available to strengthen the rim, or a trial of the wheel centres are relatively large. The arms, however, are subjected to severe strains, from belts and from changes of speed, and there is no certainty that the arms and rim will be adjusted so as to resist together in resisting disruption, so the plan of considering the rim as a separate entity, and making it strong enough to resist disruption by centrifugal force, is the safe limits, as is assumed in the calculations above, is the correct one.

It does not appear that fly-wheels of customary construction are unsafe at the comparatively low speeds now in common use. The materials are used in construction. The cause of rupture have failed is usually either the "running away" of the governor, or the breaking or slackness of a governor, or design or defective materials of the fly-wheel.

Chas. T. Porter (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xiv 800) states that the bursting of a fly-wheel with a solid rim in a high-speed engine attributes the bursting of wheels built in segments to the strain of the flanges and bolts by which the segments are held together. *Thurston, "Manual of the Steam-engine," Part II, page 64.*

Arms of Fly-wheels and Pulleys.—Prof. W. C. Cresswell, July 30, 1901, gives the following formula for arms of cast-iron wheels:

W = load in pounds acting on one arm; S = strain on the arm in pounds per square inch, taken at 53 for single and 112 for double belt in inches; n = number of arms; L = length of arm in inches from hub; d = depth of arm at hub, both in inches.

$\frac{W L}{d^3}$ The breadth of the arm is its least dimension at the hub, and the depth the major axis. The factor of safety of the material is assumed to be 10.

the formula, first assume some depth for the arm, and calculate the breadth to go with it. If it gives too round an arm, assume a little greater, and repeat the calculation. A second trial will give a good section.

If the arms at the hub having been calculated, they may be reduced at the rim end. The actual amount cannot be calculated, as too many unknown quantities. However, the depth and d be reduced about one third at the rim without danger, and this well-shaped arm.

are often cast in halves, and bolted together. When this is done care should be taken to provide sufficient metal in the bolts, to be the very weakest point in such pulleys. The combined area at each joint should be about $28/100$ the cross-section of the pulley. (Torrey.)

$$d = 0.6337 \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} \text{ for single belts;}$$

$$d = 0.708 \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} \text{ for double belts;}$$

d = diameter of the pulley, and B the breadth of the rim, both in the same formula are based on an elliptical section of arm in which $d = 2.5b$ on a width of belt = $4/5$ the width of the pulley rim, a driving force transmitted by the belt of 56 lbs. per inch of width of belt and 112 lbs. for a double belt, and a safe working stress of 2250 lbs. per square inch.

By Torrey's formula we make $b = 0.4d$, it reduces to

$$b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{WL}{187.5}}; \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{WL}{12}}.$$

—Given a pulley 10 feet diameter; 8 arms, each 4 feet long; face, 10 inches; belt, 30 inches; required the breadth and depth of the arm according to Unwin,

$$b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} = 0.633 \sqrt[3]{\frac{36 \times 190}{8}} = 5.16 \text{ for single belt, } b = 2.06;$$

$$b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} = 0.708 \sqrt[3]{\frac{36 \times 190}{8}} = 6.50 \text{ for double belt, } b = 2.60.$$

By Torrey, if we take the formula $b = \frac{WL}{80d^2}$ and assume $d = 5$ ins. respectively, for single and double belts, we obtain $b = 1.08$ respectively, or practically only one half of the breadth according to Unwin, since transverse strength is proportional to breadth, an arm of as strong.

Unwin's formula is said to be based on a factor of safety of 10, but this is only apparent and not real, since the assumption that the strain on the arm is equal to the strain on the belt divided by the number of arms is, to say the least, inaccurate. It would be more nearly correct to say the strain of the belt is divided among half the number of arms. Unwin makes the same assumption in developing his formula, but says it is a safe assumption, and that a large factor of safety must be allowed. He takes the low figure of 2250 lbs. per square inch for the safe strength of cast iron. Unwin says that his equations agree well with practice.

Form of Fly-wheels for Various Speeds.—If 6000 feet.

V = the maximum velocity of rim allowable, then 6000 = revolutions per minute, and D = diameter of wheel

$$D = \frac{1910}{V^2}.$$

**MAXIMUM DIAMETER OF FLY-WHEEL ALLOWABLE FOR DIFFERENT
OF REVOLUTIONS.**

Revolutions per minute.	Assuming Maximum Speed of 5000 feet per minute.		Assuming Maximum of 6000 feet per minute.	
	Circum. ft.	Diam. ft.	Circum. ft.	Diam.
40	125	39.8	150	
50	100	31.8	120	
60	88.3	26.5	100	
70	71.4	22.7	85.72	
80	62.5	19.9	75.00	
90	55.5	17.7	66.66	
100	50.	15.9	60.00	
120	41.67	13.3	50.00	
140	35.71	11.4	42.86	
160	31.25	9.9	37.5	
180	27.77	8.8	33.33	
200	25.00	8.0	30.00	
220	22.73	7.2	27.27	
240	20.83	6.6	25.00	
260	19.23	6.1	23.08	
280	17.86	5.7	21.43	
300	16.66	5.3	20.00	
350	14.29	4.5	17.14	
400	12.5	4.0	15.00	
450	11.11	3.5	13.33	
500	10.00	3.2	12.00	

Strains in the Rims of Fly-band Wheels Produced by Centrifugal Force.

James B. Stanwood, Trans. A. S. M. E. — Mr. Stanwood mentions one case of a fly-band wheel where the velocity on a 17' 9" wheel is over 7500 ft. per minute.

In band saw-mills the blade of the saw is operated successively on wheels 8 and 9 ft. in diameter, at a periphery velocity of 5000 to 10,000 ft. per minute. These wheels are of cast iron throughout, of heavy thickness, and have a large number of arms.

In shingle-machines and chipping-machines where cast-iron disks 5 ft. in diameter are employed, with knives inserted radially, the velocity is frequently 10,000 to 15,000 ft. per minute at the periphery.

If the rim of a fly-wheel alone be considered, the tensile strain per square inch of the rim section is $T = \frac{V^2}{10}$ nearly, in which V

is in feet per second; but this strain is modified by the resistance of the arms which prevent the uniform circumferential expansion of the rim, and by a bending as well as a tensile strain. Mr. Stanwood discusses the strains in band-wheels due to transverse bending of a section of the rim between a pair of arms.

When the arms are few in number, and of large cross-section, the rim will be strained transversely to a greater degree than with a greater number of lighter arms. To illustrate the necessary rim thicknesses in rim velocities, pulley diameters, number of arms, etc., the following is given, based upon the formula

$$t = \frac{.475d}{N\left(\frac{V^2}{10} - \frac{1}{10}\right)},$$

in which t = thickness of rim in inches, d = diameter of pulley in feet, N = number of arms, V = velocity of rim in feet per second. The greatest stress is in pounds per square inch to which any stress is equivalent at 8000 lbs. per sq. in.

Thickness of Rims in Solid Wheels.

of in	Velocity of Rim in feet per second.	Velocity of Rim in feet per minute.	No. of Arms.	Thickness in inches.
	50	3,000	6	2/10
	88	5,280	6	15/32
	88	5,280	6	16/16
	184	11,040	16	2 1/4
	184	11,040	36	1 1/2

nit of rim velocity for all wheels be assumed to be 88 ft. per sec-
1 to 1 mile per minute, $F = 6000$ lbs., the formula becomes

$$t = \frac{.475d}{.67N^2} = 0.7 \frac{d}{N^2}.$$

heels are made in halves or in sections, the bending strain may
to make t greater than that given above. Thus, when the joint
f way between the arms, the bending action is similar to a beam
simply at the ends, uniformly loaded, and t is 50% greater. Then
a becomes

$$t = \frac{.712d}{N^2 \left(\frac{F}{V^2} - \frac{1}{10} \right)}.$$

ted maximum rim velocity of 88 ft. per second and $F = 6000$ lbs.,

In segmental wheels it is preferable to have the joints opposite

the arms along the line of separation, should

be should be given to the proportions of large receiving and tight-
ers. The thickness of rim for a 48-in. wheel (shown in table) with
city of 88 ft. per second, is 15.16 in. Many wrecks have been
the failure of receiving or tightening pulleys whose rims have been
fly-wheels calculated for a given coefficient of steadiness are fre-
quently than the minimum safe weight. This is true especially of
the. A rough guide to the minimum weight of wheels can be de-
rived from our formulae. The arms, hub, lugs, etc., usually form from one
one third the entire weight of the wheel. If b represents the face
in inches, the weight of the rim (considered as a simple annular
se $w = .82dtb$ lbs. If the limit of speed is 88 ft. per second, then
wheels $t = 0.7d + N^2$. For sectional wheels (joint between arms)
 N^2 . Weight of rim for solid wheels, $w = .57d^2b + N^2$ in pounds.
rim in sectional wheels with joints between arms, $w = .86d^2b + N^2$ to
lbs. Total weight of wheel: for solid wheel, $W = .76d^2b + N^2$ to
lbs. in pounds. For segmental wheels with joint between arms,
 $.7b + N^2$ to $1.3d^2b + N^2$ in pounds.

Subject is further discussed by Mr. Stanwood, in vol. xv., and by
and Lanza, in vol. xvi., Trans. A. S. M. E.)

Iron Rim Fly-wheel, built in 1891 for a pair of Corliss en-
gines Amoskeag Mfg. Co.'s mill, Manchester, N. H., is described by
ing in Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 618. It is 30 ft. diam. and 108 in. facer,
12 inches thick, and is built up of 44 courses of ash plank, 2, 3,
1/2 in. thick, reduced about 1/4 inch in dressing, set edgewise, so as to
be, and glued and bolted together. There are two hubs and two
arms, 12 in each, all of cast iron. The weights are as follows:

Weight (calculated) of ash rim.....	31,855 lbs.
of 24 arms (foundry 45,020).....	40,349 "
" 2 hubs (" 55,030).....	31,394 "
air-weights in 6 arms.....	684 "
of, excluding bolts and screws.....	104,282 ± "

was tested at 76 revs. per min., being a surface speed

minutes.

Mr. Manning discusses the relative safety of cast iron and of wheels as follows: As for safety, the speeds being the same, cases, the hoop tension in the rim per unit of cross-section would be as the weight per cubic unit; and its capacity to stand the strain as the tensile strength per square unit; therefore the tensile strength by the weights will give relative values of different materials. A weighing 450 lbs. per cubic foot and with a tensile strength of 1,140,000 per square foot would give a value of $1,140,000 \div 450 = 2533$, while which the rim was made, weighing 84 lbs. per cubic foot, and with lbs. tensile strength per square foot, gives a result $1,140,000 \div 84 = 13,571$, and $33,882 \div 3200 = 10.58$, or the wood-rimmed pulley is ten times than the cast-iron when the castings are good. This would allow a rimmed pulley to increase its speed to $\sqrt{10.58} = 3.25$ times that of cast-iron one with equal safety.

Wooden Fly-wheel of the Willimantic Lumber Co.—*Patented in Ponce, March, 1854.*—Rim 28 ft. diam., 110 in. face. The carried upon three sets of arms, one under the centre of each set of arms in each set.

The material of the rim is ordinary whitewood, $\frac{3}{4}$ in. in thickness, segments not exceeding 4 feet in length, and either 5 or 8 inches. These were assembled by building a complete circle 13 inches in diameter with the 8-inch inside and the 5-inch outside, and then beside it a circle with the widths reversed, so as to break joints. Each piece added was brushed over with glue and nailed with three-inch nails the pieces already in position. The nails pass through three and fourth thickness. At the end of each arm four 14-inch bolts on the rim, the ends being covered by wooden plugs glued and driven into of the wheel.

Wire-wound Fly-wheels for Extreme Speeds.—*Aug. 2, 1890.*—The power required to produce the Mannesmann very large, varying from 2000 to 10,000 H. P., according to the size of the tube. Since this power is only needed for a short time (it takes to 45 seconds to convert a bar 10 to 12 ft. long and 4 in. in diameter), and then some time elapses before the next bar is ready, at 1200 H. P. provided with a large fly-wheel for storing the energy to give power enough for one set of rolls. These fly-wheels are so large in such great speeds that the ordinary method of constructing them is followed. A wheel at the Mannesmann Works, made in Komotau, in the usual manner, broke at a tangential velocity of 125 ft. per second. The fly-wheels designed to hold at more than double this speed on a cast-iron hub to which two steel disks, 20 ft. in diameter, are bolted to the circumference of the wheel thus formed 70 tons of No. 5 wire under a tension of 50 lbs. In the Mannesmann Works at London such a wheel makes 240 revolutions a minute, corresponding to a velocity of 16,000 ft. or 2.85 miles per minute.

THE SLIDE-VALVE.

Definitions.—*Travel* = total distance moved by the valve.

Throw of the Eccentric = eccentricity of the eccentric = distance of the shaft to the centre of the eccentric disk = $\frac{1}{2}$ the valve. (Some writers use the term "throw" to mean the whole of the valve.)

Lap of the valve, also called *outside lap* or *steam-lap* = distance of steam edge of the valve extends beyond or laps over the steam port when the valve is in its central position.

Inside lap, or *exhaust-lap* = distance the inner or exhaust edge of valve extends beyond or laps over the exhaust edge of the port when the valve is in its central position. The inside lap is sometimes made even negative, in which latter case the distance between the valve and the edge of the port is sometimes called *exhaust clearance*.

Lead of the valve = the distance the steam port is opened when the piston is at the beginning of the stroke.

Lead-angle = the angle between the position of the crank when the valve is to be opened and its position when the piston is at the beginning of the stroke.

Valve gear = the gear which gives lead when the steam-port opens.

stroke. If the piston begins its stroke before the admission of the valve is said to have negative lead, and its amount is the edge of the valve over the edge of the port at the instant when stroke begins.

θ = the angle through which the eccentric must be rotated to steam edge to travel from its central position the distance of the

advance of the eccentric = lap-angle + lead angle.

advance = lap + lead.

of Lap, Lead, etc., upon the Steam Distribution, —
 to travel $2\frac{1}{2}$ in., lap $\frac{3}{4}$ in., lead $1/16$ in., exhaust-lap $\frac{1}{2}$ in., re-
 position for admission, cut-off, release and compression, and
 port-opening. (Halsey on Slide Valve Gears.) Draw a circle of
 h = travel of valve. From O the centre set off Oa = lap and ab
 set perpendiculars Oe , ac , bd ; then ec is the lap-angle and cd the
 measured as arcs. Set off $fg = cd$, the lead-angle, then Og is
 of the crank for steam admission. Set off $2ec + cd$ from h to i ;
 the crank-angle for cut-off, and $fk + fh$ is the fraction of stroke
 at cut-off. Set off Ol = exhaust-lap and draw lm ; em is the
 angle. Set off $hn = ec + cd + em$, and On is the position of
 release. Set off $fp = ec + cd + em$, and Op is the position of crank
 position, $fo + fh$ is the fraction of stroke completed at release, and
 the fraction of the return stroke completed when compression
 is the throw of the eccentric, minus Oa the lap, equals ab the
 port-opening.

has neither lap nor lead, the line joining the centre of the eccen-

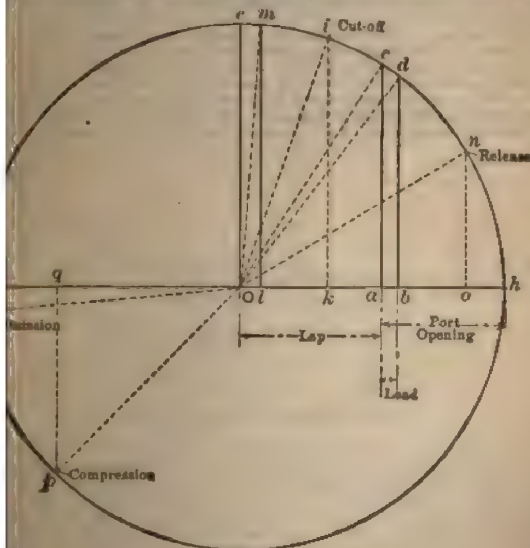


FIG. 146.

and the centre of the shaft being at right angles to the line of the
 engine would follow full stroke, admission of steam begins at
 ing of the stroke and ending at the end of the stroke
 to the valve enables us to cut off steam before the
 eccentric being advanced as to cut off steam before the
 steam to be admitted at the beginning of it

before lap was added, and advancing it a further amount equal to the angle causes steam to be admitted before the beginning of the stroke.

Having given lap to the valve, and having advanced the eccentric shaft from its central position at right angles to the crank the angular advance = lap-angle and lead-angle, the four events take place as follows: Admission, when the crank lacks two lap and one lead-angle of having reached the centre; cut-off, when the crank lacks two lap and one lead-angle of having reached the centre. During the admission steam the crank turns through a semicircle less twice the lap-angle; the greatest port-opening is equal to half the travel of the valve less the lap. Therefore for a given port-opening the travel of the valve must be increased if the lap is increased. When exhaust-lap is added to the valve it delays the opening of the exhaust and hastens its closing by an amount equal to the exhaust-lap angle, which is the angle through which the eccentric rotates from its middle position while the exhaust-lap valve uncovers its lap. Release then takes place when the crank lacks lap-angle and one lead-angle minus one exhaust-lap angle of having reached the centre, and compression when the crank lacks lap-angle + lead-angle minus exhaust-lap angle of having reached the centre.

The above discussion of the relative position of the crank, piston valve for the different points of the stroke is accurate only with a connecting-rod of infinite length.

For actual connecting-rods the angular position of the rod causes distortion of the position of the valve, causing the events to take place late in the forward stroke and too early in the return. The correction of this distortion may be accomplished to some extent by setting the valve as to give equal lead on both forward and return stroke, and by increasing the exhaust-lap on one end so as to equalize the release and compression. F. A. Halsey, in his Slide-valve Gears, describes a method of equalizing cut-off without at the same time affecting the equality of the release. In designing slide-valves the effect of angularity of the connecting-rod must be studied on the drawing-board, and preferably by the use of a model.

Sweet's Valve-diagram.—To find outside and inside lap and lead for different cut-offs and compressions (see Fig. 147): Draw a circle

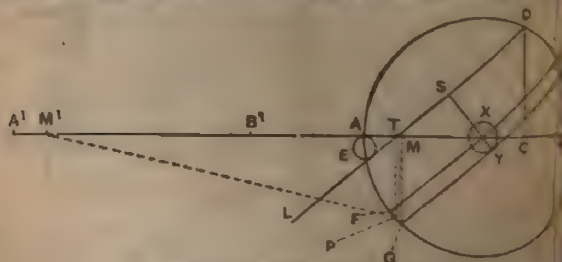


FIG. 147.—Sweet's Valve-diagram.

diameter equals travel of valve. Draw diameter BA and continue it so that the length AA' bears the same ratio to XA as the length of connecting-rod does to length of engine-crank. Draw small circle L with diameter equal to lead. Lay off AC so that ratio of AC to AB equals parts of the stroke. Erect perpendicular CD . Draw DL tangent to circle L . Draw XS perpendicular to DL ; XS is then outside lap of valve.

To find release and compression: If there is no inside lap, draw a line through X parallel to DL . F and E will be position of crank for release and compression. If there is an inside lap, draw a circle about F with radius XY equals inside lap. Draw HG tangent to this circle and parallel to DL ; then H and G are crank position for release and compression. Draw HN and MG , then AN is piston position at release and BM at compression, AB being considered stroke of engine. To make events alike on each stroke it is necessary to increase the outside lap of valve, and to decrease by the same amount the inside lap.

on back end of valve. To determine this amount, through M with $MM' = A.A'$, draw arc $M'P$, from P draw PT perpendicular to AB , PT is the amount to be added to inside lap on crank end, and to be added from inside lap on back end of valve, inside lap being XY .
Fullam Valve Diagram, see Halsey on Slide-valve Gears.
Zeuner Valve-diagram is given in most of the works on the engine, and in treatises on valve-gears, as Zeuner's, Peabody's, and



FIG. 149.—Zeuner's Valve-diagram.

Zeuner's. The following is condensed from Holmes on the Steam-engine:
 Let OA be a circle, with radius OA equal to the half travel of the valve. Measure off OB equal to the outside lap, and BC equal to the lead. The crank-pin occupies the dead centre A , the valve has already moved to the right of its central position by the space $OB + BC$. From C draw perpendicular CE and join OE . Then will OE be the position of the valve at the commencement of the stroke. On the line OE as centre describe the circle OCE ; then any chords, as OD , OE , OF , etc., will represent the spaces travelled by the valve from its central position when the crank-pin occupies respectively the positions opposite to D , E , and F . The port is opened at all the valve must have moved from its central position by an amount equal to the lap OB . Hence, to obtain the space by which the port is opened, subtract from each of the arcs OD , OE , etc., a space equal to OB . This is represented graphically by describing from O a circle with radius equal to the lap OB ; then the spaces gE , gF , etc., intercepted between the circumferences of the lap-circle Bfe and the circle OCE , will give the extent to which the steam-port is opened. Point g , at which the chord Ok is common to both valve and lap-circle, is evident that the valve has moved to the right by the space gE , and is consequently just on the point of opening the steam-port. Steam is admitted before the commencement of the stroke, occupies the position OH , and while the portion HA

lution still remains to be accomplished. When the crank pin reaches position *A*, that is to say, at the commencement of the stroke the valve is already opened by the space $OC - OB = H$, called the *lead*. From point forward till the crank occupies the position *OE* the port remains open, but when the crank is at *OE* the valve has reached the far end of its travel to the right, and then commences to retreat, and when position *OF* the edge of the valve just covers the steam-port as far as the chord *OE*, being again common to both lap and valve circles, and when the crank occupies the position *OF* the cut-off takes place, and the steam commences to expand, and continues to do so till the position *Q*. For the return stroke the steam port opens again at *H* and closes at *F*.

There remains the exhaust to be considered. When the crank is at the centres of the eccentric and crank-shaft occupies the position *OC* at right angles to the line of dead centres, the crank is at the right angles to *OE*; and as *OP* does not intersect either valve-circle, the valve occupies its central position, and consequently closes the port a certain amount of the inside lap. The crank must therefore move through an angular distance that its line of direction *OQ* must intersect the valve-circle *OK* equal in length to the inside lap before the port is opened to the exhaust. This point is ascertained previously in the manner as for the outside lap, namely, by drawing a circle from *O* with a radius equal to the inside lap; this is the small inner circle in figure. Where this circle intersects the two valve-circles we get two points which show the positions of the crank when the exhaust opens and closes during each revolution. Thus at *Q* the valve opens the exhaust, and at *R* of the piston which we have been considering, while at *R* the exhaust is closed, and compression commences and continues till the fresh steam is admitted at *H*.

Thus the diagram enables us to ascertain the exact position of the valve when each critical operation of the valve takes place. Making these operations of one side of the piston, we have: Steam admitted at the commencement of the stroke at *H*. At the dead centre *A* the valve is already opened by the amount *HC*. At *E* the port is fully opened, the valve has reached one end of its travel. At *F* steam is cut off, and expansion lasted from *H* to *F*. At *F* valve occupies central position, ports are closed both to steam and exhaust. At *Q* exhaust opens, and expansion lasted from *F* to *Q*. At *K* exhaust opened to its full extent, and valve reached the end of its travel to the left. At *R* exhaust closed, and compression begins and continues till the fresh steam is admitted at *H*.

PROBLEM.—The simplest problem which occurs is the following: Given the length of throw, the angle of advance of the eccentric, and the lap of the valve, find the angles of the crank at which the steam is admitted, cut off and the exhaust opened and closed. Draw the line *OG*, equal to the half-travel of the valve or the throw of the eccentric at the point of advance with the perpendicular *OG*. Produce *OG* to *K*, and with *O* as diameters describe the two valve circles. With center and radii as the given laps describe the outside and inside lap-circles. The intersection of these circles with the two valve-circles give points through which the lines *OH*, *OE*, *OQ*, and *OR* can be drawn. These lines give the positions of the crank.

Numerous other problems will be found in Holmes on the Steam-Engine, including problems in valve-setting and the application of the Zeiss gear to link motion and to the Meyer valve-gear.

Port Opening.—The area of port opening should be such that the velocity of the steam in passing through it should not exceed 1000 ft. per min. The ratio of port area to piston area will then vary with the piston velocity as follows:

For speed of piston, ft. per min.	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1000
Port area = piston area \times	.017	.033	.05	.067	.083	.1	.107	.113	.12	.127

For a velocity of 6000 ft. per min.,
Port area = $\frac{1}{1000}$ sq. of diam. of cyl. \times piston speed

The length of the port opening may be equal to or somewhat less than the diameter of the cylinder, and the width or area of port opening may be determined by the velocity of the exhaust ports should be such as to allow the exhaust steam to escape without being choked by the back of steam.

gives: Width of exhaust port = width of steam port +
ve - width of bridge.

on Peabody's Valve-gears.) The lead, or the amount that
when the engine is on a dead point, varies with the type
engine, from a very small amount, or even nothing, up to $\frac{1}{8}$
more. Stationary-engines running at slow speed may have
1d inch lead. The effect of compression is to fill the waste
ed of the cylinder with steam; consequently, engines having
sion need less lead. Locomotive-engines having the valves
the ordinary form of Stephenson link-motion may have
hen running slowly and with a long cut off, but when at speed
t-off the lead is at least $\frac{1}{4}$ inch; and locomotives that have
ch gives constant lead commonly have $\frac{1}{4}$ inch lead. The
he angle the crank makes with the line of dead points at
may vary from 0° to 8° .

nd. Weisbach (vol. ii. p. 298) says: Experiment shows that
ing of the exhaust ports is especially of advantage, and in
e the lead of the valve upon the side of the exhaust, or the
1/35 to 1/15; i.e., the slide-valve at the lowest or highest posi-
ion has made an opening whose height is 1/35 to 1/15 of the
f the slide valve. The outside lead of the slide-valve or the
eam side, on the other hand, is much smaller, and is often
o whole throw of the valve.

Changing Outside Lap, Inside Lap, Travel and Angular Advance. (Thurston.)

Admission	Expansion	Exhaust	Compression
later,	occurs earlier,	is unchanged	begins at
sooner	continues longer		same point
und	begins as before,	occurs later,	begins sooner,
	continues longer	ceases earlier	continues longer
sooner,	begins later,	begins later,	begins later,
longer	ceases sooner	ceases later	ends sooner
earlier,	begins sooner,	begins earlier,	begins earlier,
unaltered	per. the same	per. unchanged	per. the same

(the following relations (Weisbach-Dubois, vol. ii. p. 307):

l of valve, p = maximum port opening;

lap, l = exhaust-lap;

of steam-lap to half travel = $\frac{L}{.58}$; $L = \frac{R}{.5} \times S$;

of exhaust lap to half travel = $\frac{l}{.58}$; $l = \frac{r}{.5} \times S$;

$2L = 2p + 2R + S$; $S = \frac{2p}{1 - R}$.

HOF between positions of crank at admission and at cut-off,

β = angle QOR between positions of crank at release and at

pression, then $R = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin(180^\circ - \alpha)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}\alpha}$; $r = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin(180^\circ - \beta)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}\beta}$.

Lap and of Port-opening to Valve-travel. —The

giving the ratio of lap to travel of valve and ratio of travel

is abridged from one given by Buel in Weisbach-Dubois,

culated from the above formulae. Intermediate values may

be formulae, or with sufficient accuracy by interpolation from

the table. By the table on page 880 the crank-angle may be

the angle between its position when the engine is on the

position at cut-off, release, or compression, when these are

of the stroke. To illustrate the use of the tables the

is given by Buel: width of port = 2.2 in.; w

of port = 0.8 in.; over travel = 2.5

times stroke; cut-off, .75 of stroke;

is 10° . From the first table we find crank

add lead-angle, making 121.6° . From the second table, for angle of admission and cut-off, 125° , we have ratio of travel to port-opening, or for $121.6^\circ = 3.74$, which, multiplied by port-opening 2.5, gives 9.35 travel. The ratio of lap to travel, by the table, is .2324, or $2.324 \times 2.5 = 5.81$ in. lap. For exhaust-lap we have, for release at .95, crank-angle = add lead-angle $10^\circ = 161.3^\circ$. From the second table, by interpolation, of lap to travel = .0811, and $.0811 \times 9.45 = 0.77$ in. the exhaust-lap.

Lap-angle = $\frac{1}{2}(180^\circ - \text{lead-angle} - \text{crank-angle at cut-off})$;
 $= \frac{1}{2}(180^\circ - 10 - 114.6) = 27.7^\circ$.

Angular advance = lap-angle \times lead-angle = $27.7 + 10 = 37.7^\circ$.

Exhaust-lap at release = crank-angle at release + lap-angle + lead-angle
 $= 151.3 + 27.7 + 10 = 189^\circ = 9^\circ$.

Crank-angle at compression measured on return stroke }
 $= 180^\circ - \text{lap-angle} - \text{lead-angle} - \text{exhaust-lap}$

$= 180 - 27.7 - 10 - 9 = 133.3^\circ$; corresponding

table, to a piston position of .81 of the return stroke; or

Crank-angle at compression = $180^\circ - \text{angle at release} - \text{angle at admission} + \text{lead-angle}$;
 $= 180 - (151.3 - 114.6) + 10 = 133.3^\circ$.

The positions determined above for cut-off and release are for the forward stroke of the piston. On the return stroke the cut-off will take place at the same angle, 114.6° , corresponding by table to 66.6% of the stroke, instead of 75%. By a slight adjustment of the angular position and the length of the eccentric rod the cut-off can be equalized, and the width of the bridge should be at least $2.5 + 0.25 = 2.75 = 0.35$ in.

Crank Angles for Connecting-rods of Different Length

FORWARD AND RETURN STROKES

Fraction of Stroke from Commencement.	Ratio of Length of Connecting-rod to Length of Stroke.											
	2		$2\frac{1}{4}$		3		$3\frac{1}{4}$		4		5	
	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.
.01	10.3	13.2	10.5	13.5	10.6	13.6	10.7	13.4	10.8	13.3	10.9	13.2
.02	14.6	18.7	14.9	18.1	15.1	17.8	15.3	17.5	15.5	17.4	15.6	17.3
.03	17.9	22.9	18.2	22.2	18.5	21.5	18.7	21.3	18.9	21.1	19.1	20.9
.04	20.7	26.5	21.1	25.7	21.4	25.2	21.6	24.9	21.8	24.6	22.0	24.4
.05	23.0	29.6	23.4	28.7	23.7	28.2	23.9	27.8	24.1	27.5	24.3	27.2
.10	31.1	41.9	31.6	40.8	31.9	40.1	32.1	39.6	32.3	39.2	32.5	38.9
.15	41	51.3	41.9	50.2	42.4	49.3	42.9	48.7	43.3	48.1	43.7	47.5
.20	48	59.6	49.0	58.3	49.6	57.3	50.1	56.6	50.6	56.2	51.0	55.7
.25	54.3	66.9	55.4	65.4	56.1	64.4	56.6	63.7	57.0	63.3	57.4	62.9
.30	60.3	73.5	61.5	72.0	62.2	71.0	62.8	70.3	63.3	69.8	63.8	69.3
.35	66.1	79.8	67.3	78.3	68.1	77.3	68.6	76.6	69.2	76.1	69.7	75.7
.40	71.7	85.8	73.0	84.3	73.9	83.9	74.5	82.6	75.0	82.2	75.5	81.7
.45	77.2	91.5	78.6	90.1	79.6	89.1	80.2	88.4	80.7	87.9	81.2	87.4
.50	82.7	97.2	84.3	95.7	85.2	94.9	86.1	94.1	86.6	93.6	87.1	93.2
.55	88.5	102.8	89.9	101.4	90.9	100.4	91.6	99.8	92.1	99.3	92.6	98.8
.60	94.2	108.3	95.7	107.0	96.7	106.1	97.4	105.5	98.0	105.0	98.5	104.5
.65	100.2	113.9	101.7	112.7	102.7	111.9	103.4	111.2	103.9	110.8	104.4	110.3
.70	106.5	119.7	108.0	118.5	109.0	117.8	109.7	117.2	110.2	116.7	110.7	116.2
.75	113.1	125.7	114.6	124.6	115.6	123.3	116.3	122.4	116.8	123.0	117.3	122.7
.80	120.4	132.1	121.8	131.1	122.7	130.4	123.4	129.0	123.9	130.5	124.4	130.0
.85	128.5	139.0	129.8	138.1	130.7	137.6	131.3	136.7	131.8	137.2	132.3	137.8
.90	138.1	146.9	139.2	146.2	140.0	145.0	140.5	144.5	141.0	144.0	141.5	144.0
.95	150.4	156.8	151.3	156.0	152.1	155.0	152.5	154.2	153.0	154.8	153.5	154.5
1.00	163.5	168.0	164.3	167.8	165.1	167.5	165.5	167.1	166.0	167.5	166.5	167.1

Five Motions of Cross-head and Crank.—If L = length of connecting-rod, R = length of crank, θ = angle of crank with centre line, D = displacement of cross-head from the beginning of its stroke,

$$D = R(1 - \cos \theta) + L - \sqrt{L^2 - R^2 \sin^2 \theta}.$$

Lap and Travel of Valve.

Pressure.	Ratio of Lap to Travel of Valve.	Ratio of Travel of Valve to Width of Port-opening.	Angle between Positions of Crank at Points of Admission and Cut-off, or Release and Compression.	Ratio of Lap to Travel of Valve.	Ratio of Travel of Valve to Width of Port-opening.	Angle between Positions of Crank at Points of Admission and Cut-off, or Release and Compression.	Ratio of Lap to Travel of Valve.	Ratio of Travel of Valve to Width of Port-opening.
	.4830	52.70	85°	.3886	7.61	135°	.1919	3.24
	.4769	43.22	90	.3896	6.83	140	.1710	3.04
	.4699	33.17	95	.3378	6.17	145	.1504	2.85
	.4619	26.37	100	.3214	5.60	150	.1394	2.70
	.4532	21.34	105	.3044	5.11	155	.1282	2.55
	.4435	17.70	110	.2868	4.69	160	.1168	2.42
	.4330	14.93	115	.2687	4.32	165	.1053	2.30
	.4217	12.77	120	.2500	4.00	170	.0938	2.19
	.4096	11.06	125	.2309	3.72	175	.0821	2.08
	.3967	9.68	130	.2113	3.46	180	.0000	2.00
	.3830	8.55						

PERIODS OF ADMISSION, OR CUT-OFF, FOR VARIOUS LAPS AND TRAVELS OF SLIDE-VALVES.

The following tables are from Clark on the Steam-engine. In the first are given the periods of admission corresponding to travels of valve of 12 in., to 2 in., and laps of from 2 in. to $\frac{1}{8}$ in., with $\frac{1}{4}$ in. and $\frac{1}{8}$ in. of lead. With greater leads than those tabulated, the steam would be cut off earlier than as shown in the table.

The influence of a lead of $\frac{5}{16}$ in. for travels of from $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. to 6 in., and from $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to $1\frac{1}{4}$ in., as calculated for in the second table, is exhibited in the margin of the periods of admission in the table, for the same lap and lead.

The greater lead shortens the period of admission, and increases the period of expansive working.

PERIODS OF ADMISSION, OR POINTS OF CUT-OFF, FOR GIVEN TRAVELS AND LAPS OF SLIDE-VALVES.

Lead.	Periods of Admission, or Points of Cut-off, for the following Laps of Valves in inches.									
	2	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{16}$
60	88	80	93	95	98	97	98	98	99	99
50	82	87	80	92	95	94	97	98	98	99
40	72	78	84	88	92	94	95	96	98	98
30	62	71	79	86	89	91	91	94	96	97
20	52	66	68	77	85	88	91	94	96	97
10	43	57	61	72	82	86	89	92	95	97
5	32	47	51	66	78	83	87	90	94	97
2	14	35	39	57	72	79	85	88	93	97
1	7	20	24	44	63	71	79	84	90	96
0	0	17	22	38	50	61	71	79	87	95
0	0	0	0	27	43	57	68	79	90	96
0	0	0	0	0	0	38	52	66	82	92

Methods of Estimating the Points of Cut-off, and Travels and Laps of Calculations

Example No. 1.

Point	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23
24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35
36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39
40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41
42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42
43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43
44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44
45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49
50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53
54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55
56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58
59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59
60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61
62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62
63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63
64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64
65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65
66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66
67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68
69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69
70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70
71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71
72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72
73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73
74	74	74	74	74	74	74	74	74
75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76
77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77
78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78
79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80
81	81	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82
83	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	83
84	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	84
85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86
87	87	87	87	87	87	87	87	87
88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89
90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92
93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93
94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95
96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96
97	97	97	97	97	97	97	97	97
98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Diagram for Port-opening, Cut-off, and Lap.

In the diagram given, the points of cut-off, and lap, are shown. The diagram is intended for use in the case of a single lap, and is not applicable to the case of a double lap.

In order to use the diagram, find the lap, having given the number of port-opening. Enter the ordinate representing the lap, and the horizontal scale, and find the vertical height representing the lap. Then, read off the height of the vertical lap scale. The number of the lap, and a cut-off of the lap, is then obtained. The number of the lap, and a cut-off of the lap, is then obtained.

If the lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If the lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

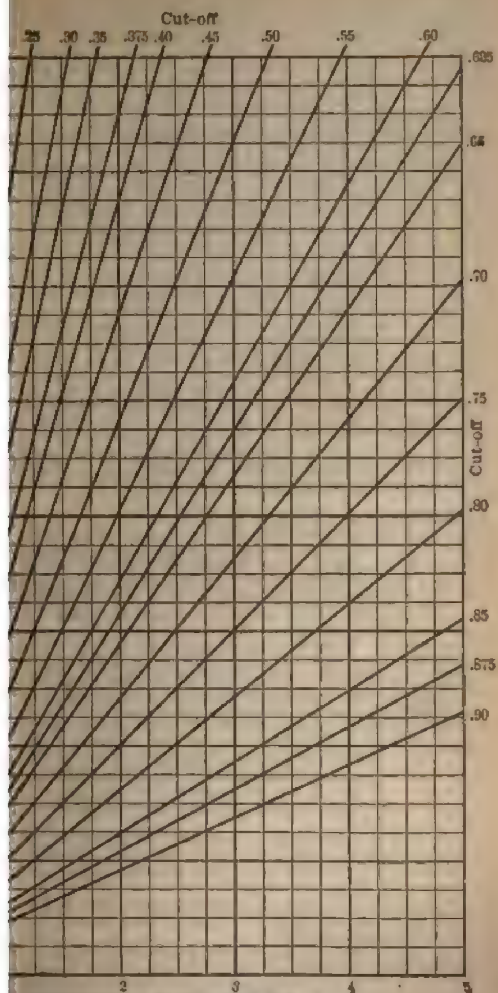
If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.

If a lap is not a single lap, but a double lap, the diagram is not applicable. In this case, the diagram is not applicable.



Maximum Steam Port opening in Inches.
DIAGRAM FOR SLIDE VALVES.

FIG. 149.

motion, temperature, etc., and can be effected only as the valve has been set as accurately as possible when cold, the forward and return strokes being equalized, indicating the length of the eccentric-rod adjusted, and correct slight irregularities.

To Put an Engine on its Centre.—Place the piston where the piston will have nearly completed its stroke opposite some point on the cross-head, such as a corner of the guide. Against the rim of the pulley or crank-disk mark a line with it on the pulley. Then turn the engine until the cross head is again in the same position on its inward stroke bring the crank as much below the centre as it was above the centre in the same position as before make a second mark on the rim. Divide the distance between the marks in two equal parts. Turn the engine until the pointer is opposite the point. It will then be on its centre. To avoid the error that arises from looseness of crank-pin and wrist-pin bearings, the engine should be brought a little above the centre and then be brought up to it, so that it will press against the same brass that it does when the engine is made.

Link-motion.—Link-motions, of which the Stephenson link-motion is most commonly used, are designed for two purposes: first, to vary the motion of the engine, and second, for varying the point of the travel of the valve. The Stephenson link-motion consists of two eccentrics, called the forward and back eccentrics, and a link connecting the extremities of the eccentric-rods; so that by varying the position of the link the valve rod may be put in direct connection with either eccentric, or may be given a movement controlled in part by one eccentric and in part by the other. When the link is moved by the reverse motion such that the block to which the valve-rod is attached is at the end of the link, the valve receives its maximum travel, and in mid-gear the travel is the least and cut-off takes place.

In the ordinary shifting-link with open rods, that is, with the link in direct connection with the eccentrics, the period of the valve increases as the link is moved from full to mid-gear, and the period of steam admission is shortened. The variation is equalized for the front and back strokes by curving the link eccentrics concavely to the axes. With crossed eccentrics the period of the valve decreases as the link is moved from full to mid-gear, and the period of steam admission is lengthened. (For illustration see engine, vol. ii, p. 22.)

The linear advance of each eccentric is equal to that

rods ought to be long; the longer they are in proportion to the more symmetrical will the travel of the valve be on both sides of the centre of motion. 3. The link ought to be short. Each of its ends describes a curve in a vertical plane, whose ordinates grow larger the further the considered point is from the centre of the link; and as the horizontal motion only is transmitted to the valve, vertical oscillation will cause irregularities. 4. The link-hanger ought to be long. The longer it is the more nearly will be the arc in which the link swings to a straight line, and thus the vertical oscillation. If the link is suspended in its centre, the irregularities are described by points equidistant on both sides from the centre of motion, and hence results the variation between the forward and backward motion.

If the link is suspended at its lower end, its lower half will have more vertical oscillation and the upper half more. 5. The centre from which the link swings changes its position as the link is lowered or raised, causing irregularities. To reduce them to the smallest amount the lifting-shaft should be made as long as the eccentric-rod, and the lifting-shaft should be placed at the height corresponding to the position of the centre on which the link-hanger swings. These conditions can never be fulfilled in practice, and the variations of motion and the period of admission can be somewhat regulated in any way, but for one gear only. This is accomplished by giving different lengths to the two eccentrics, which difference will be smaller the longer the rods are and the shorter the link, and by suspending the link not from its centre line but at a certain distance from it, giving what is called an offset.

Application of the Zeuner diagram to link-motion, see Holmes on the Slide-valve, p. 290. See also Clark's Railway Machinery (1855), Clark's Steam Engine and Zeuner's and Auchincloss's Treatises on Slide-valve

Following rules are given by the *American Machinist* for laying out a link for an upright slide-valve engine. By the term radius of link is meant the radius of the link-arc ab , Fig. 150, drawn through the centre of the slot;

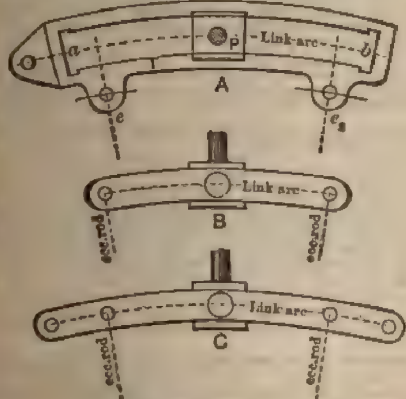


FIG. 150.

The link is generally made equal to the distance from the centre of shaft of the link-block pin P when the latter stands midway of its travel. The distance between the centres of the eccentric-rod pins e_1, e_2 should not be more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times, and, when space will permit, three times the distance between the centres of the eccentric-rod pins. By the throw we mean twice the eccentricity of the eccentric. The link is generally suspended from the end next to the forward motion in the link-arc prolonged. This will give compensation for slip to the link-block when the link is in forward motion, and the increase when the link is in backward gear. The

of slip is, however, considered of little importance, because marine as a rule, work but very little in the backward gear. When it is required that the motion shall be as efficient in backward gear as in forward, then the link should be suspended from a point midway between the eccentric rod pins; in marine engine practice this point is generally on the link-arc; for equal cut-offs it is better to move the point of suspension a small amount towards the eccentrics.

For obtaining the dimensions of the link in inches: Let L be the length of the valve, B the breadth, p the absolute steam pressure in lb. , and R a factor of computation used as below; then $R = 91 \sqrt{p}$.

Breadth of the link.....	$= R \times 1\frac{1}{8}$
Thickness T of the bar.....	$= R \times \frac{1}{8}$
Length of sliding-block.....	$= R \times 2\frac{1}{2}$
Diameter of eccentric-rod pins.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of suspension-rod pin.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of suspension-rod pin when overhung.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of block-pin when overhung.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of block-pin when secured at both ends.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$

The length of the link, that is, the distance from a to b , measured straight line joining the ends of the link-arc in the slot, should be such as to allow the centre of the link-block pin P to be placed in a line with the eccentric-rod pins, leaving sufficient room for the slip of the block. A type of link frequently used in marine engines is the double bar link, this type is again divided into two classes: one class embraces those links which have the eccentric-rod ends as well as the valve-spindle end between bars, as shown at B (with these links the travel of the valve is less than the throw of the eccentric); the other class embraces those links shown at C , for which the eccentric-rods are made with fork-ends, so as to rest on studs on the outside of the bars, allowing the block to slide to the end of the link, so that the centres of the eccentric-rod ends and the block pin lie when in full gear, making the travel of the valve equal to the throw of the eccentric. The dimensions of these links when the distance between the eccentric-rod pins is $2\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the throw of eccentric are found as follows:

Depth of bars.....	$= (R \times 1\frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Thickness of bars.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of centre of sliding-block.....	$= R \times 1\frac{1}{8}$

When the distance between the eccentric-rod pins is equal to 1 or 1.5 times the throw of the eccentrics, then

Depth of bars.....	$= (R \times 1\frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$
Thickness of bars.....	$= (R \times \frac{1}{8}) + \frac{1}{4}$

All the other dimensions may be found by the first table. These are practical rules, and the results may have to be slightly changed in certain conditions. In marine engines the eccentric-rod ends for all classes have adjustable brasses. In locomotives the slot link is made equal and to these the pin-holes have case-hardened bushes driven into the links and have no adjustable brasses in the ends of the eccentric-rod links as B is generally suspended by one of the eccentric-rod pins, and C is suspended by one of the pins in the end of the link, or by the eccentric-rod pins.

Other Forms of Valve-Gear, as the Joy, Marshall, Hook, &c., are described, Currier, &c., are described in Clark's *Steam Engines*. The design of the Reynolds Cutless valve-gear is described in *Engineering*, Jan. 1884. See also Hawthorn on the valve gear for laying down the centre lines of the Joy valve gear in *Engineering*, *The Engineer*, Nov. 14, 1890. For Joy's "Fluid pressure" valve gear, see *Engineering*, May 25, 1894.

GOVERNORS.

Centrifugal Governor.—The centrifugal governor is a device for regulating the speed of an engine, and is usually of the following form: It consists of a vertical spindle, the ends of which are connected by arms to two balls, the weight of the balls being such that the centrifugal force is equal to the weight of the balls when the engine is at the required speed.

with the weight of the balls; bears to the radius r of the circle by the centres of the balls the ratio

$$\frac{h}{r} = \frac{\text{weight}}{\text{centrifugal force}} = \frac{w}{\frac{wv^2}{gr}} = \frac{gr}{v^2}$$

h is independent of the weight of the balls, v being the velocity of the balls in feet per second, number of revolutions of the balls in 1 second, $v = 2\pi rT = \pi r$, in the angular velocity, or $2\pi T$, and

$$h = \frac{gr^2}{v^2} = \frac{g}{4\pi^2 T^2}, \text{ or } h = \frac{0.8146}{T^2} \text{ feet} = \frac{9.775}{T^2} \text{ inches,}$$

then at 32.16. If N = number of revs. per minute, $h = \frac{35190}{N^2}$

revolutions per minute.....	40	45	50	60	75
height in inches will be.....	21.99	17.38	14.08	9.775	6.256

of turns per minute required to cause the arms to take a given angle the vertical axis: Let l = length of the arm in inches from the suspension to the centre of gyration, and α the required angle;

$$N = \sqrt{\frac{35190}{l \cos \alpha}} = 187.6 \sqrt{\frac{1}{l \cos \alpha}} = 187.6 \sqrt{\frac{1}{h}}$$

The governor is not isochronous; that is, it does not revolve at a fixed speed in all positions, the speed changing as the angle of the arms varies. To remedy this defect loaded governors, such as Porter's, are made. In the Porter governor the balls of a common governor whose collective weight is A are hung by a pair of links of lengths equal to the pendulum arms capable of sliding on the spindle, having its centre of gravity in the vertical position. Then the centrifugal force is that due to A alone, and the weight of gravity is that due to $A + 2B$; consequently the altitude for a given angle is increased in the ratio $(A + 2B) : A$, as compared with that of a simple pendulum, and a given absolute variation in altitude produces a smaller proportionate variation in speed than in the common governor. (S. E., p. 351.)

Let the weighted governor let l = the length of the arm from the point of suspension to the centre of gravity of the ball, and let the length of the spindle be L , l_1 = the length of the portion of the arm from the point of suspension to the point of attachment of the link; G = the weight of the ball, Q = half the weight of the sliding weight, h = the height of the ball from the point of suspension to the plane of revolution of the spindle; the angular velocity = $2\pi T$, T being the number of revolutions per

then $h = \sqrt{\frac{35190}{N^2}} \left(1 + \frac{2l_1 Q}{l G}\right)$; $h = \frac{35190}{N^2} \left(1 + \frac{2l_1 Q}{l G}\right)$ in feet, or $h = \frac{35190}{N^2} \left(1 + \frac{2l_1 Q}{l G}\right)$ in inches, N being the number of revolutions per

For forms of governor see App. Cycl. Mech., vol. II. 61, and Clark's Machine, vol. II. p. 66.

How to Increase the Speed of an Engine Having a Fly-ball Governor.

A slight difference in the speed of a governor changes the weights from that required for full load to that required for light load. It is evident therefore that, whatever the speed of the engine, the speed of the governor must be that for which the governor was designed. The speed of the governor must be kept the same. To change the speed of the engine the problem is to so adjust the pulleys which drive the engine that the engine at its new speed shall drive it just as fast as its original speed. In order to increase the engine speed a pulley upon the shaft of the engine, i.e., the driver governor, i.e., the driven, in the proportion that the speed is increased.

Fixed-bed or Shaft Governor.—At the Centennial Exhibition of 1876 was shown a few centrifugues in which the governor consisted of the fly-wheel or balance wheel, the fly-balls or weights revolving on the shaft in a vertical plane with the wheel and shifting the valve as necessitated. It may be stated that the travel of the valve and the position of the governor has since come under extensive use, especially in the form of a governor in which two weights are carried on each of which are pivoted in two points on the pulley near its centre. The arms are pivoted to the shaft, but is free to move about a vertical axis for a certain distance, having an oblong hole at the end of the movement. A connecting frame carries the weights to the circumference of the wheel and is pivoted into a position of equilibrium. This frame is resisted by a spring attached to the shaft which tends to pull the weights towards the shaft and shift the valve to the position of equilibrium once more. The travel of the valve is varied so that it would work at full stroke as the engine runs in speed. Many modifications of this general form are in use. For a more detail of this form of governor see *MACHINERY*, Inst. M. E., vol. 1, Trans. I. & M. E. P., 1877, XI, 225; Modern Marine Engineering, J. D. Wright; J. D. Wright's *Centrifugal Steam Engineering*; J. D. Wright, *Am. Soc. Mech. Engrs.*, 1884, March 7, 1884.

Calculation of Springs for Shaft-governors. (Wright's *Centrifugal Steam Engineering*, 1884.)—The springs for shaft-governors are conveniently calculated as follows, dimensions being in inches:

- Let W = weight of the balls or weights, in pounds;
 r_1 and r_2 = the radii from and minimum radial distances of the balls or of the centre of gravity of the weights;
 l_1 and l_2 = the leverages, or the perpendicular distances from the centre of gravity of the balls or of the centre of gravity of the weights to the centre of gravity of the weights or balls;
 m_1 and m_2 = the corresponding leverages of the springs;
 C_1 and C_2 = the centrifugal forces, for 100 revolutions per minute, r_1 and r_2 ;
 P_1 and P_2 = the corresponding pressures on the spring;
 (It is convenient to calculate these and note them down for reference.)
 C_3 and C_4 = maximum and minimum centrifugal forces;
 S = mean speed revolutions per minute;
 S_1 and S_2 = the maximum and minimum number of revolutions;
 P_1 and P_2 = the pressures on the spring at the limiting number of revolutions (S_1 and S_2);
 $P_3 - P_1 = P$ = the difference of the maximum and minimum pressures on the springs;
 V = the percentage of variation from the mean speed, or the sensibility;
 t = the travel of the spring;
 u = the initial pressure on the spring;
 v = the stiffness in pounds per inch;
 w = the maximum pressure = $u + t$.

The mean speed and sensibility desired are supposed to be given.

$$S_1 = S - \frac{SV}{100};$$

$$S_2 = S + \frac{SV}{100};$$

$$C_1 = 0.28 \times r_1 \times W;$$

$$C_2 = 0.28 \times r_2 \times W;$$

$$P_1 = C_1 \times \frac{l_1}{m_1};$$

$$P_2 = C_2 \times \frac{l_2}{m_2};$$

$$P_3 = P_1 \times \left(\frac{S_1}{100}\right)^2;$$

$$P_4 = P_2 \times \left(\frac{S_2}{100}\right)^2;$$

$$v = \frac{P_3}{t}, u = \frac{P_4}{v}, w = \frac{P_3}{v}.$$

It is usual to make the value of P_1 and P_2 equal, the dimensions of the springs being equal.

the formulae for strength and extension of springs, and the spring as compressed be determined.

$$\text{The governor-power} = \frac{P_2 + P_1}{2} \times \frac{t}{12}$$

light centripetal line, the governor-power

$$= \frac{C_2 + C_1}{2} \times \left(\frac{r_2 - r_1}{12} \right).$$

In the determination of the governor-power it may be taken in all cases, although it is evident that with a curved centrifugal line will be slightly less. The difference D must be constant for the spring, however great or little its initial compression. Let the spring be screwed up until its minimum pressure is P_1 . Then to find the pressure at $+D$,

$$S_2 = 100 \sqrt{\frac{P_2}{P_1}}; \quad S_1 = 100 \sqrt{\frac{P_1}{P_2}}$$

at which the governor would be isochronous would be

$$100 \sqrt{\frac{D}{P_2 - P_1}}$$

the pressure on the spring with a speed of 100 revolutions, at the minimum radii, was 200 lbs. and 100 lbs., respectively, then the pressure on the spring to suit a variation from 95 to 105 revolutions will be $200 \times \left(\frac{105}{100} \right)^2 = 220.5$. That is, the increase from the minimum to the maximum radius must be $220 - 90 = 130$ lbs. due to such a spring, screwed up to different pressures in the following table:

per minute, balls shut.....	80	90	95	100	110	120
pressure, balls shut.....	64	81	90	100	121	144
pressure when balls open fully.....	130	190	200	220	251	274
pressure, balls open fully.....	100	211	220	230	251	274
per minute, balls open fully.....	98	102	105	107	112	117
percent of mean speed	10	6	5	3	1	-1

at which the governor would become isochronous is 114. This will give the right variation at some speed; hence in experimenting a governor the correct spring may be found from any wrong simple calculation. Thus, if a governor with a spring whose lbs. per inch acts best when the engine runs at 95, 90 being its minimum speed, then $50 \times \left(\frac{90}{95} \right)^2 = 45$ lbs. is the stiffness of spring required. At the speed at which the governor acts best, the springs may be screwed up until it begins to "hunt" and then slackened until the governor is as compatible with steadiness.

CONDENSERS, AIR-PUMPS, CIRCULATING-PUMPS, ETC.

Condenser. (Chiefly abridged from Seaton's Marine Engineering.) The jet condenser is now uncommon, being generally supplanted by the surface condenser. With the jet condenser a vacuum of 24 in. was formerly good, and 25 in. as much as was possible with most condensers. The temperature corresponding to 24 in. vacuum, or 3 lbs. pressure, is 102° . In practice the temperature in the hot-well varies from 120° to 130° , and is usually as much as 130° is maintained. To find the weight of steam to be condensed: Let T_1 = temperature of the exhaust pressure; T_2 = temperature of the

what was usual to allow for general traders.

Area of injection orifice = weight of injection water to 780.

A rough rule sometimes used is: Allow one fifteenth every cubic foot of water condensed per hour.

Another rule: Area of injection orifice = area of piston.

The volume of the jet condenser is from one fourth to the cylinder. It need not be more than one third, as running engines.

Ejector Condensers.—For ejector or injector's Schutte's, etc., the calculations for quantity of condensate as for jet condensers.

The Surface Condenser—Cooling Surface with cooling water of an initial temperature of 68° to 77° plate condensed 21.5 lbs. of steam per hour, while 100 per hour can be condensed. In practice, with the condenser-tubes, 18 B.W.G. thick, 14 lbs. of steam per the cooling water at an initial temperature of 60°. It work when the temperature of the feed-water is to be. It has been found that the surface in the condenser may surface of the boiler, and under some circumstances, this. In general practice the following holds good when sea-water is about 60°:

Terminal press., lbs., abs.	30	20	15	12½
Sq. ft. per I H.P.	8	2.50	2.25	2.00

For ships whose station is in the tropics the allowance by 20%, and for ships which occasionally visit the tropics give satisfactory results. If a ship is constantly employed 10% less suffices.

Whitham (Steam-engine Design, p. 283, also Trans-

gives the following: $S = \frac{W L}{k(T_1 - t)}$, in which S = condensing surface,

ft.; T_1 = temperature Fahr. of steam of the pressure vacuum-gauge; t = mean temperature of the circulating water; k = coefficient of condensation of saturated steam at temperature T_1 ; k = perfect condensation of the metal used for the condensing-surface for a range of 100° per hour for brass, according to Isherwood's experiments; W = weight of steam condensed per hour; L = latent heat of steam at temperature T_1 .

quality, however, always specify the tubes to be made of 70% of best copper and to have 1% of tin in the composition, and test the tubes at a pressure of 300 lbs. per sq. in. (Seaton.)

The diameter of the condenser tubes varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in small condensers, when they are very short, to 1 inch in very large condensers and long in the mercantile marine the tubes are, as a rule, $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter for 12 and 18 B.W.G. thick (0.049 inch); and 16 B.W.G. (0.065), under exceptional circumstances. In the British Navy the tubes are also, $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, and 18 to 19 B.W.G. thick, tinued on both sides; the condenser is made of brass the Admiralty do not require the tubes to be tinned. Some of the smaller engines have tubes $\frac{5}{8}$ inch diameter, and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. The smaller the tubes, the larger is the surface which can be obtained in a certain space.

In merchant service the almost universal practice is to circulate the water through the tubes.

The velocity of flow through the tubes should not be less than 200 ft. per min. nor more than 700 ft. per min.

Tube-plates are usually made of brass. Rolled-brass tube-plates are from 1.1 to 1.5 times the diameter of tubes in thickness, depending upon the method of packing. When the packings go completely through the tube-plate, but when only partly through the former, it is sufficient. For $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch tubes the plates are usually $\frac{7}{8}$ to 1 inch thick with gland packings, and 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick with wooden ferrules.

Tube-plates should be secured to their seatings by brass studs and brass screw-bolts; in fact there must be no wrought iron of any kind in a condenser. When the tube plates are of large area it is advisable to stay them by brass-rods, to prevent them from collapsing.

Spacing of Tubes, etc.—The holes for ferrules, glands, or indicators are usually $\frac{1}{4}$ inch larger in diameter than the tubes; but when unnecessary the wood ferrules may be only $3/32$ inch thick.

The pitch of tubes when packed with wood ferrules is usually $\frac{1}{4}$ inch in the diameter of the ferrule-hole. For example, the tubes are arranged in a zigzag, and the number which may be fitted into a foot of plate is as follows:

	No. in a sq. ft.	Pitch of Tubes.	No. in a sq. ft.	Pitch of Tubes.	No. in a sq. ft.
	172	$1\frac{5}{32}$ "	128	$1\frac{1}{4}$ "	110
	150	$1\frac{3}{16}$ "	121	$1\frac{9}{32}$ "	106
	137	$1\frac{7}{32}$ "	116	$1\frac{5}{16}$ "	99

Quantity of Cooling Water.—The quantity depends chiefly upon the temperature, which in Atlantic practice may vary from 40° in the temperate zone to 80° in subtropical seas. To raise the temperature of the water in the condenser will require three times as many thermal units in the former case as in the latter, and therefore only one third as much water will be required in the former case as in the latter.

Temperature of steam entering the condenser;
 " " circulating-water entering the condenser;
 " " leaving the condenser;
 " " water condensed from the steam;

$$\text{Quantity of circulating water in lbs.} = \frac{1114 + 0.3(T_1 - T_2)}{T_2 - T_0}$$

It is usual to provide pumping power sufficient to supply 40 times the quantity of steam for general traders, and as much as 50 times for ships in the temperate zone, and as much as 60 times for ships in the subtropical seas, when the engines are compound. If the circulating water is double-acting, its capacity may be $1/58$ in the former and $1/42$ in the latter case of the capacity of the low-pressure cylinder.

Air-pump.—The air-pump in all condensers abstracts the water and the air originally contained in the water when it entered the condenser. In the case of jet condensers it also pumps out the water and the air which it contained. The size of the pump is calculated on these conditions, making allowance for efficiency of the pump.

Ordinary sea-water contains, mechanically mixed with it, 130 times of air when under the atmospheric pressure. Suppose the pressure on the condenser to be 2 lbs. and the atmospheric pressure 15 lbs. the effect of temperature, the air on entering the condenser will be to 15/2 times its original volume; so that a cubic foot of sea-water has entered the condenser, is represented by 19/30 of a cubic foot, and 15/40 of a cubic foot of air.

Let q be the volume of water condensed per minute, and Q the volume of sea-water required to condense it; and let T_1 be the temperature of the condenser, and T_2 that of the sea-water.

Then $19/30 (q + Q)$ will be the volume of water to be pumped into the condenser per minute,

$$\text{and } \frac{15}{40} (q + Q) \times \frac{T_2 + 461^\circ}{T_1 + 461^\circ} \text{ the quantity of air.}$$

If the temperature of the condenser be taken at 130° , and the temperature of the sea-water at 60° , the quantity of air will then be $.418 (q + Q)$, so that the volume to be abstracted will be

$$.95 (q + Q) + .418 (q + Q) = 1.368 (q + Q).$$

If the average quantity of injection-water be taken at 25 times the quantity of condensed water, $q + Q$ will equal $27q$. Therefore, volume to be pumped into the condenser per minute = $37q$, nearly.

In surface condensation allowance must be made for the water mechanically admitted to the boilers to make up for waste, and the air coming out, also for slight leak in the joints and glands, so that the air-pump must be of about half as large as for jet-condensation.

The efficiency of a single-acting air-pump is generally taken at 0.35. When the temperature of the condenser is 60° , and that of the (jet) condenser is 130° , Q being the volume of the sea-water and q the volume of the condensed water in cubic feet, and n the number of strokes per minute,

$$\text{The volume of the single-acting pump} = 2.74 \left(\frac{Q + q}{n} \right).$$

$$\text{The volume of the double-acting pump} = 4 \left(\frac{Q + q}{n} \right).$$

The following table gives the ratio of capacity of cylinder or cylinder of the air-pump; in the case of the compound engine, the low-pressure cylinder capacity only is taken.

Description of Pump.	Description of Engine.
Single-acting vertical.	Jet-condensing, expansion $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
" " " "	Surface " " $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
" " " "	Jet " " 3 to 5
" " " "	Surface " " 3 to 5
" " " "	Surface " compound
Double-acting horizontal.	Jet " expansion $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
" " " "	Surface " " $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
" " " "	Jet " " 3 to 5
" " " "	Surface " " 3 to 5
" " " "	Surface " compound

The Area through Valve-seats and past the valves should be less than will admit the full quantity of water for condensation, and not exceeding 400 ft. per minute. In practice the area is generally 1/2 of this.

$$\text{Area through foot-valves} = D^2 \times 8 + 1000 \text{ square inches.}$$

$$\text{Area through head-valves} = D^2 \times 8 + 800 \text{ square inches.}$$

$$\text{Diameter of discharge pipe} = D \times 4 \times 8 + 10 \text{ inches.}$$

$$D = \text{diameter of cylinder in inches. } 8 = \text{the speed in ft. per minute.}$$

For more details see Table (see p. 1561) gives the following

ed with jet-condensers: Volume of single-acting air-pump driven engine = volume of low-pressure cylinder in cubic feet, multiplied divided by the number of cubic feet contained in one pound of steam of the given density. For a double-acting air-pump the will apply, but the volume of steam for each stroke of the pump at one half. Should the pump be driven independently of the on the relative speed must be considered. Volume of jet-con-volume of air-pump $\times 4$. Area of injection-valve = vol. of air-cubic inches $\div 530$.

Injecting-pump.—Let Q be the quantity of cooling water in cubic number of strokes per minute, and S the length of stroke in feet.

Capacity of circulating-pump = $Q + n$ cubic feet.

$$\text{Diameter " " " " } = 13.55 \sqrt{\frac{Q}{n \times S}} \text{ inches.}$$

Following table gives the ratio of capacity of steam-cylinder or cylinder of the circulating-pump:

Description of Pump.	Description of Engine.	Ratio.
Single-acting.	Expansive $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 times.	13 to 16
" "	" 3 to 5 "	30 to 25
" "	Compound.	25 to 30
Double	Expansive $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 times.	25 to 30
" "	" 3 to 5 "	36 to 46
" "	Compound.	46 to 56

area through the valve-seats and past the valves should be such mean velocity of flow does not exceed 450 feet per minute. The high the pipes should not exceed 500 ft. per min. in small pipes and the pipes.

Centrifugal Circulating-pumps, the velocity of flow in the inlet and should not exceed 400 ft. per min. The diameter of the fan-wheel is to 3 times the diam. of the pipe, and the speed at its periphery ft. per min. If W = quantity of water per minute, in American diameter of pipes in inches, R = revolutions of wheel per min.,

$$\frac{W}{R} : \text{diam. of fan-wheel} = \text{not less than } \frac{1700}{R}. \quad \text{Breadth of blade at } 1.44$$

Diam. of cylinder for driving the fan = about $2.8 \sqrt{\text{diam. of pipe,}}$

stroke = $0.28 \times \text{diam. of fan.}$

Pumps for Marine Engines.—With surface-condensing the amount of water to be fed by the pump is the amount condensed in main engine plus what may be needed to supply auxiliary engines supply leakage and waste. Since an accident may happen to the condenser, requiring the use of jet-condensation, the pumps of fitted with surface-condensers must be sufficiently large to do duty in circumstances. With jet-condensers and boilers using salt water salt water in the boiler must be blown off at intervals to keep the low that deposits of salt will not be formed. Sea-water contains 3 of its weight of solid matter in solution. The boiler of a surface-engine may be worked with safety when the quantity of salt is that in sea-water. If Q = net quantity of feed-water required in one to make up for what is used as steam, n = number of times the of the water in the boiler is to that of sea-water, then the gross feed-

$\frac{n}{n-1} Q$. In order to be capable of filling the boiler rapidly each pump is made of a capacity equal to twice the gross feed-water. Two should be supplied, so that one may be kept in reserve to be the other is out of repair. If Q be the quantity of net feed-water per minute, l the length of stroke of feed-pump in feet, and n the number of strokes per minute,

$$\text{Diameter of each feed-pump plunger in inches} = \sqrt{\frac{550 \times Q}{n \times l}}.$$

If W be the net feed-water in pounds,

Diameter of each feed-pump plunger in inches =

$$\frac{4.5}{n} \sqrt{W}$$

An Evaporative Surface Condenser built at the Virginia Agricultural College is described by James H. Pitts, Trans. A. S. M. E., 1894. It consists of two rectangular and chambers connected by a series of horizontal rows of tubes, each row of tubes immersed in a pan of water. Through the spaces between the surface of the water in each pan at the bottom of the pan above air is drawn by means of an exhaust fan at the top of one of the end-chambers is an inlet for steam, and a horizontal phragm about midway causes the steam to traverse the upper half of the tubes and back through the lower. An outlet at the bottom leads to a pump. The condenser, exclusive of connection to the exhaust fan, has a floor space of $5' 4\frac{1}{2}" \times 1' 10\frac{3}{4}"$, and $4' 1\frac{1}{2}"$ high. There are 5 rows of tubes, 8 in some and 7 in others; 210 tubes in all. The tubes are of No. 30 B.W. G., $\frac{3}{4}"$ external diameter and $4' 1\frac{1}{2}"$ in length. The cooling face (internal) is 170.5 sq. ft. There are 27 cooling pans, each $1' 2\frac{1}{2}"$ wide and $1' 10"$ deep. These pans have galvanized iron bottoms which fit into horizontal grooves $\frac{1}{2}"$ wide and $\frac{3}{4}"$ deep, planed into the tubes. The total evaporating surface is 334.8 sq. ft. Water is fed to each pan through small cocks, and overflow pipes feed the rest. A wood cock meets one side with a 30" Buffalo Forge Co's disk-wheel. This is belted to a $3' \times 4'$ vertical engine. The air-pump is $5\frac{1}{2}"$ diameter, 6" stroke, is vertical and single-acting.

The action of this condenser is as follows: The passage of air over the water surfaces removes the vapor as it rises and thus hastens evaporation. The heat necessary to produce evaporation is obtained from the waste steam, causing the steam to condense. It was designed to condense 1000 lbs. of steam per hour and give a vacuum of 22 in., with a terminal pressure cylinder of 20 lbs. absolute.

Results of tests show that the cooling-water required is practically equivalent to the steam used by the engine. And since consumption of water is reduced by the application of a condenser, its use will actually reduce the total quantity of water required. From a curve showing the rate of evaporation per square foot of surface in still air, and also one showing the rate when a current of air of about 2000 ft. per min. velocity is passed over the surface, the following approximate figures are taken:

Temp. F.	Evaporation, lbs. per sq. ft. per hour.		Temp. F.	Evaporation, lbs. sq. ft. per hour.	
	Still Air.	Current.		Still Air.	Current.
100°	0.2	1.1	140°	1.8	4.1
110	0.25	1.6	150	1.1	3.0
120	0.4	2.5	160	1.5	3.6
130	0.6	3.5	170	2.0	4.5

The Continuous Use of Condensing-water is described in a series of articles in *Power*, Aug. Dec., 1894. It finds its applications in those cases where water for condensing purposes is expensive or difficult to obtain.

In San Francisco J. C. H. Stut cools the water after it has left the well by means of a system of pans upon the roof. These pans are made of galvanized iron arranged in tiers, on a slight incline so that the water flows back and forth for 1500 or 2000 ft., cooling by evaporative radiation as it flows. The pans are about 5 ft. in width, and the water flows has a depth of about half an inch, the temperature being reduced about 110° to 100°. The water from the hot well is pumped up to the point of the cooling system and allowed to flow as above described, and finally into the main tank or reservoir, whence it again flows down the pans as required. As the water in the reservoir becomes exhausted, auxiliary feed from the city mains to the condenser is required, keeping the amount of water in circulation practically constant. The condenser is cleaned out by the engine, with dust from the air, once in a while, and the water is changed about once in six weeks. The condenser is a vertical, single-acting, running condensing and ten-

water is taken from the city mains when the whole apparatus is when the engine is run non-condensing, 22 to 23 in. of vacuum only. A better vacuum is obtained on a warm day with a brisk breeze than on a cold day with but a slight movement of the air.

The water from the hot-well is sprayed from a number of nozzles and also from a pipe extending around its border, into a large tank, thus cooling it sufficiently for the obtaining of a good vacuum.

A system patented by Messrs See, of Lille, France, the water is drawn in a pipe laid in the form of a rectangle and elevated above a tank in a series of special nozzles, by which it is projected into a fine spray coming into contact with the air in this state of extreme division. It is cooled 40° to 50°, with a loss by evaporation of only one per cent, and produces an excellent vacuum. A 3000-H.P. cooler system has been erected at Lunoy, one of 2500 H.P. at Madrid, and 1100 H.P. at Liege, as well as others at Roubaix and Tourcoing. The system is used upon a roof if ground space were limited.

The "cooling" system of H. R. Worthington the injection-water is drawn from a tank, and after having passed through the condenser is discharged into the top of a cooling tower, where it is contained in a series of distributing-pipes and trickles down through a cellular structure of 6-in. terra-cotta pipes, 2 ft. long, stood on end. The water is cooled by a blast of air furnished by a disk fan at the bottom of the tower. The absorption of heat caused by a portion of the water being used is led to the tank to be again started on its circuit. (*Eng'g* 45, 1896.)

An evaporative condenser of T. Ledward & Co. of Brookley, London, carries over the pipes of the large condenser or radiator, and by which it carries away the heat necessary to be abstracted to condense the steam inside. The condensing pipes are fitted with corrugations in circular ribs, whereby the radiating or cooling surface is increased. The pipes, which are cast in sections about 70 in. long by 10 in. diameter, have a cooling surface of 26 sq. ft., which is found sufficient under favorable conditions to permit of the condensation of 20 to 30 lbs. of steam per hour when producing a vacuum of 13 lbs. per sq. in. In a trial of this type at Rixdorf, near Berlin, a vacuum ranging from 24 in. of mercury was constantly maintained during the hottest weather. The initial temperature of the cooling-water used in the apparatus ranged from 80° to 85° F., and the temperature in the sun, the condenser was exposed, varied each day from 100° to 115° F. In experiments it was found that it was possible to run one engine of 100 horse-power and maintain the full vacuum without the use of cooling-water at all on the pipes, radiation afforded by the pipes being sufficient to condense the steam for this power.

In a condensing water-cooler, the hot water coming from the condenser is at the top of a wooden structure about twenty feet in height, and is divided into a series of parallel narrow metal tanks. The water from these tanks is spread as a thin film over a series of wooden partitions suspended vertically about 3½ inches apart within the tower. The water flows down the partitions, corresponding to the number of metal tanks, and is then divided into a second set of partitions placed at right angles to the first set. This rapidity of the downflow of the water, and also thoroughly wetting the water, thus affording a better cooling. A fan-blower at the base of the tower gives a strong current of air with a velocity of about twenty feet per second against the thin film of water running down over the partitions. It is found that for an effectual cooling two thousand times more air must be forced through the apparatus. With such a velocity the air absorbs about two per cent of aqueous vapor. The action of the current is twofold: first, it absorbs heat from the hot water by conduction; and, secondly, it increases the evaporation-process, which absorbs a great amount of heat. These two cooling effects are different during the different seasons of the year. During the summer the direct cooling effect of the cold air is greater, while in the winter the heat absorption by evaporation is the more important. As the air is never so great that the deficiency of water would be made up by the additional amount of water resulting from the evaporation, in very cold winter months it may be necessary to correct the surplus water. It was found that the vacuum obtained

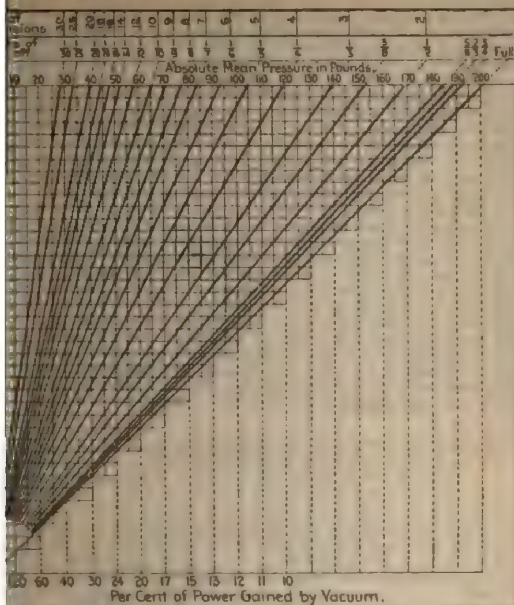


FIG. 151.

ators and Distillers are used with marine engines for the providing fresh water for the boilers or for drinking purposes. **aporator** consists of a small horizontal boiler, contrived so as taken to pieces and cleaned. The water in it is evaporated by rom the main boilers passing through a set of tubes placed in its the steam generated in this boiler is admitted to the low- ere-box, so that there is no loss of energy, and the water con- is returned to the main boilers.

Feed-heater the feed-water before entering the boiler is heated uly to boiling-point by means of the waste water and steam w-pressure valve-box of a compound engine.

PETROLEUM, AND HOT-AIR ENGINES.

ines.—For theory of the gas-engine, see paper by Dugald 2. Inst. C. E. 1882, vol. lxix.; and Van Nostrand's Science Series, also Wood's Thermodynamics. For construction of gas-engines, on's Gas and Petroleum Engines; articles by Albert Spies in agazine, 1893; also Appleton's Cyc. of Mechanics, and Modern

inary type of single-cylinder gas-engine (for example the Otto, our-cycle engine one ignition of gas takes place in one end of every two revolutions of the fly-wheel, or every two double e following sequence of operations takes place during four es: (a) inspiration during an entire stroke; (b) com and (return) stroke; (c) ignition at the dead point, at third stroke; (d) expulsion of the burnt gas during. Beau de Rochas in 1862 laid down the law that

four conditions necessary to realize the best results from the use of gas: (1) The cylinders should have the greatest capacity with the circumferential surface; (2) the speed should be as high as possible; (3) the cut-off should be as early as possible; (4) the initial pressure should be as high as possible. In modern engines it is customary for ignition to take place, not at the dead point, as proposed by Beau de Rochas, but a little later, when the piston has already made part of its forward stroke, so that slight it might be supposed that this would entail a loss of power, but experience shows that though the area of the diagram is diminished, the work registered by the friction-brake is greater. Starting is also made easier by this method of working. (The Simplex Engine, Proc. Inst. M. E. 1893.)

In the Otto engine the mixture of gas and air is compressed to 12 atmospheres. When explosion takes place the temperature rises to somewhere about 2900° F. (Robinson.)

The two great sources of waste in gas-engines are: 1. The high temperature of the rejected products of combustion; 2. Loss of heat from the cylinder walls to the water-jacket. As the temperature of the water is increased the efficiency of the engine becomes higher.

With ordinary coal gas the consumption may be taken at 24 cu. ft. per h.p., or 24 cu. ft. per brake h.p. The consumption varies with the quality of the gas. When burning Dowson producer gas the consumption of anthracite (Welsh) coal is about 1.3 lbs. per h.p. per hour in ordinary working. With large twin engines, 100 h.p., the consumption is reduced to about 1.1 lb. The mechanical efficiency of B.H.P. in ordinary engines is about 85%; the friction loss is less in larger engines.

Efficiency of the Gas-engine. (Thurston on Heat and Energy.)

Heat transferred into useful work.....	50
" " to the jacket-water.....	16
" lost in the exhaust gas.....	15
" by conduction and radiation.....	15

This represents fairly the distribution of heat in the best gas engine. The consumption of gas in the best engines ranges from 18 to 20 cu. ft. per h.p. per hour to a maximum of 30 cu. ft. in smaller engines 25 cu. ft. or 30 cu. ft. In small engines the constant brake horse-power is one third greater than these figures.

The report of a test of a 170-h.p. Crossley (Otto) gas-engine in 1893, using producer gas, shows a consumption of but .85 lb. of gas per hour, or an absolute combined efficiency of 21.3% for the engine proper. The efficiency of the engine alone is in the neighborhood 30%.

The Taylor gas-producer is used in connection with the Otto gas-engine of Schiele & Co., of Philadelphia. The only loss of heat is to radiation through the walls of the producer and a small amount carried off in the water from the scrubber. Experiments on a 10-h.p. engine show a consumption of 97/100 lb. of carbon per h.p. per hour; result is superior to any ever obtained on a steam-engine of equal size.

Tests of the Simplex Gas-engine. (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1893.) Cylinder 7 1/2 x 15 1/2 in., speed 100 revs. per min. Trials were made with gas of a heating value of 605 heat-units per cubic foot, and with gas, rich in CO, of about 150 heat-units per cubic foot.

	Town Gas.			Dowson	
	1.	2.	3.	1.	2.
Effective H.P.	6.70	8.67	9.29	7.12	8.8
Gas per H.P. per hour, cu. ft.	21.55	20.12	20.73	20.05	11.6
Water per H.P. per hour, lbs.	54.7	44.4	43.8	50.3	
Temp. water entering, F.	51°	51°	51°	48°	
" " effluent	135°	144°	172°	144°	

The gas volume is reduced to 32° F. and 30 in. barometer. A 30-h.p. engine working 35 to 40 effective h.p. with Dowson generator consumes English anthracite per hour, equal to 1.48 to 1.5 lbs. per effective h.p. per hour. The gas used is 12 cu. ft. of gas per effective h.p. per hour.

220-H.P. Gas-engine. The four-cylinder gas-engine, built by the Taylor Gas-producer Co., of Philadelphia, is a 220-horse-power gas-engine. The machine gives 220 h.p. at 100 revs. per min. The piston-stroke is 40 in. and the

Special arrangements have been devised in order to keep the parts of the machine at appropriate temperatures. The coal used is 1 lb. per indicated or 1.03 lb. per brake horse-power. The water used is 10 lbs. per brake horse-power per hour.

of an Otto Gas-engine. (*Journ. F. I.*, Feb. 1880, p. 115.)—Engine nominal; working capacity of cylinder .2594 cu. ft.; clearance .06 cu. ft.

	° F.	Heat-units.	Per cent of Heat received.
store of gas supplied...	62.2		
" " exhaust...	174.3		
" " entering water...	50.4	Transferred into work.....	22.84
" " exit water....	100.2	Taken by jacket-water.....	49.94
of gas, in. of water...	3.06	" " exhaust.....	27.22
of gas, in. of water...	101.0	Composition of the gas:	
of gas, in. of water...	6.8	By Volume. By Weight.	
of gas, in. of water...	59.	CO ₂	0.50% 1.92%
of gas, in. of water...	4.94	C ₂ H ₄	4.32 10.530
of gas, in. of water...	2304.	O	1.00 2.797
of gas, in. of water...	74.	CO	5.33 13.419
of gas, in. of water...	28.4	CH ₄	27.18 38.042
of gas, in. of water...		H	51.57 9.021
of gas, in. of water...		N	9.06 22.273
of gas, in. of water...			99.90 99.905

temperatures and Pressures developed in a Gas-engine. in the (Gas-engine.)—Mixtures of air and Oldham coal-gas. Temperature before explosion, 17° C.

Mixture.	Max. Press. above Atmos. lbs. per sq. in.	Temp. of Explosion calculated from observed Pressure.	Theoretical Temp. of Explosion if all Heat were evolved.
Air.			
14 vols.	40.	800° C.	1780° C.
13 "	51.5	1033	1912
12 "	60.	1202	2058
11 "	61.	1220	2098
9 "	78.	1557	2670
7 "	87.	1733	3334
6 "	89.	1792	3808
5 "	91.	1812	...
4 "	90.	1595	...

of the Clerk Gas-engine. (*Proc. Inst. C. E.* 1882, vol. lxi.)—5 × 12 in., 150 revs. per min.; mean available pressure 70.1 lbs., 9 maximum pressure, 220 lbs. per sq. in. above atmosphere; pressure before ignition, 41 lbs. above atm.; temperature before compression 60° C.; compression, 313° F.; temperature after ignition calculated from 2400° F.; gas required per I.H.P. per hour, 22 cu. ft.

tion of the Gas in the Otto Engine.—John Ingham, in his paper on Theory of the Gas-engine, says: The mixture which Mr. Otto introduced, and which rendered the engine a success, was not a mixture of gas and air, but a mixture of gas and air, instead of burning in the cylinder an explosive mixture of gas and air, he burned in the cylinder a mixture of gas and air, and arranged in a certain way in respect to the volume of incombustible gas which was heated by it, and which determined the speed of combustion. W. R. Bousfield, in the same discussion, says: In the Otto engine the charge varied from a charge which was a mixture of gas and air at the point of ignition to a charge which was merely air, and the speed of combustion. When ignition took place there was a mixture of gas and air at the point of ignition that was gradually communicated through the mass of the cylinder. As the ignition got farther away from the point of ignition the rate of transmission became slower, and if the mixture was not worked too fast the ignition should gradually be communicated during its travel, all the combustible gas being thus ignited. If the combustion is, however, disputed by Mr. Bousfield, the whole quantity of combustible gas is ignited in a mixture of gas and air in Gas-engines.—Mr.

gasoline or volatile petroleum spirit of low sp. gr. 0.65 to 0.70 some of the gasoline, and the air thus saturated with vapor is equaling or lighting power to ordinary coal-gas. It may therefore be used as fuel for gas-engines. Since the vapor is given off at ordinary temperature gasoline is very explosive and dangerous, and should be kept in a ground tank out of doors. A defect in the use of carburated gas engines is that the more volatile products are given off first, leaving a residue which is often useless. Some of the substances in the air taken up by the air are apt to form troublesome deposits and interfere when burned in the engine cylinder.

The Otto Gasoline-engine. (*Eng'g News*, May 4, 1894.) It is claimed that where but a small gasoline engine is used and the fuel bought at retail the liquid fuel will be on a par with a steam engine of 10 lbs. of coal per horse-power per hour, and coal at \$2.50 per ton besides save all the handling of the solid fuel and ashes, as well as the attendance for the boilers. As very few small steam-engines consume less than 6 lbs. of coal per hour, this is an exceptional showing for coal. At 8 cts. per gallon for gasoline and 1.10 gal. required per H.P. per hour, cost per H.P. per hour will be 0.8 cent.

The Priestman Petroleum-engine. (*Jour. Frank Inst.*, 1894.)—The following is a description of the operation of the engine. Ordinary high-test (usually 150° test) oil is forced under air pressure into an atomizer, where the oil is met by a current of air and broken up into fine particles and sprayed into a mixer, where it is mixed with the proper proportion of supplementary air and sufficiently heated by the exhaust from the cylinder passing around this chamber. The mixture is then drawn by the piston into the cylinder, where it is compressed by the piston and ignited by a spark. A governor controlling the supply of oil and air proportioned to the work performed. The burnt products are discharged through an exhaust-valve which is actuated by a cam. Part of the air supplied for the combustion of the oil, and the heat generated by the combustion expands the air that remains and the products resulting from the combustion and thus develops its power from air that it takes in while running. In other words, the engine exerts its power by inhaling air, heating it, and expelling the products of combustion when done with. In the engines only the 1/250 part of a pint of oil is used at any one time. In the smallest sizes the fuel is prepared in correct quantities varying from 1/7000 of a pint upward, according to whether the engine is running at full duty. The cycle of operations is the same as that of the Otto engine.

Trials of a 5-H.P. Priestman Petroleum-engine. W. C. Unwin, Proc. Inst. C. E. 1892.—Cylinder, 8½ × 12 in., making 300 revs. per min. Two oils were used, Russian and American. The important results were given in the following table:

	Trial V. Full Power.	Trial I. Full Power.	Trial IV Full Power.	Trial II Half Power.
Oil used.....	Day- light.	Russ- sian.	Russ- sian.	Russ- sian.
Brake H.P.....	7.732	6.765	6.882	3.02
I.H.P.....	9.309	7.408	8.332	4.70
Mechanical efficiency ..	0.824	0.91	0.876	0.779
Oil used per brake H.P. hour, lb.....	0.842	0.946	0.985	1.381
Oil used per indicated H.P. hour, lb.....	0.694	0.864	0.816	1.063
Lb. of air per lb. of oil..	20.4	31.7	33.2	21.7
Mean explosion pressure, lbs. per sq. in.....	151.4	131.3	128.5	68.3
Mean compression pres- sure, lbs. per sq. in. .	35.0	25.0	26.0	14.5
Mean terminal pressure, lbs. per sq. in. .	35.4	25.7	25.5	15.5

For comparison
with that of a
steam engine

consumption with that of a steam engine
is about 1 1/2 lbs. of coal. Then the

engine was equivalent, in Trials I., IV., and V., to 1.42 lbs. of coal per brake horse power per hour. From Trial IV. the values of the expenditure of heat were obtained:

	Per cent.
work at brake	13.31
friction	2.81
down on indicator-diagram	16.12
lost in jacket-water	47.54
in exhaust-gases	26.72
lost and unaccounted for	9.61
Total	99.99

Naphtha-engines are in use to some extent in small yachts and launches. The naphtha is vaporized in a boiler, and the vapor is used ex-
actly as steam is used; it is then condensed and returned to the boiler. A portion of the naphtha vapor is used for fuel under the boiler. According to the circular of the builders, the Gas Engine Co. of New York, a 2-H.P. engine requires from 3 to 4 quarts of naphtha per hour, and a 4-H.P. engine from 4 to 6 quarts. The chief advantage of a naphtha-engine and boiler for launches are the saving of weight and compactness of operation. A 2-H.P. engine weighs 300 lbs., a 4-H.P. 300 lbs. only about two minutes to get under headway. (Modern Marine Engineering, p. 270.)

Hot-air Engines.—Hot-air engines are used to some extent in their bulk is enormous compared with their effective power. For example, the largest hot-air engine ever built (a total failure) see the life of Ericsson. For theoretical investigation, see Rankine's *Engineering and Rontgen's Thermodynamica*. For description of construction, see Appleton's *Cyc. of Mechanics and Modern Mechanism*, and *Substitutes for Steam*, Trans. A. S. M. E., vii., p. 693.

Hot-air Engine (Robinson).—A vertical double-cylinder engine (Co.'s) 12 nominal H.P. engine gave 20.19 I.H.P. in the work and 11.38 I.H.P. in the pump, leaving 8.81 net I.H.P.; while the engine H.P. was 5.9, giving a mechanical efficiency of 67%. Consumption of coke, 3.7 lbs. per brake H.P. per hour. Mean pressure on pistons, 15 lbs. per square inch, and in pumps 15.9 lbs., the area of working pistons twice that of the pumps. The hot air supplied was about 100° F. at that rejected at end of stroke about 290° F.

Stirling's best-engine was 2.7 lbs. per brake H.P. per hour. A hot-air engine, 2 H.P. nominal, gave 4.3 I.H.P., 2.6 B.H.P.; efficiency 62%; estimated temperature at highest pressure 1500° F. Atmospheric pressure 700° F. Highest pressure, 14 lbs. per square inch. Consumption of fuel, 7 lbs. per hour per brake H.P. Cooling water, 30 lbs.

LOCOMOTIVES.

Efficiency of Locomotives and Resistance of Trains.

Henderson, Proc. Engrs. Club of Phila. 1886, 1.—The efficiency of a locomotive can be divided into two principal parts: the first depending on the efficiency of the cylinders and wheels, the valve-gear, boiler and steam engine, which the tractive power is a function; and the second upon the resistance of the train, which combine to produce the tractive power.

The tractive power may be determined as follows:

Tractive power;
Average effective pressure in cylinder;
Stroke of piston;
Diameter of cylinders;
Diameter of driving-wheels. Then

$$P = \frac{4\pi d^2 p S}{4\pi D} = \frac{d^2 p S}{D}$$

The average effective pressure can be obtained from an indicator-diagram, or by calculation, when the initial pressure and ratio of expansion are known, together with the other properties of the valve-motion. The subjoined table from "Auchincloss" gives the proportion of mean effective pressure to boiler-pressure above atmosphere for various proportions of cut-off.

Stroke, Cut off at—	M.E.P. (Boiler- pres. = 1).	Stroke, Cut off at—	(M.E.P. Boiler- pres. = 1).	Stroke, Cut off at—	M.E.P. (Boiler- pres. = 1).
.1	.15	.333 = $\frac{1}{3}$.5 = $\frac{1}{2}$.625 = $\frac{5}{8}$.79
.125 = $\frac{1}{8}$.2	.375 = $\frac{3}{8}$.55	.666 = $\frac{2}{3}$.82
.15	.24	.4	.57	.7	.85
.175	.28	.45	.62	.75 = $\frac{3}{4}$.89
.2	.32	.5 = $\frac{1}{2}$.67	.8	.93
.25 = $\frac{1}{4}$.4	.55	.72	.875 = $\frac{7}{8}$.98
.3	.46				

These values were deduced from experiments with an English locomotive by Mr. Gooch. As diagrams vary so much from different causes, this table will only fairly represent practical cases. It is evident that the cut-off must be such that the boiler will be capable of supplying sufficient steam at the given speed.

In the following calculations it is assumed that the adhesion of the engine is at least equal to the tractive power, which is generally the case—if the engine be well designed—except when starting, or running at a very low rate of speed, with a small expansive ratio. When running faster, economy, and also the size of the boiler, necessitate a higher ratio of expansion, thus reducing the tractive power below the adhesion. If the adhesion be less than the tractive power, substitute it for the latter in the following formula.

The resistances can be computed in the following manner, first considering the train:

There is a resistance due to friction of the journals, pressure of wind, &c., which increases with the speed. Most of the experiments made with a view of determining the resistance of trains have been with European rolling stock and on European railways. The few trials that have been made here seem to prove that with American systems this resistance is less.

The following table gives the resistance at different speeds, assumed for American practice:

Speed in miles per hour:										
s =	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50
Resistance in pounds per ton of 2240 lbs.:										
r =	3.1	3.4	4.	4.8	5.8	7.1	8.6	10.2	12.1	14.3
Coefficient of resistance in terms of load:										
l =	.0015	.0017	.0020	.0024	.0029	.0035	.0043	.0051	.0060	.0071
$l = .0015 \left(1 + \frac{s^2}{650} \right).$										

The resistance due to curvature is about .5 lb. per ton per degree of curvature, or the coefficient = .00035c, where c = the curvature in degrees.

The effect of grades may be determined by the theory of the inclined plane.

Consider a load L on a grade of m feet per mile. The component of the weight L acting in the line of traction, or parallel to the track, is

$$L \sin \theta = \frac{Lm}{5280} = .00019Lm.$$

To combine these coefficients in one equation representing the resistance of the train:

Let L = weight of train, exclusive of engine, in pounds;

R = resistance of train, in pounds.

s, c, and m, as above. Then

$$R = L \left[.0015 \left(1 + \frac{s^2}{650} \right) + .00035c \pm .00019m \right],$$

sign meaning that this coefficient is positive for ascending and negative for descending grades.

On a grade upon which a train would descend by itself, take the last term minus and make $R = 0$, whence

$$m = 7.9 \left(1 + \frac{g^2}{650} \right) + 1.3c.$$

Locomotives usually have a long rigid wheel-base, the coefficient for m had better be doubled. The resistance due to the friction of the big parts will be considered as being proportional to the tractive power, the effective tractive power will be represented by uP , the resistance $R = uP$.

Putting all these values, there results the equation between the tractive power and the weight of the train and engine:

$$uP - W(.0005c \pm .00019m) = L + .00025c \pm .00019m,$$

the weight of engine and tender, and u being probably about .8. Assuming, we have

$$L = \frac{uP - W(.0005c \pm .00019m)}{.8 \pm .00025c \pm .00019m},$$

$$P = \frac{L(.8 \pm .00025c \pm .00019m) + W(.0005c \pm .00019m)}{.8}.$$

The deductions, says Mr. Henderson, agree well with railroad practice. The figures given above for resistances are very much less than those of the old formulæ (which were certainly wrong), but even Mr. Henderson's figures for high speed are too high, according to a diagram given by Barnes in *Eng'g Mag.*, June, 1894, from which the following figures are

Speed, miles per hour	30	60	70	80	90	100
Resistance, pounds per gross ton..	12	12.4	13.5	15	17	20

News, March 8, 1894, gives a formula which for high speeds gives for resistance between those of Mr. Barnes and Mr. Henderson. See *Report in Eng'g News* of June 9, 1892. The formula is, resistance in pounds per ton = $\frac{1}{4}$ velocity in miles per hour + 2. This gives for

Velocity	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	60	70	80	90	100
Resistance	2.75	4.5	5.75	7	8.25	9.5	10.75	12	13.25	14.5	17	19.5	22	24.5	27

Tables showing that the resistance varies with the area exposed to the air and friction of the air per ton of load, see Dashiell, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xiii, p. 371.

Inertia and Resistances of Railroad Trains at Increasing Speeds.—A series of tables and diagrams is given in *N. E. Gaz.*, Oct. 31, showing the resistances due to inertia in starting trains and accelerating speeds.

The mechanical principles and formulæ from which these data were calculated are as follows:

V = speed in miles per hour to be acquired at the end of a mile.

V_1 = average speed in miles per hour during the first mile run.

V_2 = velocity in feet per second at the end of a mile; then $V + 2 =$ average velocity in feet per second during the first mile run.

t = $V_2^2 =$ time in seconds required to run first mile = $10560 \div V_2$.

$(10560 \div V_2) = V_2^2 + 10560 = .0000917 V_2^3 =$ Constant gain in velocity or acceleration in feet per second necessary to the acquirement of a velocity V_2 at the end of a mile.

Acceleration due to the force of gravity, i.e., 32.2 feet per second.

Forces required to accelerate a given mass in a given time to different velocities are in proportion to those velocities. The weight of a body is the force of the force which accelerates it in the case of gravity, and as we

considering 1 lb., or the unit of weight, as the mass to be accelerated, $F_2 : (V_2^2 + 10560) :: 1$ is to the force required to accelerate 1 lb. to the

velocity V_2 at the end of a mile run, or, what is the same, to accelerate it at the rate of $V_2^2 + 10560$ feet per second.

Thus the pull on the drawbar—it is the same as the force properly termed the inertia—in pounds per

ton = (10560×32.2) , which equals .00000294 V_2^3 .

tractive efficiency of locomotives. With simple two-coupled four-wheels coupled, experiments have been made by the chief superintendent of the Eastern Railway of France, with the greatest possible care and with the best apparatus, and it was that out of 100 I.H.P. in the cylinders 48 H.P. only was drawn at the draw-bar. The loss of 52% was rather a high price to pay for the engine. How much of that loss was due to causes could not yet say; but a considerable amount of it must be due to the fact that it was known that large engines with a single pair of wheels coupled were doing their work more economically. Locomotive engineers who had not yet gone in for compound were going back to the single pair of driving-wheels. Moreover, the loss of 52% had been confirmed independently on the Peabody trials made with an engine having 18 in. x 24 in. cylinders, wheels four-coupled; by taking indicator diagrams upon which were professed to be taken correctly, the power was found to be only 42% of that in the cylinders, or only 18% of the French experiments.

The Size of Locomotive Cylinders is usually determined so that the engine will just overcome the adhesion of its wheels under favorable circumstances.

The adhesion of the wheel is about one third the weight of the engine, clean and sanded, but is usually assumed at 0.25. (Thus, a locomotive of 100 tons weight will have an adhesion of 25 tons.)

A committee of the American Association of Master Mechanics, studying the performance reports of the best engines, proposed the following formula for weight on driving-wheels: $W = \frac{0.85C}{P}$

in which W is the weight on driving-wheels in tons, C the mean pressure in the cylinder is taken at 0.85 of the initial pressure, P the pressure in pounds per square inch.

C is a numerical coefficient of adhesion, d the diameter of the drivers in inches, D that of the cylinders in inches, P the pressure in pounds per square inch, S the stroke of piston in inches. For passenger engines, 0.24 for freight, and 0.22 for "switch" engines.

The common builder's rule for determining the size of locomotive is the following, in which we accept Mr. F. W. Lewis' rule that the steam-pressure at the engine may be taken as

on Barries's rule for the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder of a compound locomotive is $d^2 = \frac{2ZD}{ph}$,

d = diameter of l.p. cylinder in inches;
 D = diameter of driving-wheel in inches;
 p = mean effective pressure per sq. in., after deducting internal machine friction;
 h = stroke of piston in inches;
 Z = tractive force required, usually 0.14 to 0.16 of the adhesion.

The value of p depends on the relative volume of the two cylinders, and an indicator experiments may be taken as follows:

Kind of Engine.	Ratio of Cylinder Volumes.	p in percentage of Boiler-pressure.	p for Boiler-pressure of 176 lbs.
Steam-tender eng's	1:2 or 1:2.05	42	74
Loco-engines.....	1:2 or 1:2.2	40	71

Size of Locomotive Boilers. (Forney's Catechism of the locomotive.)—They should be proportioned to the amount of adhesive weight and to the speed at which the locomotive is intended to work. Thus a locomotive with a great deal of weight on the driving-wheels could pull a heavier load, would have a greater cylinder capacity than one with little adhesive weight, would consume more steam, and therefore should have a larger boiler.

The weight and dimensions of locomotive boilers are in nearly all cases limited by the limits of weight and space to which they are necessarily confined. It may be stated generally that *within these limits a locomotive boiler cannot be made too large*. In other words, boilers for locomotives should always be made as large as is possible under the conditions that define the weight and dimensions of the locomotives.

Wooten's Locomotive. (Clark's Steam-engine; see also Jour. Am. Inst., 1891, and Modern Mechanism, p. 485.)—J. E. Wooten designed and constructed a locomotive boiler for the combustion of anthracite and coke, though specially for the utilization as fuel of the waste produced in mining and preparation of anthracite. The special feature of the engine is the fire-box, which is made of great length and breadth, extending clear to the wheels, giving a grate-area of from 64 to 85 sq. ft. The draught used over these large areas is so gentle as not to lift the fine particles of fuel. A number of express-engines having this type of boiler are engaged on the fast trains between Philadelphia and Jersey City. The fire-box shell is 8 in. wide and 10 ft. 5 in. long; the fire-box is 8 x 9 1/4 ft., making 76 sq. ft. grate-area. The grate is composed of bars and water-tubes alternately. The regular types of cast-iron shaking grates are also used. The height of the fire-box is only 2 ft. 5 in. above the grate. The grate is terminated by a ledge of fire-brick, beyond which a combustion-chamber, 27 in. long, leads to the flue-tubes, about 184 in number, 13 1/2 in. diam. The cylinders are 24 in. diam., with a stroke of 22 inches. The driving-wheels, four-coupled, are 36 in. diam. The engine weighs 44 tons, of which 29 tons are on the driving-wheels. The heating-surface of the fire-box is 135 sq. ft., that of the tubes is 982 sq. ft.; together, 1117 sq. ft., or 14.7 times the grate-area. It will pull 15 passenger-cars, weighing with passengers 300 tons, at an average speed of 42 miles per hour, over ruling gradients of 1 in 89, the engine consuming 62 lbs. of fuel per mile, or 34 1/4 lbs. per sq. ft. of grate per hour.

Qualities Essential for a Free-steaming Locomotive. In a paper by A. E. Mitchell, read before the N. Y. Railroad Club; (Eng. News, Jan. 24, 1891.)—Square feet of boiler-heating surface for bituminous coal should not be less than 4 times the square of the diameter in inches of a cylinder 1 inch larger than the cylinder to be used. (One tenth of an inch should be in the fire-box. On anthracite locomotives more heating-surface is required in the fire-box, on account of the larger grate-area, and, but the heating-surface of the flues should not be materially increased.)

Grate-surface, Smoke-stacks, and Exhaust-nozzles for Locomotives. (Am. Mach., Jan. 8, 1891.)—For grate-surface for anthracite: Multiply the displacement in cubic feet of one piston during its stroke by 8.5; the product will be the area of the grate in square feet. For bituminous coal: Multiply the displacement in feet of one piston during its stroke by 8 1/2; the product will be the grate-area in sq. ft. For smoke-stacks 12 in. in diameter and upwards. For

smaller cylinders the ratio of grate area to piston-displacement should be 34 to 1, or even more, if the design of the engine will admit this proportion.

The grate-areas in the following table have been found by the foregoing rules, and agree very closely with the average practice:

Snake-stacks.—The internal area of the smallest cross-section of the stack should be 1.17 of the area of the grate in soft-coal-burning engines.

A. E. Mitchell, Supt. of Motive Power of the N. Y. L. E. & W. R. R., says that recent practice varies from this rule. Some roads use the same size of stack, 134 in. diam. at throat, for all engines up to 20 in. diam. of cylinder.

The area of the orifices in the exhaust-nozzles depends on the quantity and quality of the coal burnt, size of cylinder, construction of stack, and the condition of the outer atmosphere. It is therefore impossible to give rules for computing the exact diameter of the orifices. All that can be done is to give a rule by which an approximate diameter can be found. The exact diameter can only be found by trial. Our experience leads us to believe that the area of each orifice in a double exhaust-nozzle should be equal to 1/400 part of the grate-surface, and for single nozzles 1/200 of the grate-surface. These ratios have been used in finding the diameters of the nozzles given in the following table. The same sizes are often used for either hard or soft coal burners.

Size of Cylinders, in inches.	Grate-area for Anthracite Coal, in sq. in.	Grate-area for Bituminous Coal, in sq. in.	Diameter of Stacks, in inches.	Double Nozzles.	Single Nozzles.
				Diam. of Orifices, in inches.	Diam. of Orifices, in inches.
12 x 20	1591	1217	9 1/4	2	2 13/16
13 x 20	1873	1432	10 1/4	2 1/8	3
14 x 20	2179	1660	11 1/4	2 5/16	3 1/2
15 x 22	2742	2067	12 1/4	2 9/16	3 7/16
16 x 24	3415	2611	14	2 3/4	4 1/16
17 x 24	3866	2948	15	3 1/16	4 5/16
18 x 24	4321	3304	15 3/4	3 1/2	4 9/16
19 x 24	4810	3678	16 1/4	3 7/16	4 13/16
20 x 24	5337	4081	17 1/4	3 9/16	5 1/16

Exhaust-nozzles in Locomotive Boilers.—A committee of the Am. Ry. Master Mechanics' Assn. in 1890 reported that they had, after two years of experiment and research, come to the conclusion that, owing to the great diversity in the relative proportions of cylinders and boilers, together with the difference in the quality of fuel, any rule which does not recognize each and all of these factors would be worthless.

The committee was unable to devise any plan to determine the size of the exhaust nozzle in proportion to any other part of the engine or boiler, and believes that the best practice is for each user of locomotives to adopt a nozzle that will make steam freely and fill the other desired conditions, best determined by an intelligent use of the indicator and a check on the fuel account. The conditions desirable are: That it must create draught enough on the fire to make steam, and at the same time impose the least possible amount of work on the pistons in the shape of back pressure. It should be large enough to produce a nearly uniform blast without lifting or tearing the fire, and be economical in its use of fuel.

Fire-brick Arches in Locomotive Fire-boxes.—A committee of the Am. Ry. Master Mechanics' Assn. in 1890 reported strongly in favor of the use of brick arches in locomotive fire-boxes. They say: It is the unanimous opinion of all who use bituminous coal and brick arch, that it is most efficient in consuming the various gases composing black smoke, and by impeding and delaying their passage through the tubes, and mingling and subjecting them to the heat of the furnace, greatly lessens the volume ejected, and intensifies combustion, and does not in the least check, but rather augments draught, with the consequent saving of fuel and increased steaming capacity that might be expected from such results. This is particularly when used in connection with extension front.

Size, Weight, Tractive Power, etc., of Different Sizes of Locomotives. (J. G. A. Meyer, Modern Locomotive Construction.)

Aug. 8, 1885.)—The tractive power should not be more or less than adhesion. In column 3 of each table the adhesion is given, and since the tractive power are expressed by the same number of pounds, the tractive power of each engine, for the purpose of always using the small diameter of driving-wheels given in column 2. The weight on drivers is shown in column 4, which is obtained by multiplying the adhesion by 5 for all classes of engines. Column 5 gives the weight on the trucks, and these are based upon observations. Thus, the weight on the truck for an eight-wheeled engine is about one half of that on the drivers.

For moggul engines we multiply the total weight on drivers by the decimal .63, the product will be the weight on the truck.

For ten-wheeled engines the total weight on the drivers, multiplied by the decimal .33, will be equal to the weight on the truck.

For consolidation engines, the total weight on drivers multiplied by the decimal .16, will determine the weight on the truck.

Column 6 the total weight of each engine is given, which is obtained by adding the weight on the drivers to the weight on the truck. Dividing the weight given in column 1 by 75 will give the number of tons of 2000 lbs.

Each engine is capable of hauling on a straight and level track, column 7.

The weight of engines given in these tables will be found to agree generally with the actual weights of locomotives recently built, although it is not expected that these weights will agree in every case with the weights, because the different builders do not build the engines alike.

The actual weight on trucks for eight-wheeled or ten-wheeled engines will vary much from those given in the tables, because these weights depend on the difference between the total and rigid wheel-base, and these are often changed by the different builders.

The proportion between the total and rigid wheel-base is generally the same.

The formula for finding the tractive power is:

$$\left(\frac{\text{dia. of cyl. in inches}}{\text{Diameter of wheel in feet}} \right) \times \left(\frac{\text{Mean effect, steam press. per sq. in.}}{\text{stroke in feet}} \right) \times \text{stroke} = \text{tractive power.}$$

EIGHT-WHEELED LOCOMOTIVES.

TEN-WHEELED ENGINES.

No.	Adhesion.		Weight on Drivers.		Weight on Truck.		Total Weight.		Hauling Capacity on Level Track in tons of 2000 lbs., including Tender.		Cylinders—Diameter, Stroke.		Diameter of Driving-wheels.		Adhesion.		Weight on Drivers.		Weight on Truck.		Total Weight, with Water and Fuel.		Hauling Capacity on Level Track in tons of 2000 lbs., including Tender.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
31	4000	20000	10000	30000	533	12	18	30	43	5901	29907	9750	39477	797										
32	5321	26620	13310	39930	709	13	18	41	45	6077	30387	10983	44070	890										
33	5940	29700	14850	44550	793	14	20	43	47	8205	41023	13127	54150	1093										
34	6828	34140	17070	51210	910	15	22	45	50	9900	49500	15940	65440	1291										
35	7697	38485	19242	57727	1026	16	24	48	53	11520	57600	18193	76032	1539										
36	8836	44180	22090	66270	1173	17	24	51	56	13200	65900	20384	86284	1732										
37	9533	47665	23832	71497	1271	18	24	51	56	13732	68611	21555	90566	1829										
38	10404	52020	26010	78030	1387	19	24	54	60	14450	72200	23104	95304	1935										
39	11473	57365	28682	86046	1529																			

MOGUL ENGINES.

CONSOLIDATION ENGINES.

	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
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Leading American Types of Locomotive for Freight and Passenger Service.

1. The eight-wheel or "American" passenger type, having four coupled driving-wheels and a four-wheeled truck in front.
2. The "ten-wheel" type, for mixed traffic, having six coupled drivers and a leading four-wheel truck.
3. The "Mogul" freight type, having six coupled driving-wheels and a pony or two-wheel truck in front.
4. The "Consolidation" type, for heavy freight service, having six coupled driving-wheels and a pony truck in front.

Besides these there is a great variety of types for special conditions of service, as four-wheel and six-wheel switching-engines, without trucks; the Forney type used on elevated railroads, with four coupled wheels under the engine and a four-wheeled rear truck carrying the water-tank and fuel; locomotives for local and suburban service with four coupled driving wheels with a two-wheel truck front and rear, or a two-wheel truck front and a four-wheel truck rear, etc. "Decapod" engines for heavy freight service have ten coupled driving-wheels and a two-wheel truck in front.

Steam-distribution for High-speed Locomotives.

(C. H. Quereau, *Eng'g News*, March 8, 1894.)

Balanced Valves.—Mr. Philip Wallis, in 1886, when Engineer of Traction for the C. B. & Q. R. R., reported that while 6 H.P. was required to work the balanced valves at 40 miles per hour, for the balanced valves 2.2 H.P. was necessary.

Effect of Speed on Average Cylinder-pressure.—Assume that a locomotive has a train in motion, the reverse lever is placed in the running notch on the track is level; by what is the maximum speed limited? The resistance of the train and the load increase, and the power of the locomotive increases with increasing speed till the resistance and power are equal, and the speed becomes uniform. The power of the engine depends on the average pressure in the cylinders. Even though the cut-off and back pressure remain the same, this pressure decreases as the speed increases because of the higher piston-speed and more rapid valve-timed the steam has a shorter time in which to enter the cylinders at the higher speed. The following table, from indicator-cards taken from a locomotive at various speeds, shows the decrease of average pressure with increasing speed:

Miles per hour,	46	51	51	53	54	57	60	62
Speed, revolutions,	224	248	248	258	263	377	398	408
Average pressure per sq. in.:								
Actual,	51.5	44.0	47.3	43.0	41.3	42.5	37.3	37.3
Calculated,	46.5	46.5	44.7	43.8	41.6	41.6	39.3	39.3

The "average pressure calculated" was figured on the assumption that the mean effective pressure would decrease in the same ratio that the speed increased. The main difference lies in the higher steam line at the lower speeds, and consequent higher expansion-line, showing that more steam entered the cylinder. The back pressure and compression lines agree quite closely for all the cards, though they are slightly better for the lower speeds. That the difference is not greater may safely be attributed to the large exhaust-ports, passages, and exhaust tip, which is 5 in. diameter. These are matters of great importance for high speeds.

Boiler-pressure.—The increase of train resistance with increased speed is not as the square of the velocity, as is commonly supposed. It is more than that it increases as the speed after about 30 miles an hour is reached. Assuming that the latter is true, and that an average of 50 lbs. per square inch is the greatest that can be realized in the cylinders of a given engine at 30 miles an hour, and that this pressure furnishes just sufficient power to move the train at this speed, it follows that, to increase the speed to 50 miles an hour, the mean effective pressure must be increased in the same proportion. To increase the capacity for speed of any locomotive its power must be increased at least by as much as the speed is to be increased. One way to increase this is to increase the boiler-pressure. That this is practically increased by the increase in boiler-pressure in the last few years. The average single expansion locomotives described in the railway gazetteer of 1893 have boiler pressures are as follows, 3, 160 lbs.; 4, 165 lbs.; 5, 170 lbs.; 6, 175 lbs.; 7, 180 lbs.

Valve-travel.—An increased average cylinder-pressure may also be obtained by increasing the valve-travel without raising the lower pressure. But better results will be obtained by increasing both. The longer travel gives a higher steam-pressure in the cylinders, a later exhaust-opening, earlier exhaust-closure, and a larger exhaust-opening—all necessary for high speed and economy. I believe that a 2½ in. port and 6½ in. over-ventilator could be successfully used for high-speed engines, and that frequently so doing the cylinders could be economically reduced and the counterbalance lightened. Or, better still, the diameter of the drivers increased, securing lighter counterbalance and better steam-distribution.

Size of Drivers.—Economy will increase with increasing diameter of drivers, provided the work at average speed does not necessitate a cut-off greater than one fourth the stroke. The piston-speed of a locomotive with 16 in. drivers at 55 miles per hour is the same as that of one with 66 in. drivers at 61 miles per hour.

Steam-ports.—The length of steam-ports ranges from 15 in. to 23 in., and has a considerable influence on the power, speed, and economy of the locomotive. In cards from similar engines the steam-line of the card from the engine with 23-in. ports is considerably nearer boiler-pressure than that of a card from the engine with 17½-in. ports. That the higher steam-line is due to the greater length of steam-port there is little room for doubt. The 16 in. port produced 531 H.P. in an 18½ in. cylinder at a cost of 23.5 lbs. of heated water per I.H.P. per hour. The 17½ in. port, 424 H.P., at the rate 22.9 lbs. of water, in a 19-in. cylinder.

Allen Valves.—There is considerable difference of opinion as to the advantage of the Allen ported-valve. (See *Eng. News*, July 6, 1893.)

Speed of Railway Trains.—In 1834 the average speed of trains on the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was twenty miles an hour; in 1838 it was twenty-five miles an hour. But by 1840 there were engines on the Great Western Railway capable of running fifty miles an hour with a train, and sixty miles an hour without. A speed of 86 miles per hour was made in England with the T. W. Wordsell compound locomotive. The total weight of the engine, tender, and train was 695,000 lbs.; indicator-cards were taken giving 1068.6 H.P. on the level. At a speed of 75 miles per hour on a grade, and the same train, the indicator-cards showed 1040 H.P. developed. (See *A. S. M. E.*, vol. xiii., 363.)

The limitation to the increase of speed of heavy locomotives seems at present to be the difficulty of counterbalancing the reciprocating parts. The unbalanced vertical component of the reciprocating parts causes the pressure of the driver on the rail to vary with every revolution. Whenever the load is high, it is of considerable magnitude, and its change in direction is rapid that the resulting effect upon the rail is not inappropriately called "hammer blow." Heavy rails have been kinked, and bridges have been shaken to their fall under the action of heavily balanced drivers revolving at high speeds. The means by which the evil is to be overcome has not yet been made clear. See paper by W. F. M. Goss, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xvi., Engine No. 999 of the New York Central Railroad ran a mile in 32 seconds, and to 112 miles per hour, May 11, 1893.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Speed in miles per hour} &= \frac{\text{circum. of driving-wheels in in.} \times \text{no. of rev. per min.} \times .60}{60,000} \\ &= \frac{\text{diam. of driving-wheels in in.} \times \text{no. of rev. per min.} \times .001}{(\text{approximate, giving result } 8/10 \text{ of } 1 \text{ per cent too great}).} \end{aligned}$$

DIMENSIONS OF SOME LARGE AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVES, 1893.

The four locomotives described below were exhibited at the Chicago position in 1893. The dimensions are from *Engineering News*, June, 1893. The first, or Decapod engine, has ten-coupled driving-wheels. It is one of the heaviest and most powerful engines ever built for freight service. The Philadelphia & Reading engine is a new type for passenger service, with four coupled drivers. The Rhode Island engine has six drivers, with a 4-wheel tag truck and a 2-wheel trailing truck. These three engines have 16-inch cylinder. The fourth is a simple engine, of the standard American type, 4 driving-wheels, and a 4-wheel truck in front. It holds the world's record for speed (1893) for short distances, 1 mile in 32 seconds.

	Baldwin. N. Y., L. E. & W. R. R. Decapod Freight.	Baldwin. Phila. & Read. R. R. Express Passenger.	Rhode Is. Locomotive Works Heavy Express.
Running-gear:			
Driving-wheels, diam	4 ft. 2 in.	6 ft. 6 in.	6 ft. 6 in.
Truck " " " " " "	3 " 6 "	4 " 0 "	9 " 9 "
Journals, driving-axles....	9 × 10 in.	8½ × 12 in.	8 " × 10 in.
" " truck- " " " "	5 × 10 "	6½ × 10 "	5½ × 10 "
" " tender- " " " "	4½ × 9 "	4½ × 8 "	4½ × 8 "
Wheel-base:			
Driving.....	18 ft. 10 in.	6 ft. 10 in.	13 ft. 6 in.
Total engine.....	27 " 3 "	23 " 4 "	29 " 9½ "
" " tender.....	16 " 8 "	16 " 0 "	15 " 0 "
" " engine and tender....	53 " 4 "	47 " 3 "	50 " 0½ "
Wt. in working-order:			
On drivers.....	170,000 lbs.	82,700 lbs.	88,500 lbs.
On truck-wheels.....	29,500 "	47,000 "	54,500 "
Engine, total.....	199,500 "	129,700 "	143,000 "
Tender.....	117,500 "	50,375 "	75,000 "
Engine and tender, loaded	317,000 "	210,375 "	218,000 "
Cylinders:			
h.p. (2).....	16 × 28 in.	13 × 24 in.	one 21 × 28
l.p. (2).....	27 × 28 "	22 × 24 "	one 31 × 20
Distance centre to centre.	7 ft. 5 "	7 ft. 4½ in.	7 ft. 1 in.
Piston-rod, diam.....	4 in.	3½ in.	3½ in.
Connecting rod, length....	0' 8 7/16 "	8 ft. 0½ in.	10 ft. 3¼ in.
Steam-ports.....	28½ × 2 in.	24 × 1½ in.	11½ × 20 and 1½ × 25
Exhaust-ports.....	28½ × 8 "	24 × 4½ "	3 × 20 in.
Slide-valves, out, lap, h.p.	16 in.	24 in.	1½ in.
" " out, lap, l.p.....	26 "	26 "	1 in.
" " in, lap, h.p.....	" "	(neg.) ¼ in.	" "
" " in, lap, l.p.....	" "	None	" "
" " max. travel.....	6 in.	5 in.	7½ in.
" " lead, h.p.....	1/16 in.	16 "	3/32 "
" " lead, l.p.....	5/16 "	5½ "	" "
Boiler-Type	Straight	Straight	Wagon top
Diam. of barrel inside....	6 ft. 2½ in.	4 ft. 8½ in.	3 ft. 2 in.
Thickness of barrel-plates	¾ in.	¾ in.	¾ in.
Height from rail to centre line.....	8 ft. 0 in.	" "	8 ft. 11 in.
Length of smoke-box.....	6 " 7½ "	" "	0 " 1 "
Working steam-pressure.	180 lbs.	180 lbs.	200 lbs.
Fire-box-type	Wooden	Wooden	Radial stay
Length inside.....	10' 11 9/16 "	9 ft. 6 in.	10 ft. 0 in.
Width.....	8 ft. 2½ in.	8 " 0½ "	2 " 2½ "
Depth at front.....	4 " 6 "	3 " 2½ "	6 " 10½ "
Thickness of side plates..	5-16 in.	5-16 in.	5-16 in.
" " back plate.....	5-16 "	5-16 "	5/8 "
Thickness of crown-sheet	3/8 "	5-16 "	4½ "
" " tube.....	1/8 "	3/8 "	4½ "
Grate-area.....	89.0 sq ft.	76.8 sq ft.	29 sq ft.
Stay-bolts, diam, 1½ in.	pitch, 14 in.	" "	4 in.
Tubes-Iron	254	324	272
Pitch.....	23½ in.	2 1/16 in.	23½ in.
Diam. outside.....	2 "	1½ in.	2 "
Length between tube-plates	11 ft. 11 in.	10 ft. 0 in.	12 ft. 5½ in.
Heating-surface:			
Tubes, exterior.....	2,306.8 sq ft.	1,392 sq ft.	" "
Fire box.....	234.3 "	173 "	" "
Miscellaneous:			
Exhaust-nozzle, diam.....	5 in.	5½ in.	1 ft. 6 in.
Smokestack, small at diam	1 ft. 6 "	1 ft. 6 in.	1 ft. 6 in.
Rate.....	15 - 21½	14 ft. 0½ in.	15 -

Name of Railroad.	Passenger	No. of Driv	No. of Tr	Di	Eng. wheels	Size of Cylinders, Inches.	Total Weight on Driving wheels.	Area of Gr sq. ft.	Firebox Ho sq. ft.	Tube Heat surface sq.	Steam-pressure per sq. in.	Length of Tubes in ft. and in.	Diam of Tank in.	Ratio of Cyl. to Tank	Weight of Water per cu. ft.	Ratio of Cyl. to Tank
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	16 x 34	86,000	15.9	110	801	160	11	0	0.401	0.421	0.401
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	19 x 34	105,000	15.9	108.5	1646.8	160	11	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	21 x 35	123,000	15.9	108.5	1885.4	160	11	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	18 1/2 x 34	131,400	15.9	147	1885.4	160	11	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	19 x 34	123,000	15.9	244.3	1672.2	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	19 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	18 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	19 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	18 1/2 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	20 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	30 and 29 x 24	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	30 and 29 x 24	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	13 and 22 x 24	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	13 and 22 x 24	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	30 and 29 x 24	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	21 and 31 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	10 x 35	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	22 x 35	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	19 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	21 x 35	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	20 x 35	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	19 x 34	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	13 and 21 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	30 and 29 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	16 and 27 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	14 and 24 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	12 and 20 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421
C. & N. Y.	1	4	4	4	4	30 and 29 x 25	123,000	15.9	211	1801	180	12	0	0.421	0.421	0.421

Dimensions of Some American Locomotives.—Page 861 is condensed from one given by D. L. Barnes, in the "Distinctive Features and Advantages of American Locomotives," Trans. A.S.C.E., 1893. The formula from which column marked "Cylinder-power to weight available for adhesion" is calculated as follows:

$$2 \times \text{cylinder area} \times \text{boiler-pressure} \times \text{stroke}$$

$$\text{Weight on drivers} \times \text{diameter of driving-wheel}$$

(Ratio of cylinder-power of compound engines cannot be compared to that of the single-expansion engines.)

Where the boiler-pressure could not be determined from the data of the locomotives, as given by the builders and operators of the same, it has been assumed to be 160 lbs. per sq. in. above the atmosphere.

For compound locomotives the figures in the last column of the table are based on the capacity of the low-pressure cylinders only, the volume of the high-pressure being omitted. This has been done for the purpose of comparison, and because there is no accurate simple way of comparing cylinder-power of single-expansion and compound locomotives.

Dimensions of Standard Locomotives on the N. Y. C. & H. R. R., 1882 and 1893.

C. H. Quereau, *Eng'g News*, March 8, 1894

	N. Y. C. & H. R. R.				Pennsylvania R.R.			
	Through Passenger.		Through Freight.		Through Passenger.		Through Freight.	
	1882.	1893.	1882.	1893.	1882.	1893.	1882.	1893.
Grate surface, sq. ft.	17.67	27.3	17.87	25.8	17.8	33.2	21.4	31.4
Heating surface, sq. ft.	1353	1821	1353	1763	1057	1583	1353	1821
Boiler, diam., in.	50	58	50	58	50	57	50	57
Driver, diam., in.	70	78, 86	64	67	62	78	50	57
Steam-pressure, lbs.	150	180	150	160	125	175	150	180
Cylin., diam. and stroke,	17×24	19×24	17×24	19×26	17×24	19×26	17×24	19×26
Valve-travel, ins.	5½	5½	5½	5½	5	5½	5	5
Lead at full gear, ins.	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/16	0	1/16	1/16
Outside lap	¾	1	¾	¾	¾	1	¾	¾
Inside lap or clearance	0	0	1/16	3/32	0	1/16	1/16	1/16
Steam-ports, length,	15½	18	15½	18	16	17½	15½	18
" " width,	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Type of engine	Am.	Am.	Am.	Mog.	Am.	Am.	Am.	Am.

Indicated Water Consumption of Single and Compound Locomotive Engines at Varying Speeds.

C. H. Quereau, *Eng'g News*, March 8, 1894.

Two-cylinder Compound.			Single-expansion.	
Revolutions.	Speed, miles per hour.	Water per I. H. P. per hour.	Revolutions.	Miles per hour.
100 to 150	21 to 31	18.83 lbs.	151	31
150 " 200	31 " 41	18.9 "	219	45
200 " 250	41 " 51	19.7 "	283	52
250 " 275	51 " 58	21.4 "	321	66

It appears that the compound engine is the more economical at low speeds, the economy decreasing as the speed increases, and that the compound increases in economy with increase of speed within ordinary limits, being more economical than the compound at speeds of more than 40 miles per hour.

The C. B. & Q. two-cylinder compound, which was shown to be more economical than simple engines of the same class when tested, has been shown to be 1½ more economical than the simple engines.

le-expansion engine, and 29% more economical than the 40 simple engines of the same class on the same division. **Tests of a Locomotive at High Speed.** (*Locomotive*, 1893.)—Cards were taken by Mr. Angus Sinclair on the Empire State Express.

RESULTS OF INDICATOR-DIAGRAMS.

Miles per hour.	I.H.P.	Card No.	Revs.	Miles. per hour.	I.H.P.
37.1	548.3	7	304	70.5	977
40.8	728	8	296	68.6	972
44	551	9	300	69.6	1,045
58	891	10	304	70.5	1,059
60	960	11	340	78.9	1,120
69	963	12	310	71.9	1,026

was of the eight-wheel type, built by the Schenectady Co. with 19×24 in. cylinders, 78-in. drivers, and a large fire-box, 150.8 sq. ft.; of tubes, 1670.7 sq. ft.; of boiler, 27.3 sq. ft. Fire-box: length, 8 ft.; width, 3 ft. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ in.; outside diameter, 2 in. Ports: steam, 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; exhaust, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. Outside lap, 1 in.; inside lap, 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ in. Piston-rod, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; truck-rod, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.

Weight of four coaches, weighing, with estimated load, 340,000 lbs. Locomotive and tender weighed in working order 300,000 lbs., weight of the train about 270 tons. During the time that the train was being lifted into speed diagram No. 1 was taken. It was found that the cylinder-pressure of 59 lbs. According to this, the power required to move the train is 6553 lbs., or 24 lbs. per ton. The weight of the train is 340,000 lbs. When a speed of nearly 60 miles an hour was reached, the cylinder-pressure is 40.7 lbs., representing a total weight of 13850 lbs., without making deductions for internal friction. For friction, it leaves 15 lbs. per ton to keep the train going. Cards 6, 7, and 8 represent the work of keeping the train at 60 miles an hour. They were taken three miles apart, when the cylinder-pressure was uniform. The average cylinder-pressure for the three cards is 17.6 lbs. per ton. Deducting 10% again for friction, this leaves 17.6 lbs. per ton. The weight of the train is 340,000 lbs. The weight of the water evaporated per lb. of coal. The weight of the train from New York to Albany was done on a coal containing 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per H.P. per hour. The highest power recorded was 1120 H.P.

Testing Apparatus at the Laboratory of the A. S. M. E. (W. F. M. Goss, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xiv, 526.)—The apparatus is mounted with its drivers upon supporting wheels which turn in fixed bearings, thus allowing the engine to revolve in its position as a whole. Load is supplied by four weights hung from the supporting shafts and offering resistance to the supporting wheels. Traction is measured by a dynamometer draw-bar. The boiler is fired in the usual way, and an observer stands above the engine, but not in pipe connection with it, carries the fire given out at the stack.

Method of Conducting Locomotive-tests is given in a report of the A. S. M. E. in vol. xiv, of the Transactions, page 1312. **Efficiency in Locomotives.**—In American practice economy is usually sacrificed to obtain greater economy due to heavy boiler. Barnes, in *Eng. Mag.*, June, 1894, gives a diagram showing efficiency of boilers due to high rates of combustion, from which the following figures are taken:

4 ft. of grate per hour.....	12	40	80	120	160	200
of boiler.....	80	75	67	59	51	43

These figures are given as representing stationary-boiler practice, 40 lbs. per sq. ft. of grate, 130 lbs. average American, and 200 lbs. maximum American practice.

Advantages of Compounding.—Report of a Committee of the Master Mechanics' Association on Compound Locomotives (1890) gives the following summary of the advantages of compounding: (a) It has achieved a saving in the fuel by using reasonable boiler-pressures, with encouraging possibility

of further improvement in pressure and in fuel and water economy has lessened the amount of water (dead weight) to be hauled, so the tender and its load are materially reduced in weight. (4) It has the possibilities of speed far beyond 60 miles per hour, without straining the motion, frames, axles, or axle-boxes of the engine. (5) It has increased the haulage-power at full speed, or, in other words, has increased the continuous H.P. developed, per given weight of engine and boiler. (6) It has increased the starting-power. (7) It has materially reduced the slide-valve friction per H.P. developed. (8) It has equalized the turning force on the crank-pin, over a longer portion of the stroke, which, of course, tends to lengthen the repair life of the engine. (9) In the two-cylinder type it has decreased the oil consumption, and has done so in the Woolf four-cylinder engine. (10) Its smoother and steadier action on the fire is favorable to the combustion of all kinds of soft coal, the sparks thrown being smaller and less in number, it lessens the liability from destruction by fire. (11) These advantages are easily gained without having to improve the man handling the engine, or to leave it to his discretion (or careless indifference) than in the simple type. Valve motion, of every locomotive type, can be used in its best and most effective position. (12) A wider elasticity in locomotive design is permitted; as, if desired, side-rods can be dispensed with, or articulated, and 100 tons weight, with independent trucks, used for sharp curves in main service, as suggested by Mallet and Brunner.

Of 37 compound locomotives in use on the Phila. and Reading R.R. (1892), 12 are in use on heavy mountain grades, and are designed to be equivalent of 22 x 24 in. simple consolidations; 10 are in service on main line service and correspond to 20 x 24 in. consolidations; 5 are in fast passenger service. The monthly coal record shows:

Class of Engine.	No.	Coal Consumed
Mountain locomotives.	12	235,500
Heavy freight service.	10	135,100
Fast passenger.	5	90,000

(Report of Com. A. R. M. M. Assn. 1892.) For a description of the types of compound locomotive, with discussion of their relative merits, see paper by A. Von Borries, of Germany, The Development of the Compound Locomotive, Trans. A. S. M. E. 1893, vol. xiv, p. 1172.

Counterbalancing Locomotives. The following rules, given by different locomotive-builders, are quoted in a paper by D. K. Clark (Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 902):

A. "For the main drivers, place opposite the crank pin a weight equal to one half the weight of the back end of the connecting-rod plus one half the weight of the front end of the connecting-rod, piston, piston-rod, and cross-head. For balancing the coupled wheels, place a weight opposite the crank pin equal to one half the parallel rod plus one half of the weight of the front end of the main-rod, piston, piston-rod, and cross-head. The center of gravity of the above weights must be at the same distance from the axis as the crank-pin."

B. The rule given by D. K. Clark: "Find the separate revolving weights of the crank-pin boss, coupling-rods, and connecting-rods for each wheel. Take the reciprocating weight of the piston and appendages, and one half the weight of the connecting-rod, divide the reciprocating weight equally between the two wheels, and add the part so allotted to the revolving weight on each wheel. The sums thus obtained are the weights to be placed opposite the crank-pin at the same distance from the axis. To find the counterweight to be placed when the distance of its center of gravity is known, multiply the revolving weight by the length of the crank in inches and divide by the distance." This rule differs from the preceding in that the same weight is placed in each wheel.

C. " $W = \frac{S \times (w - \frac{w}{f})}{G}$, in which S = one half the stroke, G =

distance from centre of wheel to centre of gravity in counterbalancing weight, w = weight of crank-pin to be balanced, W = weight in counterbalance. The factor f is the fraction so called, = 5 in ordinary practice. The reciprocating weight is found by adding together the weights of the piston, piston-rod, and one half of the main-rod. The revolving weight is found by adding together the weights of the crank-pin boss,

It, and one half of each parallel-rod connecting to this is the reciprocating weight divided by the number of driving weight for the remainder of the wheels is found in it as for the main wheel, except one half of the main rod is weight of the crank-pin hub and the counterbalance does eight of the spokes, but of the metal inclosing them. This is for one cylinder and its corresponding wheels."

As nearly as possible the weights of crank-pin, additional boss for the same, add side rod, and main connections, add, with cross-head on one side; the sum of these multi-plied by the distance from the centre of the crank-pin to the centre of the wheel, divided by the distance from the centre of the wheel to the centre of gravity of the counterweights, is taken for the total weight of the side rod and connections on that side of the locomotive which is to be divided among the wheels on that side."

the wheels of the locomotive with a weight equal to the pin, crank-pin hub, main and parallel rods, brasses, etc., the weight of the reciprocating parts (cross-head, piston

weights of the revolving parts which are attached to exactness, and divide equally two thirds of the weights of parts between all the wheels. One half of the main rod is rotating, and the other as revolving weight."

on Counterbalancing Locomotives, in *R. R. & Eng. Jour.*, 1890, and a paper by W. F. M. Goss, in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*

Safe Load for Steel Tires on Steel Rails.—Mr. Chanute's experiments led to the deduction that the limit of load for any one driving-wheel. Mr. Chanute's figure of 12,000 lbs., and says that which has a light load on it is more injurious to the rail than a heavy load. In English practice 8 and 10 tons are used for cam-rollers 4 in. diameter, which stood well under loads of from 10,000 to 20,000 lbs. Mr. Smith proposed a formula for the rolls of a pivot-bridge reduced to the form: $\text{Load} = 1760 \times \text{face} \times \sqrt{\text{diam.}}$, all in

of some large American locomotives on pages 800 and 801. The load on each driving-wheel is 17,000 lbs., and on the

re Railways in Manufacturing Works.—Inches gauge, several miles in length, is in the works of the Yorkshire Railway. Curves of 13 feet radius are used, and have the following dimensions (Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1886): wheels 6 in diameter with 6 in stroke and 2 ft. 3½ in

7. Fire gun; barrel with 6 ft. diameter, 30 ft. long; heating coils, 8 ft. dia., 12 ft. long; 8 in. outside diameter, 36 ft. long; boiler, 36 ft. dia. in long, and the extreme width of the engine of steel, 2 ft. 8 in. outside diameter and 2 ft. long between lining 56 tubes of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. outside diameter; the fire-box, of al., 2 ft. 3 in. long and 17 in. inside diameter. The heating- 2 ft. in the fire-box and 36 12 in the tubes, total 46.51 sq. ft.; 8 sq. ft.; capacity of tank, 264 gallons; working pressure, 10 lbs.; effective power, say, 1412 lbs., or @ 29 lbs. per lb. of effec- ing in, on the piston. Weight, when empty, 2.80 tons; working order, 3.19 tons.

of a system of narrow-gauge railways for manufactories,
I. C. W. Hunt Co., New York.

motives.—For dimensions of light locomotives used for, or much valuable information concerning them, see cataloger & Co., Pittsburgh.

Turning Locomotives. (From Clark's Steam-
 eation of petroleum refuse in locomotives has been success-
 Mr. Thos. Urquhart, on the Grazi and Tsaritsin Railway.
 Since November, 1884, the whole stock of 148 loc-
 mitive has been fired with petroleum refuse.
 le through a tubular opening in the back of
 steam, with an induced current of air.
 or 'regenerative or accumulative comb
 fire-box, into which the combined curr

spray against the rugged brickwork slope. In this arrangement the work is maintained at a white heat, and combustion is complete and less. The form, mass, and dimensions of the brickwork are the important elements in such a combination.

Compressed air was tried instead of steam for injection, but no appreciable reduction in consumption of fuel was noticed.

The heating power of petroleum refuse is given as 19,632 Btu. equivalent to the evaporation of 30.53 lbs. of water from and at 212° F. 17.1 lbs. at $\frac{1}{2}$ atmosphere, or 125 lbs. per sq. in., effective pressure. The highest evaporative duty was 14 lbs. of water under $\frac{1}{2}$ atmosphere of the fuel, or nearly 8% efficiency.

There is no probability of any extensive use of petroleum as fuel in locomotives in the United States, on account of the unlimited supply of the comparatively limited supply of petroleum.

Fireless Locomotive.—The principle of the Franco locomotive that it depends for the supply of steam on its spontaneous generation of a body of heated water in a reservoir. As steam is generated and off the pressure falls; but by providing a sufficiently large volume of water heated to a high temperature, at a pressure correspondingly high, a surplus pressure may be secured, and means may thus be provided for supplying the required quantity of steam for the trip.

The fireless locomotive designed for the service of the Metropolitan Railway of Paris has a cylindrical reservoir having segmental ends, 47 in. in diameter, 26 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. in length, with a capacity of about 630 cu. ft. Four-fifths of the capacity is occupied by water, which is heated by a powerful jet of steam supplied from stationary boilers. The heated water until equilibrium is established between the boilers and the reservoir. The temperature is raised to about 320° F., corresponding to 160 lb. per sq. in. The steam from the reservoir is passed through a valve, by which the steam is reduced to the required pressure. It is then passed through a tubular superheater situated within the reservoir in the upper part, and thence through the ordinary regulator to the cylinder. The exhaust-steam is expanded to a low pressure, in order to obtain a free escape. In certain cases the exhaust-steam is condensed in vessels, which are only in part filled with water. In the upper part of the pipe is placed, into which the steam is exhausted. Within this pipe a smaller pipe is fixed, perforated, from which cold water is projected into the surrounding steam, so as to effect the condensation as completely as possible. The heated water falls on an inclined plane, and flows off without mixing with the cold water. The condensing water is circulated by means of a centrifugal pump driven by a small three cylinder engine.

In working off the steam from a pressure of 225 lbs. to 67 lbs. 100 feet of water at 300° F. is sufficient for the traction of the train, for the circulating pump for the condensers, for the brakes, and for the lighting of the train. At the stations the locomotive takes from 200 to 300 lbs. of steam—nearly the same as the weight of steam consumed in running between two consecutive charging stations. There is 210 cu. ft. of condensing water. Taking the initial temperature at 60° F. the temperature rises to about 180° F. after the longest runs underground.

The locomotive has ten wheels, on a base 24 ft. long, of which the four coupled wheels are 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. in diameter. The extreme wheels are on radial axles. The cylinders are 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter, with a stroke of 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.

The engine weighs, in working order, 53 tons, of which 36 tons are on the four coupled wheels. The speed varies from 15 miles to 25 miles per hour. The trains weigh about 140 tons.

Compressed-air Locomotives.—For an account of the system of compressed-air locomotives see page 509, ante.

SHAFTING.

also TORSIONAL STRENGTH; also SHAFTS OF STEEL (CONT'D.)

shafts to resist torsional strains only. Moirsworth gives

in which d = diameter in inches, P = turning force in pounds

the end of a lever-arm whose length is l in inches, K = a coefficient. The values are, for cast iron 1000, wrought iron 1700, cast steel 2200, and 400, brass 425, copper 500, tin 25, lead 75. The value given for probably applies only to high-carbon steel.

gives:

shafts well against	{	$H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{105}; d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{105 H.P.}{R}}, \text{ for iron;}$
		$H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{75}; d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{75 H.P.}{R}}, \text{ for cold-rolled iron.}$
no shafting, ft. apart:	{	$H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{90}; d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{90 H.P.}{R}}, \text{ for iron;}$
		$H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{55}; d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{55 H.P.}{R}}, \text{ for cold-rolled iron.}$
transmission sim- pleys:	{	$H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{62.5}; d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{62.5 H.P.}{R}}, \text{ for iron;}$
		$H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{35}; d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{35 H.P.}{R}}, \text{ for cold-rolled iron.}$

power transmitted, d = diameter of shaft in inches, R = rev-
w minute.

gives for turned-iron shafting $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{100 H.P.}{R}}.$

and Laughlin give the same formulæ as Prof. Thurston, with the
exceptions: For line shafting, hangers 8 ft. apart:

cold-rolled iron, $H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{50}, d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{50 H.P.}{R}}.$

ly transmitting power and short counters:

turned iron, $H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{50}, d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{50 H.P.}{R}};$

cold-rolled iron, $H.P. = \frac{d^3 R}{30}, d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{30 H.P.}{R}}.$

o give the following notes: Receiving and transmitting pulleys
be placed as close to bearings as possible; and it is g
short "headers" between the main tie-beams of o
the main receivers, carried by the head shafts, with
side as is contemplated in the formulæ. But if it i
for the shaft to span the full width of the "bay"

intermediate bearings, or for the pulley to be placed away from towards or at the middle of the bay, the size of the shaft is increased to secure the stiffness necessary to support the load due deflection. Shafts may not deflect more than 1/80 of an foot of clear length with safety.

To find the diameter of shaft necessary to carry safely the load at the centre of a bay: Multiply the fourth power of the diameter above formulae by the length of the "bay," and divide this by the distance from centre to centre of the bearings when the shaft is required by the formula. The fourth root of this quotient is the diameter required.

The following table, computed by this rule, is practically con-

Diameter of Shaft given by the Formulae for Head Shafts.	Diameter of Shaft necessary to carry the Load at the Centre of a Bay, which is from Centre to Centre of Bearings.					
	2½ ft.	3 ft.	3½ ft.	4 ft.	5 ft.	6 ft.
in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.
2	2½	3¼	3¾	4¼	5½	6¾
2½	3	3¾	4¼	5	6¼	7¾
3	3½	4¼	5	5¾	7	8¾
3½	4	4¾	5¾	6¼	7¾	9¾
4	4½	5¼	6¼	7	8¼	10¾
4½	5	5¾	6¾	7¾	9¼	11¾
5	5½	6¼	7¼	8¼	10¼	12¾
5½	6	6¾	7¾	9	11¼	13¾
6	6½	7¼	8¼	9¾	12¼	14¾

As the strain upon a shaft from a load upon it is proper product of the parts of the shaft multiplied into each other, should the load be applied near one end of the span or bay from centre, multiply the fourth power of the diameter of the shaft to carry the load at the centre of the span or bay by the product of the parts of the shaft when the load is near one end, and divide the product of the two parts of the shaft when the load is at the centre. The fourth root of this quotient will be the diameter required.

The shaft in a line which carries a receiving-pulley, or a transmitting-pulley to drive another line, should always be a head shaft, and should be of the size given by the rules for main pulleys or gears.

Deflection of Shafting. (Pencoyd Iron Works.)—As the deflection of steel and iron is practically alike under similar conditions and loads, and as shafting is usually determined by its transverse strength rather than its ultimate strength, nearly the same dimensions may be used for steel as for iron.

For continuous line-shafting it is considered good practice to allow a deflection to a maximum of 1/100 of an inch per foot of length of bare shafting in pounds = $2.6d^2L = W$, or when as fully loaded shafting as is customary in practice, and allowing 40 lbs. per ft. for the vertical pull of the belts, experience shows the load to be about $13d^2L = W$. Taking the modulus of transverse elasticity as 13,000 lbs., we derive from authoritative formulae the following:

$$L = \frac{W}{2.6d^2}, d = \sqrt[4]{\frac{L^3}{873}} \text{ for bare shafting;}$$

$$L = \frac{W}{176d^2}, d = \sqrt[4]{\frac{L^3}{176}} \text{ for shafting carrying pulleys}$$

L being the maximum distance in feet between bearings, and d the diameter in inches. The stress is inversely proportional to the length of the shaft, and the stress will not be reduced in the same proportion as the length. To write a formula covering the whole

simple for practical application, but the following rules are correct for the range of velocities used in practice, continuous shafting so proportioned as to deflect not more than 1/100 inch per foot of length, allowance being made for the weakening of key-seats,

$$L = \sqrt[3]{\frac{50 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}, \quad L = \sqrt[3]{700d^2}, \text{ for bare shafts;}$$

$$L = \sqrt[3]{\frac{10 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}, \quad L = \sqrt[3]{140d^2}, \text{ for shafts carrying pulleys, etc.}$$

d , in inches, L = length in feet, R = revs. per min.

The following table (by J. B. Francis) gives the greatest admissible distance between the bearings of continuous shafts subject to no transverse stress except from their own weight, as would be the case were the power on from the shaft equal on all sides, and at an equal distance from roller-bearings.

Diam. of Shaft, in inches.	Distance between Bearings, in ft.		Diam. of Shaft, in inches.	Distance between Bearings, in ft.	
	Wrought-iron Shafts.	Steel Shafts.		Wrought-iron Shafts.	Steel Shafts.
6	15.45	15.80	6	22.30	22.92
7	17.70	18.19	7	23.48	24.13
8	19.48	20.02	8	24.55	25.23
9	20.99	21.57	9	25.53	26.24

These conditions, however, do not usually obtain in the transmission of power by belts and pulleys, and the varying circumstances of each case make it impracticable to give any rule which would be of value for universal application.

For example, the theoretical requirements would demand that the bearings be nearer together on those sections of shafting where most power is derived from the shaft, while considerations as to the location and proximity of the driven machines may render it impracticable to locate the driving pulleys by the intervention of a hanger at the theoretically required location. (Joshua Rose.)

Power Transmitted by Turned Iron Shafting at Different Speeds.

TIME MOVER OR HEAD SHAFT CARRYING MAIN DRIVING PULLEY OR GEAR, WELL SUPPORTED BY BEARINGS. Formula: $\text{H.P.} = d^2/R + 125$.

Number of Revolutions per Minute.

80	80	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300
H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
2.6	3.4	4.3	5.4	6.4	7.5	8.6	9.7	10.7	11.8	12.9
8.8	5.1	6.4	8	9.6	11.2	12.8	14.4	16	17.6	19.2
5.4	7.3	8.1	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
7.5	10	12.5	15	18	22	25	28	31	34	37
10	13	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
13	17	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
16	22	27	34	40	47	54	61	67	74	81
20	27	34	42	51	59	68	76	85	93	102
25	33	42	52	63	73	84	94	105	115	126
30	41	51	64	76	89	102	115	127	140	153
35	53	63	80	108	126	144	162	180	198	216
40	60	72	90	115	140	165	190	215	240	265
45	68	82	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275
50	76	92	110	135	165	195	225	255	285	315
55	84	102	120	145	175	205	235	265	295	325
60	92	110	130	155	185	215	245	275	305	335
65	100	120	140	165	195	225	255	285	315	345
70	108	130	150	175	205	235	265	295	325	355

AS SECOND MOVERS OR LINE-SHAFTING, BEARINGS 8 FT. APART.
Formula: $H.P. = d^3 R + 90$.

Diam. of Shaft.	Number of Revolutions per Minute.											
	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350	375
Ins.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
12	6	7.4	8.9	10.4	11.9	13.4	14.9	16.4	17.9	19.4	20.9	22.4
13	7.3	9.1	10.9	12.7	14.5	16.3	18.2	20	21.8	23.6	25.4	27.2
14	8.0	11.1	13.3	15.5	17.7	20	22.2	24.4	26.6	28.8	31	33.2
15	10.6	13.2	15.9	18.5	21.2	23.8	26.5	29.1	31.8	34.4	37	39.6
16	12.6	15.8	19	22	25	28	31	35	38	41	44	47
17	15	18	22	26	29	33	37	41	44	48	52	55
18	17	21	26	30	34	39	43	47	51	55	59	63
19	23	29	34	40	46	52	58	64	69	75	80	85
20	30	37	45	52	60	67	75	82	90	97	104	111
21	38	47	57	66	76	85	95	104	114	123	133	142
22	47	59	71	83	95	107	119	131	143	155	167	178
23	58	73	88	102	117	132	146	162	176	190	204	218
24	71	89	107	125	142	160	178	196	214	232	250	268

FOR SIMPLY TRANSMITTING POWER.
Formula: $H.P. = d^3 R + 50$.

Diam. of Shaft.	Number of Revolutions per Minute.											
	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350	375
Ins.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
12	6.7	8.4	10.1	11.8	13.5	15.7	17.9	20.3	22.8	25.3	27.8	30.3
13	8.0	10.7	12.8	15	17.1	20	22.8	25.8	28.8	31.8	34.8	37.8
14	10.7	13.4	16	18.7	21.5	25	28	32	35	38	42	45
15	13.2	16.5	19.7	23	26.4	31	35	39	44	48	52	56
16	16	20	24	28	32	37	42	48	53	58	63	68
17	19	24	29	33	38	44	51	57	63	69	75	81
18	22	28	34	39	45	52	60	68	75	82	90	97
19	27	33	40	47	55	62	70	79	88	97	106	115
20	31	39	47	54	62	71	81	91	101	111	121	131
21	41	52	62	73	83	97	111	125	139	153	167	181
22	54	67	81	94	108	126	144	162	180	198	216	234
23	68	86	103	120	137	156	182	208	234	260	286	312
24	85	107	128	150	171	194	228	257	285	313	341	369

Horse-power Transmitted by Cold-rolled Iron Shafts at Different Speeds.

AS PRIME MOVER OR HEAD SHAFT CARRYING MAIN DRIVING GEAR, WELL SUPPORTED BY BEARINGS. Formula: $H.P. = d^3 R + 30$.

Diam. of Shaft.	Number of Revolutions per Minute.											
	60	80	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325
Ins.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
12	2.7	3.6	4.5	5.6	6.7	7.9	9.0	10	11	12	13	14
13	4.3	5.6	7.1	8.2	10.6	12.4	14.2	16	18	19	21	23
14	6.4	8.5	10.7	13	16	19	21	24	26	28	30	32
15	9	12	15	19	23	26	30	34	38	42	45	48
16	12	17	21	26	31	36	41	47	52	57	62	67
17	16	22	27	35	41	48	55	62	70	78	85	92
18	21	29	36	45	54	63	72	81	90	99	108	117
19	27	36	45	57	68	80	91	102	114	125	136	147
20	34	45	57	71	83	100	114	130	146	162	178	194
21	42	56	70	87	105	123	140	160	179	198	217	236
22	51	67	85	106	128	149	170	192	215	238	261	284
23	61	80	101	124	148	172	197	223	250	277	304	331
24	73	95	121	147	174	202	232	263	295	327	359	391

SECOND MOVERS OR LINE-SHAFTING, BEARINGS 8 FT. APART.

Formula: $H.P. = d^3 R + 50$.

Number of Revolutions per Minute.

	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350
P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
10	8.4	10.1	11.8	13.5	15.2	16.8	18.5	20.2	21.9	23.6
15	10.7	12.8	15	17.1	19.3	21.5	23.6	25.7	27.9	30.1
20	13.4	16	18.7	21.5	24.2	26.8	29.5	32.1	34.8	37.5
25	16.5	19.7	23	26.4	29.6	32.9	36.2	39.5	42.8	46
30	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56
35	24	29	33	38	43	48	52	57	62	67
40	28	34	39	45	50	56	61	68	74	80
45	33	40	47	53	60	67	73	80	86	91
50	39	47	54	62	69	78	86	93	101	109
55	42	52	62	73	83	93	104	114	125	135
60	47	58	69	80	91	102	113	124	135	146
65	52	64	76	88	100	112	124	136	148	160
70	57	70	83	96	109	122	135	148	161	174
75	62	76	90	104	118	132	146	160	174	188
80	67	82	97	112	127	142	157	172	187	202
85	72	88	104	120	136	152	168	184	200	216
90	77	94	111	128	146	164	182	200	218	236
95	82	100	118	136	155	174	193	212	231	250
100	87	106	125	145	165	185	205	225	245	265
105	92	112	131	151	172	193	214	235	256	277
110	97	118	136	157	179	201	223	245	267	289

FOR SIMPLY TRANSMITTING POWER AND SHORT COUNTERS.

Formula: $H.P. = d^3 R + 30$.

Number of Revolutions per Minute.

	125	150	175	200	225	250	300	333	377	400
P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
10	8.1	9.7	11.3	13	15.2	17.4	19.5	21.7	23.9	26
15	10.7	12.8	15	17	19.8	22.7	25.5	28.4	31	34
20	14	16.8	19.6	22.5	26	30	33	37	41	45
25	17.7	21.2	24.8	28.4	33	38	43	47	52	57
30	22	27	31	35	41	47	53	59	65	71
35	27	33	38	44	51	58	65	72	79	87
40	33	40	46	53	62	71	80	88	97	106
45	40	47	55	63	73	84	95	105	116	127
50	47	57	68	78	89	101	114	127	139	152
55	55	66	77	88	101	113	127	141	155	170
60	63	76	91	104	121	138	155	172	190	207
65	72	86	101	118	136	154	173	193	214	235
70	81	97	113	131	150	170	191	212	234	257
75	90	108	126	145	166	187	209	231	254	277
80	100	119	139	160	182	205	229	253	278	302
85	110	131	152	174	197	221	246	271	297	322
90	120	143	166	189	213	238	264	290	317	344
95	130	155	180	204	230	256	283	311	339	367
100	140	167	193	219	246	273	301	330	359	388

KIND OF SHAFTING.—Machine shops 120 to 160

Wood-working 250 to 300

Cotton and woollen mills 300 to 400

In some factories lines 1000 ft. long, the power being applied at one end.

or Shafts.—Let d be the diameter of a solid shaft, and d_1, d_2 the external and internal diameters of a hollow shaft of the same material.Hollow shafts will be of equal torsional strength when $d^3 = \frac{d_1^4 - d_2^4}{4}$.

A hollow shaft with internal diameter of 4 inches will weigh 10% less than a solid 10-inch shaft, but its strength will be only 2.5% less. If the hole is increased to 5 inches diameter the weight would be 25% less than that of a solid shaft, and the strength 1.25% less.

for Laying Out Shafting.—The table on the opposite page, *Spencer's Indicator*, April, 1892) is used by Wm. Sellers & Co. for laying out of shafting.

The cuts at the head of this table show the position of shafts of couplings, either for the case of extension in both directions or extension in one direction from the

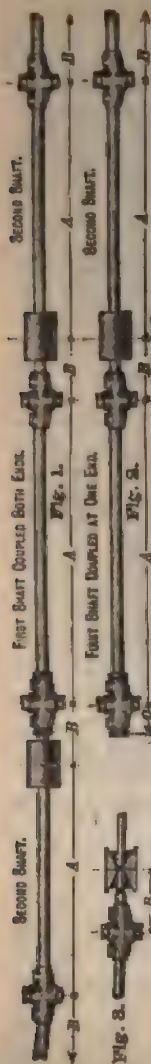


Table for Laying Out Shafting.

Length of Coupling for 1st Shaft, in.	Nominal Size of 1st Shaft, in.	1 1/2"	1 3/4"	2"	2 1/4"	2 3/4"	3"	3 1/4"	4"	4 1/2"	5"	5 1/2"	6"	6 1/2"	7"	7 1/2"	8"	Length of Box, in.	Length of Shaft, in.	Double Coupling, in.	Double Coupling, in.	Double Coupling, in.
1 1/2"	1 1/2"	1 1/2"	1 3/4"	2"	2 1/4"	2 3/4"	3"	3 1/4"	4"	4 1/2"	5"	5 1/2"	6"	6 1/2"	7"	7 1/2"	8"	6	12	12	12	12
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8	16	16	16	16
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	9	18	18	18	18
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	20	20	20	20
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	11	22	22	22	22
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	12	24	24	24	24
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	13	26	26	26	26
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	14	28	28	28	28
11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	15	30	30	30	30
12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	16	32	32	32	32
13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	17	34	34	34	34
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	18	36	36	36	36
15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	19	38	38	38	38
16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	40	40	40	40
17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	21	42	42	42	42
18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	22	44	44	44	44
19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	23	46	46	46	46
20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	24	48	48	48	48
21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	25	50	50	50	50
22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	26	52	52	52	52
23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	27	54	54	54	54
24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	28	56	56	56	56
25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	29	58	58	58	58
26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	30	60	60	60	60
27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	31	62	62	62	62
28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	32	64	64	64	64
29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	33	66	66	66	66
30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	34	68	68	68	68
31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	35	70	70	70	70
32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	36	72	72	72	72
33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	37	74	74	74	74
34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	38	76	76	76	76
35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	39	78	78	78	78
36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	40	80	80	80	80
37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	41	82	82	82	82
38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	42	84	84	84	84
39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	43	86	86	86	86
40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	44	88	88	88	88
41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	45	90	90	90	90
42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	46	92	92	92	92
43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	47	94	94	94	94
44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	48	96	96	96	96
45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	49	98	98	98	98
46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	50	100	100	100	100
47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	51	102	102	102	102
48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	52	104	104	104	104
49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	49	53	106	106	106	106
50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	54	108	108	108	108
51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	55	110	110	110	110
52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	56	112	112	112	112
53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	57	114	114	114	114
54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	58	116	116	116	116
55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	55	59	118	118	118	118
56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	60	120	120	120	120
57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	61	122	122	122	122
58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	62	124	124	124	124
59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	59	63	126	126	126	126
60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	64	128	128	128	128
61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	61	65	130	130	130	130
62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	66	132	132	132	132
63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	67	134	134	134	134
64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	68	136	136	136	136
65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	69	138	138	138	138
66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	70	140	140	140	140
67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	71	142	142	142	142
68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	68	72	144	144	144	144
69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	73	146	146	146	146
70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	74	148	148	148	148
71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	75	150	150	150	150
72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	76	152	152	152	152
73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	77	154	154	154	154
74	74	74																				

PULLEYS.

Proportions of Pulleys. (See also Fly-wheels, pages 820 to 823.)—
 Number of arms, N = diameter of pulley, S = thickness of belt, t =
 of rim at edge, T = thickness in middle, B = width of rim, β =
 belt, h = breadth of arm at hub, h_1 = breadth of arm at rim, e =
 of arm at hub, e_1 = thickness of arm at rim, c = amount of crow-
 ns in inches.

	Unwin.	Reuleaux.
of rim.....	$9/8 (\beta + 0.4)$	$9/8 \beta$ to $5/4 \beta$
ness at edge of rim	$0.7S + .005D$	$\frac{1}{4}$ (thick. of rim.)
" middle of rim.....	$2t + c$	$1/8 h$ to $1/4 h$
th of arm at hub.....	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{For single} \\ \text{belts} = .6337 \sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}} \end{array} \right.$	$\frac{1/4''}{4} + \frac{B}{4} + \frac{D}{20n}$
" " " rim.....	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{For double} \\ \text{belts} = .708 \sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}} \end{array} \right.$	
ness of arm at hub.....	$2/3 h$	$0.8 h$
" " " rim.....	$0.4 h$	$0.5 h$
er of arms, for a } ...	$3 + \frac{BD}{150}$	$1/2 (5 + \frac{D}{2B})$
to set,		
h of hub	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{not less than } 2.5S, \text{ if } B \text{ for sin. arm pulleys.} \\ \text{is often } 2/3 B. \end{array} \right.$	
ness of metal in hub.....		h to $3/4 h$
ing of pulley.....	$1/24 B$	

Number of arms is really arbitrary, and may be altered if necessary.

With two or three sets of arms may be considered as two or three pulleys combined in one, except that the proportions of the arms 0.8 or 0.7 time that of single-arm pulleys. (Reuleaux.)

Reuleaux.—Dimensions of a pulley 60" diam., 18" face, for double belt $1/2''$

on by....	n	h	h_1	e	e_1	t	T	L	M	c
g.....	9	3.79	2.58	1.52	1.01	.65	1.97	10.7	3.8	.67

Following proportions are given in an article in the *Amer. Machinist*, not stated:

$$BD + .5 \text{ in.}, h_1 = .04D + 3.125 \text{ in.}, e = .036D + .2 \text{ in.}, e_1 = .016D +$$

For the above example: $h = 4.25 \text{ in.}, h_1 = 2.71 \text{ in.}, e = 1.7 \text{ in.}$

The section of the arms in all cases is taken as elliptical. Following solution for breadth of arm is proposed by the author: belt pull of 45 lbs. per inch of width of a single belt, that the tin is taken in equal proportions on one half of the arms, and that a beam loaded at one end and fixed at the other. We have the

for a beam of elliptical section $fP = .0983 \frac{Rbd^3}{l}$, in which P = the

the modulus of rupture of the cast iron, h = breadth, d = depth, length of the beam, and f = factor of safety. Assume a modulus of 30,000 lbs., a factor of safety of 10, and an additional allow safety in taking $l = 1/4$ the diameter of the pulley instead of $1/4$ of arms of the hub.

Let h , the breadth of the arm at the hub, and $b = e = 0.4h$, the

We then have $fP = 10 \times \frac{45B}{n+2} = 900 \frac{B}{n} = \frac{45 \times 5 \times 0.4h^3}{1/4 D}$, whence

$$\frac{D}{h} = .633 \sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}}, \text{ which is practically the same as } \frac{D}{h} = .633 \sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}},$$

Unwin from a different set of assumptions.

Convexity of Pulleys.—Authorities differ. Morin gives a rise to 1/10 of the face; Molesworth, 1/24; others from 1/8 to 1/16. Smith says the crown should not be over 1/8 inch for a 24-inch face. For shifting belts should be "straight," that is, without crowing.

CONE OR STEP PULLEYS.

To find the diameters for the several steps of a pair of cone pulleys.

1. **Crossed Belts.**—Let D and d be the diameters of two pulleys connected by a crossed belt, L = the distance between their centres, the angle either half of the belt makes with a line joining the centres of pulleys: then total length of belt = $(D + d) \frac{\pi}{2} + (D + d) \frac{\pi \beta}{180} + 2L \sin \beta$

β = angle whose sine is $\frac{D+d}{2L}$. $\cos \beta = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{D+d}{2L}\right)^2}$. The length

of the belt is constant when $D + d$ is constant; that is, in a pair of cone-pulleys the belt tension will be uniform when the sum of the diameters of each opposite pair of steps is constant. Crossed belts are seldom used on cone-pulleys, on account of the friction between the rubbing parts of the belt.

To design a pair of tapering speed-cones, so that the belt will be equally tight in all positions: When the belt is crossed, use a pair of similar cones tapering opposite ways.

2. **Open Belts.**—When the belt is uncrossed, use a pair of similar cones tapering opposite ways, and bulging in the middle, giving to the following formula: Let L denote the distance between the centres of the conoids; R the radius of the larger end of each; r the radius of the smaller end; then the radius in the middle, r_0 , is found as follows:

$$r_0 = \frac{R+r}{2} + \frac{(R-r)^2}{6.28L}. \quad (\text{Rankine.})$$

If D_0 = the diameter of equal steps of a pair of cone-pulleys, D and d the diameters of unequal opposite steps, and L = distance between axes, $D_0 = \frac{D+d}{2} + \frac{(D-d)^2}{12.56L}$.

If a series of differences of radii of the steps, $R - r$, be assumed for each pair of steps $\frac{R+r}{2} = r_0 - \frac{(R-r)^2}{6.28L}$, and the radii of each computed from their half sum and half difference, as follows:

$$R = \frac{R+r}{2} + \frac{R-r}{2}; \quad r = \frac{R+r}{2} - \frac{R-r}{2}.$$

A. J. Frith (Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 298) shows the following application of Rankine's method: If we had a set of cones to design, the extreme diameters of which, including thickness of belt, were 40" and 10", and the desired 4, 3, 2, and 1, we would make a table as follows, L being 10

Trial Sum of $D+d$.	Ratio.	Trial Diameters.		Values of $\frac{(D-d)^2}{12.56L}$	Amount to be Added.	Corrected D
		D	d			
50	4	40	10	.7165	.0000	40
40	3	27.5	12.5	.4975	.2190	37.7190
30	2	23.833	16.666	.2212	.4953	33.9530
20	1	25	25	.0000	.7165	25.7165

The above formulae are approximate, and they do not give satisfactory results when the difference of diameters of opposite steps is large, or the axes of the pulleys are near together, giving a large belt angle. The following more accurate solution of the problem is given by Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 299, (Fig. 152):

Draw AB the centre distance CO or OE , and draw the circles to the diameters of the pulleys, which are always perpendicular to AB . Draw HI tangent to the circles to CO , also to the circles to OE . From R and F , erect the perpendicular RI , making

CONE OR STEP PULLEYS.

$EG = .314C$. With G as a centre, draw a circle tangent to BE . This circle will be outside of the belt-line, as in the old, but when C is small the first pulleys D_1 and d_1 are large and fall on the lower of the line. The belt-line of any other pair of pulleys could be tangent to the circle G ; hence any line, as JK or LM , draw a tangent to the circle G , will

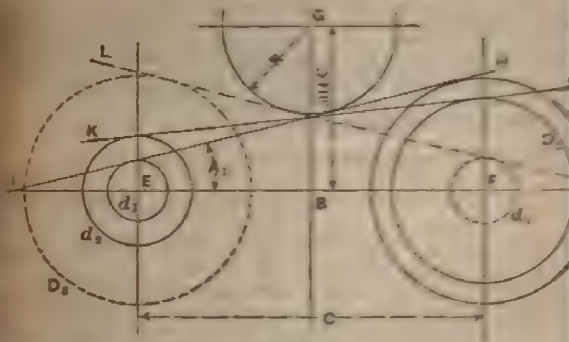


FIG. 132.

the diameters D_2, d_2 or D_3, d_3 of the pulleys drawn tangent to them from the centres E and F .

The above method is to be used when the belt-angle A does not exceed 18° . When it is between 18° and 30° a slight modification is necessary. In addition to the point G , locate another point G' on the line BE above B . Draw a tangent line to the circle G , making an angle of 18° with the line of centres EF and from the point G' draw an arc tangent to the tangent line. All belt lines with angles greater than 18° are tangent to this arc. The following is the summary of Mr. Smith's mathematical formulae:

- A = angle in degrees between the centre line and the belt of any pulleys;
- $\alpha = .314$ for belt-angles less than 18° and $.39$ for angles between 18° and 30° ;
- B° = an angle depending on the velocity ratio;
- C = the centre distance of the two pulleys;
- D, d = diameters of the larger and smaller of the pair of pulleys;
- E° = an angle depending on B° ;
- L = the length of the belt when drawn tight around the pulleys;
- $r = D + d$, or the velocity ratio, larger divided by smaller.

$$(1) \sin A = \frac{D - d}{2C}; \quad \tan B^\circ = \frac{2\alpha r - 1}{r - 1};$$

$$(2) \sin E^\circ = \sin B^\circ \left(\cos A - \frac{D - d}{4\alpha C} \right);$$

$$(3) A = B^\circ - E^\circ \text{ when } \sin E^\circ \text{ is positive; } = B^\circ + E^\circ \text{ when } \sin E^\circ \text{ is negative;}$$

$$(4) d = \frac{2C \sin A}{r - 1}; \quad = .3155 L - 2C \text{ when } A = 0 \text{ and } r = 1;$$

$$(5) L = \pi d;$$

$$(6) L = 2C \cos A + .01745d[180 + (r - 1)90 + A];$$

Equation (1) is used only once for any pair of cones to obtain $\cos A$, by the aid of tables of sines and cosines, for use in eq.

BELTING.

Theory of Belts and Bands.—A pulley is driven by a belt by means of the friction between the surfaces in contact. Let T_1 be the tension on the driving side of the belt, T_2 the tension on the loose side, then $T_1 - T_2$ is the total friction between the band and the pulley, which is equal to the tractive or driving force. Let f = the coefficient of friction, θ the angle of the length of the arc of contact to the length of the radius, α = the angle of the arc of contact in degrees, e = the base of the Napierian logarithm = 2.71828, m = the modulus of the common logarithm = 0.004343, the following formulæ are derived by calculus (Rankine's Mach'y & Mill'g, p. 351; Carpenter's Exper. Eng'g, p. 173):

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = e^{f\theta}; \quad T_2 = \frac{T_1}{e^{f\theta}}; \quad T_1 - T_2 = T_1 - \frac{T_1}{e^{f\theta}} = T_1(1 - e^{-f\theta})$$

$$T_1 - T_2 = T_1(1 - e^{-f\theta}) = T_1(1 - 10^{-f\theta m}) = T_1(1 - 10^{-.00758f\alpha})$$

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = 10^{.00758f\alpha}; \quad T_1 = T_2 \times 10^{.00758f\alpha}; \quad T_2 = \frac{T_1}{10^{.00758f\alpha}}$$

If the arc of contact between the band and the pulley expressed in turns and fractions of a turn = n , $\theta = 2\pi n$; $e^{f\theta} = 10^{2.234f n}$; that is, $e^{f\theta}$ is the natural number corresponding to the common logarithm $2.234f n$.

The value of the coefficient of friction f depends on the state and nature of the rubbing surfaces. For leather belts on iron pulleys, f varies from $f = .56$ when dry, $.36$ when wet, $.23$ when greasy, and $.15$ when oily. In calculating the proper mean tension for a belt, the smallest value, $f = .15$, is to be taken if there is a probability of the belt becoming wet with oil. The experiments of Henry R. Towne and Robert Briggs, however (Journ. Eng. Inst., 1899), show that such a state of lubrication is not of ordinary occurrence; and that in designing machinery we may in most cases safely take $f = .42$. Reuleaux takes $f = .35$. The following table shows the values of the coefficient $2.728f$, by which n is multiplied in the last equation, corresponding to different values of f ; also the corresponding values of the ratios among the forces, when the arc of contact is half a circumference.

$f = 0.15$	0.35	0.42	0.56
$2.728f = 0.41$	0.68	1.15	1.63

Let $\theta = \pi$ and $n = \frac{1}{2}$, then

$T_1 + T_2 = 1.006$	2.189	3.758	6.82
$T_1 + S = 2.66$	1.84	1.86	1.21
$T_1 + T_2 + 2S = 2.16$	1.34	0.86	0.71

In ordinary practice it is usual to assume $T_2 = S$; $T_1 = 2S$, $T_1 + T_2 + 2S = 1.5$. This corresponds to $f = 0.22$ nearly.

For a wire rope on cast iron f may be taken as 0.16 exactly; and 2 in groove of the pulley is bottomed with gutta percha, 0.35 (Rankine).

Centrifugal Tension of Belts.—When a belt or band runs at high velocity, centrifugal force produces a tension in addition to that existing when the belt is at rest or moving at a low velocity. This centrifugal tension diminishes the effective driving force.

Rankine says: If an endless band, of any figure whatever, runs at a given speed, the centrifugal force produces a uniform tension at each section of the band, equal to the weight of a piece of the band whose length is twice the height from which a heavy body must fall, in order to acquire the velocity of the band. (See Cooper on Belting, p. 101.)

If T_c = centrifugal tension;

V = velocity in feet per second;

g = acceleration due to gravity = 32.2;

W = weight of a piece of the belt 1 ft long and 1 sq in. cross-sectional area.

Leather weighing 58 lbs. per cubic foot gives $W = 25 \div 144 = .174$.

$$T_c = \frac{WV^2}{g} = \frac{.36V^2}{32.2} = .012V^2.$$

ing Practice. Handy Formulae for Belting.—Since practical application of the above formulae the value of the coefficient μ must be assumed, its actual value varying within wide limits (15% and since the values of T_1 and T_2 also are fixed arbitrarily, it is customary in practice to substitute for these theoretical formulae more simple and formulae and rules, some of which are given below.

- d = diam. of pulley in inches; πd = circumference;
- v = velocity of belt in ft. per second; v = vel. in ft. per minute;
- θ = angle of the arc of contact;
- $\pi d \theta$ = length of arc of contact in feet = $\pi d \theta \div (12 \times 280)$;
- T = tractive force per square inch of sectional area of belt;
- w = width in inches; t = thickness;
- F = tractive force per inch of width = $F \div t$;
- r = revs. per minute; rps = revs. per second = $r \div 60$.

$$F = \frac{\pi d}{12} \times rps = \frac{\pi d}{12} \times \frac{rpm}{60} = .004363d \times rpm = \frac{d \times rpm}{229.2};$$

$$F = \frac{\pi d}{12} \times rpm; = .2618d \times rpm.$$

$$\text{power, H.P.} = \frac{Svw}{82000} = \frac{9Vw}{550} = \frac{Swd \times rpm}{126050} = .00007088Sw d \times rpm.$$

w = working tension per square inch = 275 lbs., and $t = 7/32$ inch, $S =$ nearly, then

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{550} = .109Vw = .000476wd \times rpm = \frac{wd \times rpm}{2101} \quad (1)$$

$w = 150$ lbs. per square inch, and $t = 1/6$ inch, $S = 80$ lbs., then

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{1100} = .06Vw = .000238wd \times rpm = \frac{wd \times rpm}{4202} \quad (2)$$

a working strain is 60 lbs. per inch of width, a belt 1 inch wide travelling 100 ft. per minute will transmit 1 horse-power. If the working strain is 33 lbs. per inch of width, a belt 1 inch wide, travelling 1100 ft. per minute, transmit 1 horse-power. Numerous rules are given by different writers long which vary between these extremes. A rule commonly used is: wide travelling 1000 ft. per min. = 1 H.P.

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{1000} = .06Vw = .000262wd \times rpm = \frac{wd \times rpm}{3830} \quad (3)$$

corresponds to a working strain of 33 lbs. per inch of width, writers give as safe practice for single belts in good condition a tension of 35 lbs. per inch of width. This gives

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{733} = .0616Vw = .000357wd \times rpm = \frac{wd \times rpm}{2800} \quad (4)$$

double belts of average thickness, some writers say that the transmission efficiency is to that of single belts as 10 to 7, which would give

$$\text{double belts} = \frac{vw}{513} = .1169Vw = .00051wd \times rpm = \frac{wd \times rpm}{1960} \quad (5)$$

authorities, however, make the transmitting-power of double belts that of single belts, on the assumption that the thickness of a double is twice that of a single belt.

for horse-power of belts are sometimes based on the number of feet of surface of the belt which pass over the pulley in a minute, per min. = $wd \div 12$. The above formulae translated into this form

For $S = 60$ lbs. per inch wide ;	H.P. = 46 sq. ft. per minute.
" $S = 20$ "	" " " " " " " " " " " "
" $S = 33$ "	" " " " " " " " " " " "
" $S = 45$ "	" " " " " " " " " " " "
" $S = 64.8$ "	" " " " " " " " " " " "
	H.P. = 92 " " " " " " " " " " " "
	H.P. = 133 " " " " " " " " " " " "
	H.P. = 61 " " " " " " " " " " " "
	H.P. = 43 " " " " " " " " " " " "

(double

The above formulæ are all based on the supposition that the arc of contact is 180° . For other arcs, the transmitting power is approximately proportional to the ratio of the degrees of arc to 180° .

Some rules base the horse-power on the length of the arc of contact in feet. Since $L = \frac{\pi da}{12 \times 360}$ and $H.P. = \frac{S \times v}{33000} = \frac{S \times \pi d}{33000 \times 12} \times \text{rpm} \times$

obtain by substitution $H.P. = \frac{S \times \pi d}{16500} \times L \times \text{rpm.}$, and the first formulæ take the following form for the several values of S :

$$H.P. = \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{275} \quad (1); \quad \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{550} \quad (2); \quad \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{500} \quad (3); \quad \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{387} \quad (4)$$

$$H.P. (\text{double belt}) = \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{287} \quad (5).$$

None of the handy formulæ take into consideration the centrifugal force of belts at high velocities. When the velocity is over 3000 ft. per sec. the effect of this tension becomes appreciable, and it should be taken account of as in Mr. Nagle's formula, which is given below.

Horse-power of a Leather Belt One Inch wide.

Formula: $H.P. = CVtw(S - .012V^2) \div 550$.

For $f = .40$, $\alpha = 180^\circ$, $C = .715$, $w = 1$.

LACED BELTS, $S = 275$.								RIVETED BELTS, $S = 300$.							
Velocity in ft. per sec.	Thickness in inches = t .							Velocity in ft. per sec.	Thickness in inches = t .						
	1/7	1/6	3/16	7/32	1/4	5/16	1/2		7/32	1/4	5/16	1/2	3/4	1	1 1/2
10	.143	.167	.187	.219	.250	.312	.333	15	1.60	1.94	2.42	2.58	2.91	3.25	3.58
20	.51	.59	.63	.78	.84	1.05	1.18	20	2.24	2.57	3.21	3.42	3.80	4.13	4.46
25	.75	.88	1.00	1.16	1.32	1.68	1.77	25	2.70	3.10	3.84	4.05	4.48	4.78	5.08
30	1.00	1.17	1.32	1.54	1.75	2.19	2.31	30	3.31	3.79	4.74	5.05	5.47	5.77	6.07
35	1.23	1.43	1.61	1.88	2.16	2.69	2.86	35	3.82	4.37	5.46	5.83	6.26	6.56	6.86
40	1.47	1.72	1.93	2.25	2.58	3.23	3.44	40	4.34	4.95	6.10	6.50	7.02	7.32	7.62
45	1.69	1.97	2.22	2.59	2.96	3.70	3.94	45	4.85	5.49	6.80	7.22	7.83	8.13	8.43
50	1.90	2.22	2.49	2.90	3.32	4.15	4.44	50	5.36	6.01	7.51	8.02	8.73	9.03	9.33
55	2.09	2.45	2.75	3.21	3.67	4.58	4.89	55	5.86	6.50	8.12	8.66	9.47	9.77	10.07
60	2.27	2.65	2.98	3.48	3.98	4.97	5.30	60	6.36	7.06	8.80	9.36	10.27	10.57	10.87
65	2.44	2.84	3.19	3.72	4.26	5.25	5.60	65	6.86	7.63	9.50	10.08	11.10	11.40	11.70
70	2.58	3.01	3.38	3.95	4.51	5.61	6.02	70	7.36	8.20	10.20	10.80	11.93	12.23	12.53
75	2.71	3.16	3.55	4.14	4.74	5.93	6.32	75	7.86	8.75	10.88	11.50	12.73	13.03	13.33
80	2.84	3.27	3.68	4.29	4.91	6.16	6.54	80	8.36	9.30	11.58	12.22	13.57	13.87	14.17
85	2.94	3.43	3.86	4.50	5.15	6.46	6.86	85	8.86	9.85	12.28	12.94	14.40	14.70	15.00
90	3.07	3.47	3.90	4.55	5.20	6.56	6.94	90	9.36	10.40	12.98	13.66	15.23	15.53	15.83
95	3.17	3.47	3.90	4.55	5.20	6.56	6.94	100	9.86	10.95	13.72	14.42	16.10	16.40	16.70

The H.P. becomes a maximum at 87.41 ft. per sec. = 5845 ft. p. min.

The H.P. becomes a maximum at 105.4 ft. per sec. = 6364 ft. p. min.

In the above table the angle of subtension, α , is taken at 180° .

Should it be | 90° 100° 110° 120° 130° 140° 150° 160° 170°
Multiply above values by | .65 | .70 | .75 | .79 | .83 | .87 | .91 | .94 | .97

A. F. Nagle's Formula (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. II, 1884).
Tables published in 1884.)

$$H.P. = CVtw \left(\frac{S - .012V^2}{250} \right);$$

$V = 1 - 10^{-.0015875V^2}$
 $V =$ velocity in feet per sec.
 $S =$ stress upon the belt in lbs. per sq. in.
 $C =$ coefficient of friction;
 $t =$ thickness in inches.

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WIDTH OF BELT FOR A GIVEN HORSE-POWER. 879

Taking 8 at 375 lbs. per sq. in. for laced belts and 400 lbs. per sq. in. for lapped and riveted belts, the formula becomes

$$H.P. = CV^{1/2}(1.50 - .0000218V^2) \text{ for laced belts;}$$

$$H.P. = CV^{1/2}(1.727 - .0000218V^2) \text{ for riveted belts.}$$

$$\text{VALUES OF } C = 1 - 10^{-.00758/a} \text{ (NAGLE.)}$$

Degrees of contact = a .

$f = \frac{\text{Coeff. of friction}}{\text{ft.}}$	90°	100°	110°	120°	130°	140°	150°	160°	170°	180°	200°
.15	210	230	250	270	288	307	325	342	359	376	403
.20	270	295	319	342	364	386	408	428	448	467	503
.25	325	354	381	407	432	457	480	503	524	544	582
.30	376	408	435	461	484	507	529	549	567	586	629
.35	423	457	489	520	548	573	600	624	646	667	705
.40	467	504	536	567	597	624	649	673	695	715	753
.45	507	544	579	610	640	667	692	715	737	757	792
.50	548	587	623	654	683	710	735	758	780	802	833
.55	586	628	664	695	724	750	773	795	816	838	877
.60	610	654	691	722	751	776	800	821	842	864	909
.65	625	670	708	739	768	793	816	837	858	880	929

The following table gives a comparison of the formulae already given for case of a belt one inch wide, with arc of contact 180°.

Horse-power of a Belt One Inch wide, Arc of Contact 180°.
COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT FORMULAE.

Velocity in ft. p. min.	Sq. ft. of Belt p. min.	Form. 1 H.P. = $\frac{wv}{550}$	Form. 2 H.P. = $\frac{wv}{1100}$	Form. 3 H.P. = $\frac{wv}{1000}$	Form. 4 H.P. = $\frac{wv}{733}$	Form. 5 H.P. = $\frac{wv}{513}$	Nagle's Form. dbl. belt 7/32" single belt	Laced.	Riveted
600	50	1.09	.55	.60	.82	1.17	.73	1.14	
1200	100	2.18	1.09	1.20	1.64	2.34	1.54	2.24	
1800	150	3.27	1.64	1.80	2.46	3.51	2.25	3.81	
2400	200	4.36	2.18	2.40	3.27	4.68	2.90	4.83	
3000	250	5.45	2.73	3.00	4.09	5.85	3.48	5.26	
3600	300	6.55	3.27	3.60	4.91	7.02	4.05	6.09	
4200	350	7.63	3.82	4.20	5.73	8.19	4.29	6.78	
4800	400	8.72	4.36	4.80	6.55	9.36	4.50	7.36	
5400	450	9.82	4.91	5.40	7.37	10.53	4.55	7.74	
6000	500	10.91	5.45	6.00	8.18	11.70	4.41	7.96	
6600	550	4.05	7.97	
7200	600	3.49	7.75	

Width of Belt for a Given Horse-power.—The width of belt needed for any given horse-power may be obtained by transposing the formula for horse-power so as to give the value of w . Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Formula (1), } w &= \frac{550 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{9.17 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{2101 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{275 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}} \\ \text{Formula (2), } w &= \frac{1100 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{18.33 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{4202 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{530 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}} \\ \text{Formula (3), } w &= \frac{1000 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{16.67 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{3820 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{500 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}} \\ \text{Formula (4), } w &= \frac{733 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{12.92 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{2860 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{360 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}} \\ \text{Formula (5), } w &= \frac{513 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{8.56 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{1960 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{257 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}} \end{aligned}$$

double belts.

Many authorities use formula (1) for double belts and formula (2) for single belts.

To obtain the width by Nagle's formula, $w = \frac{550 \text{ H.P.}}{C \cdot V \cdot L \cdot S - .0012 \cdot V^2}$, divide the given horse-power by the figure in the table corresponding to the thickness of belt and velocity in feet per second.

The formula to be used in any particular case is a matter of judgment. A single belt proportioned according to the formula if tightly stretched, and if the surface is in good condition, will transmit horse-power calculated by the formula, but one so proportioned is liable, first, because it requires so great an initial tension that it stretches, slips, and require frequent restretching and relining, and because this tension will cause an undue pressure on the pulley and therefore an undue loss of power by friction. To avoid these difficulties formula (2), (3), or (4), or Mr. Nagle's table, should be used. The latter is especially in cases in which the velocity exceeds 4000 ft. per min.

Taylor's Rules for Belting.—F. W. Taylor (Trans. A. S. M. E., xv, 304) describes a nine years' experiment on belting in a machine giving results of tests of 42 belts running night and day. Some of the belts were run on cone pulleys and others on shifting, or fast-and-loose, levers. The average net working load on the shifting belts was one-third that of the cone belts.

The shifting belts varied in dimensions from 39 ft. 7 in. long, 14 in. wide, .25 in. thick, to 51 ft. 5 in. long, 6.5 in. wide, .37 in. thick. The cone belts varied in dimensions from 34 ft. 7 in. long, 2 in. wide, .25 in. thick, to 10 in. long, 4 in. wide, .37 in. thick.

Belt-clamps were used having spring-balances between the two clamps, so that the exact tension to which the belt was applied was accurately weighed when the belt was first put on, and each time it was tightened.

The tension under which each belt was spliced was carefully noted to place it under an initial strain—while the belt was at rest—before tightening—of 71 lbs. per inch of width of double belts. This was constant in the case of

Oak tanned and felled belts,	to 192 lbs. per sq. in. section.
Oak tanned, not felled belts,	to 229 " " " "
Semi raw-hide belts,	to 253 " " " "
Raw-hide belts,	to 284 " " " "

From the nine years' experiment Mr. Taylor draws a number of conclusions, some of which are given in an abridged form below.

In using belting so as to obtain the greatest economy and the best factory results, the following rules should be observed:

	Oak Tanned and Felled Leather Belts	Other Leathers and Rubber Belts
A double belt, having an arc of contact of 180°, will give an effective pull on the face of a pulley per inch of width of belt of....	25 lbs.	25
Or, a different form of same rule:		
The number of sq. ft. of double belt passing around a pulley per minute required to transmit one horse-power is....	50 sq. ft.	50
Or: The number of lineal feet of double-belt 1 in. wide passing around a pulley per minute required to transmit one horse-power is....	250 ft.	250
Or: A double belt 6 in. wide, running 4000 to 5000 ft. per min., will transmit....	25 H.P.	25

The terms "initial tension," "effective pull," etc., are those of Mr. Taylor. When pulleys upon which belts are tightened are of different diameters, the belt (the upper and lower) are under the same tension, "initial tension," or "tension," while the effective pull is different.

stress per in. of width, or sq. in. of section, to which one of the of the belt is tightened, when at rest. After the belts are in motion transmitting power, the stress on the slack side, or strand, of the belt is less, while that on the tight side—or the side which does the pulling—is greater than when the belt was at rest. By the term "total stress" we mean the total stress per in. of width, or sq. in. of section, on the belt while in motion.

Difference between the stress on the tight side of the belt and its slack side in motion, represents the effective force or pull which is transmitted from one pulley to another. By the terms "working load," "net load," or "effective pull," we mean the difference in the tension on the tight and slack sides of the belt per in. of width, or sq. in. section, in motion, or the net effective force that is transmitted from one pulley to another per in. of width or sq. in. of section.

Discovery of Messrs. Lewis and Bancroft (Trans. A. S. M. E., vii. 749)

"sum of the tension on both sides of the belt does not remain constant," upsets all previous theoretical belting formulae.

Best speed for maximum economy should be from 4000 to 4500 ft. per

minute at distance from centre to centre of shafts is from 20 to 25 ft.

Pulleys work most satisfactorily when located on the slack side of about one quarter way from the driving pulley.

Belts are more durable and work more satisfactorily made narrow and thin than wide and thin.

It is more and advisable to use: a double belt on a pulley 12 in. diameter or a triple belt on a pulley 20 in. diameter or larger; a quadruple belt on a pulley 30 in. diameter or larger.

As they increase in width they should also be made thicker.

Sides of the belt should be fastened together by splicing and cementing, or of lacing, wiring, or using hooks or clamps of any kind.

Splices should be used on triple and quadruple belts and when idlers are used. Stepped splice, coated with rubber and vulcanized in place, is best for belts.

Double belting the rule works well of making the splice for all belts 12 in. wide, 10 in. long; from 10 in. to 18 in. wide the splice should be 12 in. wide as the belt, 18 in. being the greatest length of splice required for belting.

Splices should be cleaned and greased every five to six months.

Leather belts will last well when repeatedly tightened under a tension (when at rest) of 71 lbs. per in. of width, or 240 lbs. per sq. in. section. Do not maintain this tension for any length of time, however.

Clamps having spring-balances between the two pairs of clamps should be used for weighing the tension of the belt accurately each time it is tightened.

Stretch, durability, cost of maintenance, etc., of belts proportioned according to the ordinary rules of a total load of 111 lbs. per inch of width corresponding to an effective pull of 66 lbs. per inch of width, and (B) to a more economical rule of a total load of 54 lbs., corresponding to an effective pull of 28 lbs. per inch of width, are found to be as follows:

It is impracticable to accurately weigh the tension of a belt in tightness. It is safe to shorten a double belt one half inch for every 10 ft. of length (A) and one inch for every 10 ft. for (B), if it requires tightening.

Leather belts, when treated with great care and run night and day at high speed, should last for 7 years (A); 18 years (B).

Cost of all labor and materials used in the maintenance and repairs of belts, added to the cost of renewals as they give out, through a term of years, will amount on an average per year to 87% of the original cost of (A); 14% or less (B).

When the total expense of belting, and the manufacturing cost added to this account, by far the largest item is the time lost on the belt while belts are being relaced and repaired.

Initial stretch of leather belting exceeds 8% of the original length.

Stretch during the first six months of the life of belts is 26% of their original length (A); 15% (B).

A belt will stretch 47/100 of 1% of its length before requiring to be retightened (A); 81/100 of 1% (B).

An important consideration in making up tables and rules for the cost of belting is how to secure the minimum of interruptions from this source.

The average double belt (A), when running night and day in a workshop, will cause at least 26 interruptions to manufacture during the year, or 26 interruptions per year, but with (B) interruptions to manufacture the average oftener for each belt than one in sixteen months.

The oak-tanned and felled belts showed themselves to be superior to the semi-raw-hide, or raw-hide with tanned face.

Belts of any width can be successfully shifted backward and forward on tight and loose pulleys. Belts running between 5000 and 6000 ft. per min. and driving 300 H. P. are now being daily shifted on tight and loose pulleys to throw lines of shafting in and out of use.

The best form of belt-shifter for wide belts is a pair of rollers, the width of belt, either of which can be pressed onto the flat surface of the belt on its slack side close to the driven pulley, the axis of the rollers at an angle of 75° with the centre line of the belt.

Remarks on Mr. Taylor's Rules. (Trans. A. S. M. E. 1887.)
—The most notable feature in Mr. Taylor's paper is the great difference between his rules for proper proportioning of belts and those given by other writers. A very commonly used rule is, one horse-power may be transmitted by a single belt 1 in. wide running 2 ft. per min., substituting for these values, according to the ideas of different engineers, ranging usually from 350 to 1100.

The practical mechanic of the old school is apt to swear by the rule 600 as being thoroughly reliable, while the modern engineer is more likely to use the figure 1000. Mr. Taylor, however, instead of using a figure 1000 for a single belt, uses 950 to 1100 for double belts. If we assume a double belt is twice as strong, or will carry twice as much power as a single belt, then he uses a figure at least twice as large as that of the old school practice, and would make the cost of belting for a given shafting as large as if the belting were proportioned according to the most liberal of the customary rules.

This great difference is to some extent explained by the fact that the problem which Mr. Taylor undertakes to solve is quite a different one from that which is solved by the ordinary rules with their variations. The problem of the latter generally is, "How wide a belt must be used, or how many belts may be used, to transmit a given horse-power?" Mr. Taylor's problem is: "How wide a belt must be used so that a given horse-power may be transmitted with the minimum cost for belt repairs, the loss due to the belt, and the smallest loss and inconvenience from stopped machinery while the belt is being tightened or repaired?"

The difference between the old practical mechanic's rule of a 600 ft. single belt, 600 ft. per min., transmits one horse-power, and the rule commonly used by engineers, in which 1000 is substituted for 600, is the belief of the engineers, not that a horse-power could not be transmitted by the belt proportioned by the older rule, but that such a proportioned belt would induce strain from overtightening to prevent slipping, which strain would induce too much journal friction, necessitated frequent tightening, and shorten the length of the life of the belt.

Mr. Taylor's rule substituting 1100 ft. per min. and doubling the length is a further step, and a long one, in the same direction. Whether it will be of any use by engineers will depend upon whether they appreciate the extent of the losses due to slippage of belts slackened by use under tension, and the loss of time in tightening and repairing belts, to such a degree as to induce them to allow the first cost of the belts to be doubled if it would avoid these losses.

It should be noted that Mr. Taylor's experiments were made on narrow belts, used for transmitting power from shafting to machinery. His conclusions may not be applicable to heavy and wide belts, and engine fly-wheel belts.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES ON BELTING.

Formulas are useful for proportioning belts and pulleys, but they are no means of estimating how much power a particular belt can transmit at any given time, any more than the size of the engine can estimate the load it is actually drawing, or the known capacity of a horse can estimate the load on the wagon. The only reliable means of determining the power transmitted is some form of dynamometer.
(p. 707.)

thickness, the power transmitted ought to increase in double belts we should have half the width required for the same conditions. With large pulleys and moderate speeds, it is probable that this holds good. With small pulleys, when a double belt is used, there is not such perfect contact between the belt and the pulley, due to the rigidity of the latter, and it is more difficult to bend the belt-fibres than when a thinner and more pliable belt is used. The centrifugal force tending to throw the belt off the pulley increases with the thickness, and for these reasons the width required to transmit a given horse-power when used in double belts is generally assumed not less than seven tenths the width required to transmit the same power. (Flather on "Dynamometer of Power.")

Mr. Flather, however, finds that great pliability is objectionable, and is not so good for small pulleys. The power consumed in bending a belt over a small pulley he considers inappreciable. According to Rankine, the centrifugal tension, this tension is proportional to the weight of the belt, and hence it does not increase with increase of width. If the width is decreased in the same proportion, the sectional area is not altered.

Mr. A. S. M. E., x. 765) says: The best belts are made of leather, and curried with the use of cod oil and tallow, in equal quantities. Such belts have continued in use thirty to forty years, and as simple driving-belts, driving a proper amount of power with suitable care. The flesh side should not be run to the pulley, the reason being that the wear from contact with the pulley is on the grain side, as that surface of the belt is much weaker than the flesh side; also as the grain is hard it is more resistant to attrition; further, if the grain is actually worn off, the belt will suffer in its integrity from a ready tendency of the leather to crack.

In contact of a belt with a pulley comes, first, in the first place, the face, including freedom from ridges and hollows left on the pulley, and in the smoothness of the surface and evenness in the width of a belt; third, in having the crown of the driving and driven pulleys alike,—as nearly so as is practicable in a commercial pulley, the crown of pulleys not over $\frac{1}{16}$ " for a 24" face, that the crown is not to be over $\frac{1}{4}$ " larger in diameter in its centre; fourth, the crown other than two planes meeting at the centre; fifth, the material on or in a belt, in addition to those necessarily required, to keep them pliable or increase their tractive power; sixth, to depend upon the exigencies arising in the use of the belt, rather than over-use; seventh, with reference to the lacing, it is a good practice to cut the ends to a convex shape by which there may be a nearly uniform stress on the lacing when compared with the edges. For a belt 10' wide, the ends should recede $\frac{1}{10}$ ".

8.—In punching a belt for lacing, use an oval punch, the face of the punch being parallel with the sides of the belt. Make four holes in each end, placed zigzag. In a 3 in. belt there should be two in each row. In a 6-inch belt, seven holes nearest the end. A 10-inch belt should have nine holes. The holes should not come nearer than $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch from the ends of the belt. The second row should be from the end. On wide belts these distances should be increased.

9.—In the centre of the belt and take care to keep the ends of the belt to lace both sides with equal tightness. The lacing should be on the side of the belt that runs next the pulley. In lacing, observe the same rules as putting on new ones.

10.—On Quarter-twist.—A belt must run squarely on to the shaft with a belt two horizontal shafts at right angles to each other, an engine-shaft near the floor with a line attached to the belt at a quarter-turn. First, ascertain the central point of the pulley at the extremity of the horizontal diameter where the pulley is, and then set that point on the driven pulley, and find the corresponding point on the driver. This will cause the belt to run squarely on the pulley, and it will leave at an angle greater than 90° of the pulleys and their distance from each other.

is with a partial vacuum in spaces between the belt and the pulley. The pressure is then greater than the atmospheric pressure, and the resistance to slipping is in advantage of permitting a greater power to be transmitted and of diminishing the strain on the shafting.

On the other hand, some writers claim that the belt itself and the pulley, which tends to diminish the effective force. On this theory some manufacturers put numerous holes to let the air escape.

Care of Belts.—Leather belts should be well protected from even loose steam and other moisture.

Belts of coarse, loose leather will do better service in wet or moist situations the finest and firmest leather (Hoyt & Co.)

Do not allow oil to drip upon the belts. It destroys the leather belting cannot safely stand above 110° of heat.

Strength of Belting.—The ultimate tensile strength is not generally enter as a factor in calculations of power.

The strength of the solid leather in belts is from 200 to 300 lbs. per square inch; at the lacing, even if well put together, only 100 lbs. per square inch. If riveted, the joint should have half the strength of the solid leather. The strain on the driving side is generally taken at one eighth of the strength of the lacing, or from one eighth to one sixth of the strength of the solid belt. Dr. Hartig found that the tension of a belt was 30 to 50 lbs. per square inch, averaging 40 lbs.

Adhesion Independent of Diameter.

1. The adhesion of the belt to the pulley is the same, whether the degrees of contact, aggregate tension or weight be the same, reference to width of belt or diameter of pulley.

2. A belt will slip just as readily on a pulley four feet in diameter as on a pulley two feet in diameter, provided the conditions of pulleys, the arc of contact, the tension, and the number of revolutions per minute are the same in both cases.

3. A belt of a given width, and making any given number of revolutions per minute, will transmit as much power running on pulleys four feet in diameter, provided the tension, and conditions of pulley faces are the same in both cases.

4. To obtain a greater amount of power from belt

of belts this belt would be designed for 332 H.P. By Mr. Taylor's be used to transmit only 121 H.P.

may be taken as examples of what a belt may be made to do, but not be used as precedents in designing. It is not stated how was lost by the journal friction due to over-tightening of these

Belting.—We advise, when the belt is pliable, and only dry and application of blood-warm tallow. This applied, and dried a by sun, will tend to keep the leather in good working condition. Tallow passes into the tallow of the leather, serving to soften and is left on the outside, to fill the pores and leave a smooth addition of resin to the tallow for belts, if used in wet or damp of service and help preserve their strength. Belts which have and dry should have an application of neat's-foot or liver oil, small quantity of resin. This prevents the oil from injuring the to preserve it. There should not be so much resin as to leave (J. B. Hoyt & Company.)

It did not be soaked in water before oiling, and penetrating oils should be used, except occasionally when a belt gets very dry from neglect. It may then be moistened a little, and have neat's-foot. Frequent applications of such oils to a new belt render the and flabby, thus causing it to stretch, and making it liable to wear. A composition of tallow and oil, with a little resin or beeswax to use. Prepared castor-oil dressing is good, and may be a brush or rag while the belt is running. (Alexander Brown.)

For Cloth or Leather. (Molesworth.)—16 parts gutta-serena, 2 pitch, 1 shellac, 2 linseed-oil, cut small, melted to well mixed.

Belting. The advantages claimed for rubber belting are unity in width and thickness; it will endure a great degree of without injury; it is also specially adapted for use in damp or or where exposed to the action of steam; it is very durable, and and strength, and when adjusted for service it has the most perfect pulleys, hence is less liable to slip than leather.

animal oil or grease on rubber belts, as it will greatly injure and them.

As will be improved, and their durability increased, by putting either's brush, and letting it dry, a composition made of equal lead, black lead, French yellow, and litharge, mixed with boiled oil and Japan enough to make it dry quickly. The effect of this will be a finely polished surface. If, from dust or other cause, the slip, it should be lightly moistened on the side next the pulley linseed-oil. (From circulars of manufacturers.)

GEARING.

TOOTHED-WHEEL GEARING.

Pitch-circle, etc.—If two cylinders with parallel axes are other and one of them is rotated on its axis, it will drive the other by the friction between the surfaces. The cylinders may be considered a pair of spur-wheels with an infinite number of very small teeth. When formed upon the cylinders, making alternate elevations and depressions in the cylindrical surfaces, the distance between the axes the same, we have a pair of gear-wheels which will drive one another upon the faces of the teeth, if the teeth are properly making the teeth the cylindrical surface may entirely disappear in position it occupied may still be considered as a cylindrical pitch is called the "pitch-surface," and its trace on the end of the wheel a plane cutting the wheel at right angles to its axis, is called "pitch-circle" or "pitch-line." The diameter of this circle is called the "pitch-diameter," and the distance from the face of one tooth to the corresponding face of the next tooth on the same wheel, measured on an arc of the pitch-circle, is called the "pitch of the tooth," or the circular pitch. When two wheels having teeth of the same pitch are geared together so that their teeth touch, it is a property of the pitch-circles that their tangents are perpendicular to the number of teeth in the wheels, and vice versa.

Chordal pitch = diam. of pitch-circle \times sine of $\frac{180^\circ}{\text{No. of teeth}}$
 pitch of a wheel of 10 in. pitch diameter and 10 teeth, $10 \times \sin 9^\circ = 1.571$ in.
 Circular pitch of same wheel = 3.1416. Chordal pitch is used on sprocket wheels, to conform to the pitch of the chain.

Formulae for Determining the Dimensions of Small Gears

(Brown & Sharpe Mfg. Co.)

P = diametral pitch, or the number of teeth to one inch of diam. of pitch-circle;

D' = diameter of pitch circle.....	Larger Wheel	These are the dimensions of the larger wheel.
D = whole diameter		
N = number of teeth		
V = velocity.....	Smaller Wheel.	These are the dimensions of the smaller wheel.
d' = diameter of pitch-circle.....		
d = whole diameter.....		
n = number of teeth		
v = velocity.....		

a = distance between the centres of the two wheels;

h = number of teeth in both wheels;

t = thickness of tooth or cutter on pitch-circle;

s = addendum;

D' = working depth of tooth;

f = amount added to depth of tooth for rounding the corners and clearance;

$D'' + f$ = whole depth of tooth;

$\pi = 3.1416$;

P' = circular pitch, or the distance from the centre of one tooth to the centre of the next measured on the pitch-circle.

Formulae for a single wheel:

$$P = \frac{N+2}{D}; \quad D' = \frac{D \times N}{N+2}; \quad D'' = \frac{2}{P} = 2s; \quad s = \frac{1}{P} = \frac{P'}{v} = \frac{D}{N+2}$$

$$P = \frac{N}{D'}; \quad D' = \frac{N}{P}; \quad N = PD'; \quad s = \frac{P'}{N} = \frac{D}{N+2};$$

$$P = \frac{\pi}{P'}; \quad D = \frac{N+2}{P}; \quad f = \frac{t}{10}; \quad s + f = \frac{1}{P} \left(1 + \frac{v}{2} \right) = \frac{D}{N+2}$$

$$P = \frac{\pi}{P'}; \quad D = D' + \frac{2}{P}; \quad t = \frac{1.57}{P} = \frac{1}{2} P'$$

Formulae for a pair of wheels:

$$b = 2aP; \quad n = \frac{PD'V}{v}; \quad D = \frac{2\pi(N+n)}{b};$$

$$N = \frac{nv}{V}; \quad v = \frac{PD'V}{N}; \quad d = \frac{2\pi(n+n)}{b};$$

$$n = \frac{NV}{v}; \quad v = \frac{NV}{n}; \quad n = \frac{b}{2P};$$

$$N = \frac{bv}{v+V}; \quad V = \frac{nv}{N}; \quad n = \frac{D'+D''}{2};$$

$$n = \frac{bV}{v+V}; \quad D' = \frac{2aV}{v+V}; \quad d' = \frac{2aV}{v+V};$$

The following proportions of gear wheels are recommended by the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (October, April, 1892.)

Proportions of Gear-wheels.

Circular Pitch.	Outside of Pitch-line. $P \times .9$	Inside of Pitch-line.		Width of Space.	
		For Cast or Cut Bevels or for Cast Spurs. $P \times .4$	For Cut Spurs. $P \times .35$	For Cast Spurs or Bevels. $P \times .525$	For Cut Bevels or Spurs. $P \times .51$
1	.075	.100	.088	.131	.128
.2618	.079	.105	.092	.137	.134
.31416	.094	.126	.11	.165	.16
.36	.113	.150	.131	.197	.191
.3027	.118	.157	.137	.206	.2
.4477	.134	.179	.157	.235	.228
.46	.15	.20	.175	.263	.255
.5228	.157	.209	.183	.275	.267
9.16	.169	.225	.197	.295	.287
.56	.188	.25	.219	.328	.319
.6332	.189	.251	.22	.33	.32
.74	.225	.3	.263	.394	.383
.7854	.236	.314	.275	.412	.401
.76	.263	.35	.307	.459	.446
1	.3	.4	.35	.525	.51
1.0472	.314	.419	.364	.55	.534
1.16	.338	.45	.394	.591	.574
1.1424	.343	.457	.40	.6	.583
1.14	.375	.5	.438	.656	.638
1.25561	.377	.503	.44	.66	.641
1.16	.413	.55	.481	.722	.701
1.16	.45	.6	.525	.78	.765
1.3708	.471	.628	.55	.825	.801
1.16	.525	.7	.613	.919	.893
2	.6	.8	.7	1.05	1.03
2.0944	.638	.838	.733	1.1	1.068
2.14	.675	.9	.788	1.131	1.148
2.14	.75	1.0	.875	1.319	1.275
2.14	.825	1.1	.963	1.442	1.403
3	.9	1.2	1.05	1.575	1.53
3.1416	.942	1.257	1.1	1.649	1.602
3.14	.975	1.3	1.138	1.706	1.657
3.14	1.05	1.4	1.225	1.838	1.785

Thickness of rim below root = depth of tooth.

Width of Teeth.—The width of the faces of teeth is generally made 2 to 3 times the circular pitch — from 6.28 to 9.42 divided by the diam-pitch. There is no standard rule for width.

Following sizes are given in a stock list of cut gears in "Grant's":

Circular pitch, 3 4 5 8 12 16
inches, 3 and 4 $2\frac{3}{4}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ and 2 $1\frac{1}{4}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{3}{8}$

Walker Mfg. Co. give:

Circular pitch, in, . . . $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{5}{8}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ $\frac{7}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{2}$ 2 $2\frac{1}{2}$ 3 4 5 6
in, $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{3}{4}$ 2 $2\frac{1}{2}$ $3\frac{1}{2}$ 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 12 16 20

Rules for Calculating the Speed of Gears and Pulleys.

Calculations of the size and speed of driving and driven gear wheels are the same as those of belt pulleys. In calculating for gears, multiply or divide by the diameter of the pitch-circle or by the number of teeth, as required. In calculating for pulleys, multiply or divide by their diameter in inches.

D = diam. of driving wheel, d = diam. of driven, R = revolutions per min. of driver, r = revs. per min. of driven.

$R = nd + D$; $r = RD + d$; $D = dr + R$; $d = DR + r$.

Number of teeth of driver n ; u = number of teeth of driven,

$N = nr + R$; $u = RD + r$; $R = n + N$; $r = RN + n$.

The rack in the cycloidal system is equivalent to a wheel with an infinite number of teeth. The pitch is equal to the circular pitch of the gear. Both faces and flanks are cycloids formed by rolling the generating-circle of the mating gear-wheel on each side of the straight pitch-line of the rack.

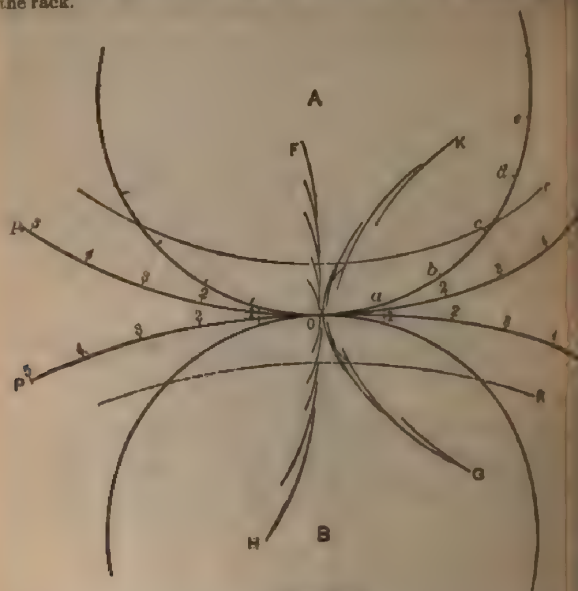


FIG. 155.

Another method of drawing the cycloidal curves is shown in Fig. 155. It is known as the method of tangent arcs. The generating circles are drawn with equal radii, the length of the radius being less than the radius of pc , the smaller pitch-circle. Equal divisions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are marked off on the pitch-circles and divisions of the same length are marked off on the generating circles, as abc , etc. From the points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 on the line po , with radii successively equal to the chord distances $1a$, $2b$, $3c$, $4d$, $5e$, draw the five small arcs F . A line drawn through the centers of these small arcs, tangent to them all, will be the hypocycloidal curve, the flank of a tooth below the pitch-line pl . From the point 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 on the line ol , with radii as before, draw the small arcs G . A line tangent to these arcs will be the epicycloidal curve for the face of the same tooth for which curve has already been drawn. In the same way, from centers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 on po , and ol , with the same radii, the tangent arcs H and K may be drawn, which will give the tooth for the gear whose pitch-circle is pl . If the generating-circle had a radius just one half of the radius of the hypocycloid F would be a straight line, and the flank of the tooth would have been radial.

The Involute Tooth. In drawing the involute tooth the angle of obliquity, or the angle which a common tangent to the pitch-circles makes with a line passing through the pitch point, is first arbitrarily determined. It is customary to take the angle of obliquity as $14\frac{1}{2}^\circ$. The pitch-lines pl and PL being drawn in contact at O , the line AO is drawn through O normal to a common tangent to the pitch-circles at the angle of obliquity to a common tangent to the pitch-circles.

with a radius = 2.1 inches divided by the diametral pitch, or 2.1 circular pitch.

To Draw an Angle of 16° without using a Protractor.—From

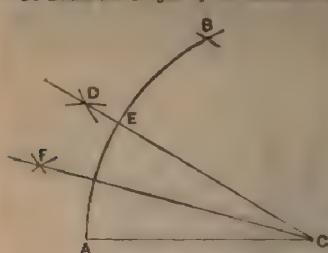


FIG. 138.

justed by moving the wheels farther from or nearer to each other, thus be adjusted so as to be no greater than is necessary to producing of the teeth.

The relative merits of cycloidal and involute-shaped teeth are a subject of dispute, but there is an increasing tendency to adopt the latter for all purposes.

Clark (R. T. D., p. 134) says: Involute teeth have the disadvantage of being too much inclined to the radial line, by which an undue pressure is exerted on the bearings.

Unwin (Elements of Machine Design, 8th ed., p. 265) says: The objection of action is ordinarily alleged as a serious objection to involute teeth, but its importance has perhaps been overrated.

George B. Grant (*Am. Mach.*, Dec. 26, 1885) says:

1. The work done by the friction of an involute-tooth is always the same work for any possible epicycloidal tooth.

2. With respect to work done by friction, a change of the size of gear of 12 teeth to one of 15 teeth makes an improvement for the case of less than one half of one per cent.

3. For the 12-tooth system the involute has an advantage of 11 per cent, and for the 15-tooth system an advantage of $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

4. That a maximum improvement of about one per cent can be accomplished by the adoption of any possible non-interchangeable radial tooth in preference to the 12-tooth interchangeable system.

5. That for gears of very few teeth the involute has a decided advantage.

6. That the common opinion among millwrights and the machinery men in general in favor of the epicycloid is a prejudice that is founded on long continued custom, and not on an intimate knowledge of the properties of that curve.

Willard Lewis (*Proc. Engrs. Club of Phila.*, vol. x, 1883) says: A reaction in favor of the involute system is in progress, and he believes an involute tooth of 22½° obliquity will finally supplant all other forms.

Approximation by Circular Arcs.—Having found the

the actual tooth-curve on the drawing-board, circular arcs may be used as a trial which will give approximations to the true curves, and these

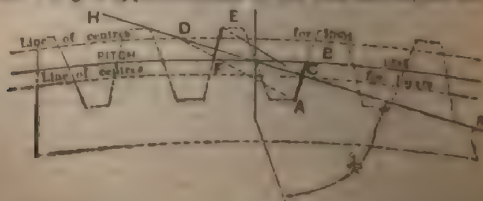


FIG. 139.

completing the drawing and the pattern of the gear-wheels. The curve is connected to the clearance by a fillet, which should be possible to give increased strength to the tooth, provided it is not high to cause interference.

It gives the following method of construction by circular arcs: a radial line at the edge of the tooth on the pitch-line, lay off the an angle of 75° with the radial line; on this line will be the centre AB and the point EF . The lines struck from these centres in thick lines. Circles drawn through centres thus found will be in which the remaining centres will be. The radius DA for the root AD is = pitch + the thickness of the tooth. The radius striking the point of the tooth EF = the pitch.

It. Grant says: It is sometimes attempted to construct the curve by any method or empirical rule, but such methods are generally

d Gears. Two gears of the same pitch and diameter mounted on the same shaft will act as a single gear. If one gear is keyed so that the teeth of the two wheels are not in line, but the wheel slightly in advance of the other, the two gears form a gear. If mated with a similar stepped gear on a parallel shaft the teeth in contact will be twice as great as in an ordinary gear, and increase the strength of the gear and its smoothness of action.

ed Teeth. If a great number of very thin gears were placed one slightly in advance of the other, they would still act as a gear.

Continuing the subdivision until the of each separate gear is infinitesimal, the teeth instead of being in steps take the spiral or twisted surface, and we have a gear.

The twist may take any shape, and if it is action for half the width of the gear and in the direction for the other half, we have what is the herring-bone or double helical tooth. The of the twisted tooth if twisted in one direction and thrust on the shaft, but if the herring-bone is used, the opposite obliquities neutralize

This form of tooth is much used in heavy practice, where great strength and resistance are necessary. They are frequently made of two (Fig. 100). The angle of the tooth with a to the axis of the gear is usually 30° .

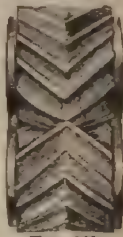


FIG. 100.

Gears.—If a twisted gear has a uniform twist it becomes a gear. The line in which the pitch-surface intersects the face of the of a helix drawn on the pitch-surface. A spiral wheel may be of only one helical tooth wrapped around the cylinder several which it becomes a screw or worm. If it has two or three teeth it is a double- or triple-threaded screw or worm. A spiral-gear into a rack is used to drive the table of some forms of planing-

gearing.—When the axes of two spiral gears are at right a wheel of one, two, or three threads works with a larger wheel threads, it becomes a worm-gear, or endless screw, the smaller

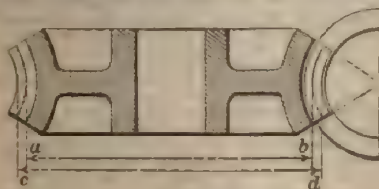


Fig. 161.

er being called the worm, and the larger, or driven wheel. With this arrangement a high velocity ratio may be obtained pair of wheels. For a one-threaded wheel the velocity r

ber of teeth in the internal gear should exceed the number in 12 or more, if the teeth are of the customary proportions and are in interchangeable gearing.

A less difference is desirable, and the teeth may be modified in order to make this possible.

As tooth curves resulting from smaller describing circles may be used, these will give teeth which are more rounding and narrower at the tips and therefore not as desirable as the regular forms.

The tips of the teeth may be rounded until they clear. This is a method which aims at modifying the teeth to such outlines as the describing circles would give.

Some of the describing circles may be omitted and one only used, the radius being equal to the difference between the pitch-circles. This will meshing of gears differing by six teeth. It will usually prove to put wheels in inside gears that differ by much less than 12 teeth.

For diametral pitch and standard tooth forms are determined on the basis of which the internal gear-blank is to be bored is calculated by dividing the number of teeth, and dividing the remainder by the teeth.

These outlines are the match of a spur-gear of the same number of teeth and diametral pitch, so that the spur-gear will fit the internal gear as its die, except that the teeth of each should fall to bottom in the spaces of the other by the customary clearance of one tenth of the tooth.

Bevel-gearing is particularly valuable when employed in differential motion, which is a mechanical movement in which one of the wheels is carried on a crank so that its centre can move in a circle about the centre of the other wheel. Means are added to the device which restrain the wheel from turning over and confine it to the revolution of the crank. The ratio of the number of teeth in the revolving wheel compared with the number of teeth in the other will represent the ratio between the revolutions of the crank-shaft by which the other is carried. The advantage of bevel-gearing is the change of speed with such an arrangement, as in ordinary spur-gearing, lies in the almost entire absence of consequent wear of the teeth.

A limitation that the difference between the wheels must not be less than 10 is a possible ratio of speed might be increased almost indefinitely. The problem is properly worked out with bevel-gears this limitation is completely set aside, and external and internal bevel-gears, but a single tooth if need be, made to mesh perfectly with each other.

Bevel-gears have been used with advantage in mowing machines. A description of their construction and operation is given by Mr. W. H. Dyer, from which the above extracts are taken.

EFFICIENCY OF GEARING.

A series of experiments on the efficiency of gearing, chiefly spiral gearing, is described by Wilfred Lewis in Trans. A. S. M. E., Vol. 18, 1896. The average results are shown in a diagram, from which the following approximate average figures are taken:

EFFICIENCY OF SPUR, SPIRAL, AND WORM GEARING.

Pitch.	Pitch.	Velocity at Pitch line in feet per min.				
		3	10	40	100	200
Spiral	45°	.90	.995	.97	.98	.985
	30	.81	.87	.93	.955	.965
	20	.75	.815	.89	.93	.945
	15	.67	.75	.845	.90	.92
	10	.61	.70	.805	.87	.90
or worm	10	.51	.615	.71	.82	.885
	7	.43	.53	.72	.765	.87
	5	.34	.43	.60	.70	.77

The values of s in the above table are given by Mr. Lewis on the basis of the absence of sufficient data upon which to base more definite values. They have been found to give satisfactory results in practice.

Mr. Lewis gives the following example to illustrate the use of the table. Let it be required to find the working strength of a 12-toothed pinion of 1-inch pitch, $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch face, driving a wheel of 60 teeth at 100 feet per minute, and let the teeth be of the 20-degree involute form.

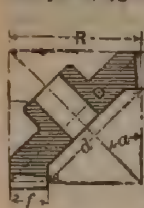


FIG. 163.

In the formula $W = spfy$, we have for a cast-iron pinion $s = 8000$, $pf = 2.5$, and $y = .078$; and multiplying these values together, we have $W = 1560$ pounds. For a steel pinion we have $y = .134$ and $W = 2680$ pounds.

The cast-iron pinion is, therefore, the weaker member; but if a steel pinion be substituted as a pinion $s = 30,000$ and $W = 3900$ pounds, in which case the wheel is the weaker, and it therefore becomes the measure of strength.

For bevel-wheels Mr. Lewis gives the following formula (see Fig. 166): D = large diameter of bevel; d = small diameter of bevel; p = pitch at large end; n = actual number of teeth; f = face of bevel; y = formative number of teeth = $n \times \secant \alpha$, α of the bevel corresponding to radius R ; y = factor depending on shape of tooth and formative number N ; W = working load on teeth.

$$W = spfy \frac{D^3 - d^3}{3D^2(D - d)}; \text{ or, more simply, } W = spfy \frac{d}{D},$$

which gives almost identical results when d is not less than $\frac{1}{4} D$, as is the case in good practice.

In *Am. Mach.*, June 22, 1893, Mr. Lewis gives the following formula for the working strength of the three systems of gearing, which agree closely with those obtained by use of the table:

$$\text{For involute, } 20^\circ \text{ obliquity, } W = spf \left(.134 - \frac{.912}{n} \right);$$

$$\text{For involute } 15^\circ, \text{ and cycloidal, } W = spf \left(.124 - \frac{.684}{n} \right);$$

$$\text{For radial flank system, } W = spf \left(.075 - \frac{.376}{n} \right);$$

in which the factor within the parenthesis corresponds to y in the general formula. For the horse-power transmitted, Mr. Lewis's general

formula, $W = spfy = \frac{33,000 \text{ H.P.}}{v}$, may take the form $\text{H.P.} = \frac{spfyv}{33,000}$, in which v = velocity in feet per minute; or since $v = d \times \text{rpm.} \div 12 = .2618 d \times \text{rpm.}$, which d = diameter in inches and rpm. = revolutions per minute,

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{Wv}{33,000} = \frac{spf \times d \times \text{rpm.}}{120,000} = .00007933 d spfy \times \text{rpm.}$$

It must be borne in mind, however, that in the case of machines which consume power intermittently, such as punching and shearing, the gearing should be designed with reference to the maximum power which can be brought upon the teeth at any time, and not upon the average horse-power transmitted.

Comparison of the Harkness and Lewis Formulas. Take an average case in which the safe working strength of the pinion $s = 8000$, $v = 300$ ft. per min., and $y = .100$, the value in Mr. Lewis's table for an involute tooth of 15° obliquity, or a cycloidal tooth, the number of teeth in the wheel being 27.

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{spfyv}{33,000} = \frac{8000 \times 2.5 \times .100 \times 300}{33,000} = \frac{600,000}{33} = 18181 \frac{1}{3} \text{ H.P.}$$

If V is taken in feet per second,

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{0.9161 spfV}{1 + 0.65V} \quad \text{If the } V \text{ in the denominator is in feet per second,}$$

at $200 \div 60 = 3\frac{1}{3}$ feet per second, $\sqrt[3]{1 + 0.65V} = \sqrt[3]{3.167} = 1.78$,
 $P = \frac{.910}{1.78} Vpf = .51pf/V$, or about 52% of the result given by Mr. Lewis's

This is probably as close an agreement as can be expected, since Harkness derived his formula from an investigation of ancient precedent and rule-of-thumb practice, largely with common cast gears, while Lewis's formula was derived from considerations of modern practice machine moulded and cut gears.

Lewis takes into consideration the reduction in working strength of a line to increase in velocity by the figures in his table of the values of working stress s for different speeds. Prof. Harkness gives expression the same reduction by means of the denominator of his formula,

$\sqrt[3]{1 + 0.65V}$. The decrease in strength as computed by this formula is less than that given in Mr. Lewis's table, and as the figures given in his table are not based on accurate data, a mean between the values given by the formula and the table is probably as near to the true value as may be deduced from our present knowledge. The following table gives the values for different speeds according to Mr. Lewis's table and Prof. Harkness's formula, taking for a basis a working stress s , for cast-iron 8000, and for steel 20,000 lbs. at speeds of 100 ft. per minute and less:

Speed of teeth, ft. per min..	100	200	300	600	900	1200	1800	2400
" " ft. per sec..	1%	3%	5	10	15	20	30	40
Stress s , cast-iron, Lewis...	8000	6000	4800	4000	3000	2400	2000	1700
" do. $s = 8000$	1	.75	.6	.5	.375	.3	.25	.2125
$\sqrt[3]{1 + 0.65V}$6930	.5621	.4850	.3650	.3060	.2672	.2208	.1924
val. $c + .693$	1	.811	.700	.526	.439	.385	.318	.277
$100 \times (c + .693)$	8000	6488	5000	4208	3512	3080	2544	2216
s and s_1 , cast-iron = s_2 ..	8000	6200	5200	4100	3500	2700	2300	2000
" " " for steel = s_3 ..	20000	15500	13000	10300	8100	6800	5700	4900
Stress for steel, Lewis..	20000	15000	12000	10000	7500	6000	5000	4300

Comparing the two formulas for the case of $s = 8000$, corresponding to a speed of 100 ft. per min., we have

$$\text{Lewis: } H.P. = 1 + \sqrt[3]{1 + 0.65V} \times .910 Vpf = .693 \times .91 \times 1\% pf = 1.051 pf.$$

$$H.P. = \frac{spfyv}{33,000} = \frac{spfyV}{550} = \frac{8000 \times 1\% pfy}{550} = 24.24 pfy.$$

By y varies according to the shape and number of the teeth.

radial-flank gear with 12 teeth	$y = .052$; $24.24 pfy = 1.260 pf$;
" involute, 19 teeth, or 15° luv., 27 teeth	$y = .100$; $24.24 pfy = 2.424 pf$;
" involute, 300 teeth	$y = .150$; $24.24 pfy = 3.636 pf$.

the weakest-shaped tooth, according to Mr. Lewis, will transmit 20% more horse-power than is given by Prof. Harkness's formula. In the shape of the tooth is not considered, and the average-shaped tooth according to Mr. Lewis, will transmit more than double the horse-power given by Prof. Harkness's formula.

Comparison of Other Formulas.—Mr. Cooper, in summing up the results of an investigation, selected an old English rule, which Mr. Lewis considers as the best correct expression of good general averages, viz.: $X = 200pf$, taking load of tooth in pounds, $p =$ pitch, $f =$ face. If a factor of 10 be taken, this would give for safe working load $W = 200pf$. Mr. B. Grant, in his *Teeth of Gears*, page 33, takes the breaking load P , and, with a factor of safety of 10, gives $W = 200pf$. Mr. H. Grant's Pocket-Book, 20th ed., 1891, says: "The strength and durability of iron teeth require that they shall transmit a force of 80 lbs. per inch of face and per inch breadth of face." This is equivalent to $W = 80pf$, or 25% of that given by the English rule.

Walsley (Clark's Pocket-Book) gives a table calculated from

$$H.P. = pfd \times \text{rpm.} \div 850.$$

$$\text{Clark's formula gives } H.P. = pfd \times \text{rpm.} \div 550.$$

Clark's formula transformed give $W = 128pf$ and $W = 218pf$, respec-

Unwin, on the assumption that the load acts on the corner of the meshing wheels, derives a formula $p = K \sqrt{W}$, in which K is a coefficient depending on the nature of the meshing wheels, its values being: for slowly moving gearing not subject to much vibration or shock $K = .04$; in ordinary mill-gearing, running at moderate speed and subject to considerable vibration, $K = .06$, and in gearing subjected to excessive vibration and shock, and in mortar-gearing, $K = .08$. Reduced to the form $W = Cpf$, assuming that $f = 2p$, these values of K give $W = 262pf$, $200pf$, and $139pf$, respectively.

Unwin also gives the following formula, based on the assumption that the pressure is distributed along the edge of the tooth, $p = K_1 \sqrt{W}$,

where $K_1 =$ about .0707 for iron wheels and .0848 for mortar wheels, and the breadth of face is not less than twice the pitch. For the case of iron wheels and the given values of K_1 , this reduces to $W = 200pf$ and $139pf$, respectively.

Box, in his Treatise on Mill Gearing, gives $H.P. = \frac{12p^{3/2} \sqrt{dn}}{1000}$, in which $n =$ number of revolutions per minute. This formula differs from the modern formulæ in making the H.P. vary as $p^{3/2}$, instead of as p . In this respect it is no doubt incorrect.

Making the H.P. vary as \sqrt{dn} , or as \sqrt{v} , instead of directly as p , and taking the velocity a factor of the working strength as in the Harkness formulæ, the relative strength varying as $\frac{\sqrt{v}}{v}$, or as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{v}}$, which for the various velocities is as follows:

Speed of teeth in ft. per min., $v =$	100	200	300	600	900	1200
Relative strength	1	.707	.574	.408	.338	.289

Showing a somewhat more rapid reduction than is given by Mr. Lewis. For the purpose of comparing different formulæ they may be reduced to either of the following forms:

$$H.P. = Cpfv, \quad H.P. = C_1 p f d \times \text{rpm.}, \quad W = cv^2,$$

in which $p =$ pitch, $f =$ face, $d =$ diameter, all in inches; $v =$ velocity in feet per minute, rpm. revolutions per minute, and C , C_1 and c constants. The formulæ for transformation are as follows:

$$H.P. = \frac{Wv}{33000} = \frac{W \times d \times \text{rpm.}}{126,050};$$

$$W = \frac{33,000 H.P.}{v} = \frac{126,050 H.P.}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = 33,000 Cpf; \quad pf = \frac{H.P.}{Cv} = \frac{H.P.}{C_1 d \times \text{rpm.}}$$

$$C_1 = .2618C; \quad c = 33,000C; \quad C = 3.82C_1; \quad c = \frac{c}{33,000}; \quad c = 126,050C.$$

In the Lewis formula C varies with the form of the tooth and the speed, and is equal to $sy + 33,000$, in which y and s are the values from the table, and $c = sy$.

In the Harkness formula C varies with the speed and is equal to $\frac{.01517}{\sqrt{v} + .011v}$ (V being in feet per second),

In the Box formula C varies with the pitch and also with the speed, and equals $\frac{12p \sqrt{d \times \text{rpm.}}}{1000v} = .02345 \frac{p}{\sqrt{v}}$. $c = 33,000C = \frac{774 P}{\sqrt{v}}$.

For $v = 100$ ft. per min., $C = \frac{774}{10} \frac{P}{\sqrt{v}}$; for $v = 600$ ft. per min., $C = \frac{774}{\sqrt{600}} \frac{P}{\sqrt{v}}$. In the other formulæ considered C , C_1 , and c are constants. Reducing the several formulæ to the form $W = cpf$, we have the follow-

CHOICE OF DIFFERENT FORMULÆ FOR STRENGTH OF GEAR-TEETH.

King pressure per inch pitch and per inch of face, or value of c in $= cpf$:

	$v = 100$ ft. per min.	$v = 600$ ft. per min.
Weak form of tooth, radial flank, 12 teeth...	$c = 416$	208
Medium tooth, inv. 15° , or cycloid, 27 teeth...	$c = 500$	400
Strong form of tooth, or cycloid, 300 teeth...	$c = 1300$	600
Average tooth.....	$c = 347$	184
of 1 inch pitch.....	$c = 77.4$	31.6
of 3 inches pitch.....	$c = 232$	95

In which c is independent of form and speed: Old English 200; Grant, $c = 350$; Nystrom, $c = 80$; Halsey, $c = 128$; Jones & Co., $c = 218$; Unwin, $c = 202, 200$, or 139, according to speed, shock, etc.

are given by Nystrom and those given by Box for teeth of small size are much smaller than those given by the other authorities that they are affected as having an entirely unnecessary surplus of strength. The opinion by Mr. Lewis seems to rest on the most logical basis, the form of teeth as well as the velocity being considered; and since they are said to be satisfactory in an extended machine practice, they may be considered suitable for gears that are so well made that the pressure bears on the face of the teeth instead of upon the corners. For rough order, the old English rule $W = 200pf$ is probably as good as any, except the figure 200 may be too high for weak forms of tooth and for iron.

Formula $W = 200pf$ is equivalent to H.P. $= \frac{vfd \times \text{rpm.}}{690} = \frac{vfv}{165}$, or

$$15873 vfd \times \text{rpm.} = .006063 vfv.$$

Maximum Speed of Gearing.—A. Towler, *Eng'g*, April 19, 1889, gives the maximum speeds at which it was possible under favorable conditions to run toothed gearing safely as follows:

	Ft. per min.
Grey cast-iron wheels.....	1800
“ “ “ “.....	2400
“ “ “ “.....	2400
Grey cast-steel wheels.....	2600
“ “ “ “.....	3000
Cast-iron machine-cut wheels.....	3000

Wheeler Sellers (*Stevens Indicator*, April, 1892) recommends that wheels should not run over 1200 ft. per minute, to avoid great noise. The *Eng. Co.*, Cleveland, O., say that 2200 ft. per min. for iron gears and for wood and iron (mortise gears) are excessive, and should be avoided if possible. The Corliss engine at the Philadelphia Exhibition (1876) had a wheel 30 ft. in diameter running 35 rpm. geared into a pinion 12 ft. in diameter; the speed of the pitch-line was 3300 ft. per min.

Heavy Machine-cut Spur-gear.—The *Eng. Co.*, Cleveland, O., was made in 1891 by the *Eng. Co.*, Cleveland, O., for a diamond mine in South Africa, with the following data: Number of teeth, 162; pitch diameter, 39' 6.66"; face, 1' 6"; bore, 27"; diameter of hub, 9' 2"; weight of hub, 15 tons; and weight of gear, 68½ tons. The rim was made in 12 segments, the joints being fastened with two bolts each. The spokes were bolted to the segments and to the hub with four bolts in each end.

Frictional Gearing.—In frictional gearing the wheels are toothless, one wheel drives the other by means of the friction between the two wheels which are pressed together. They may be used where the power transmitted is not very great; when the speed is so high that toothed gearing would be noisy; when the shafts require to be frequently put into reverse or to have their relative direction of motion reversed; or when it is desired to change the velocity-ratio while the machinery is in motion. The case of disk friction-wheels for changing the feed in machine

is the normal pressure in pounds at the line of contact by which the wheels are pressed together. T = tangential resistance of the driven wheel at the line of contact, f = the coefficient of friction, V = the velocity of the surface in feet per second, and H.P. = horse-power; the value of f is equal to or less than fP ; H.P. = $TV + 550$. The value of f is

metal on metal may be taken at .15 to .20; for wood on metal, .25 to .30; for wood on compressed paper, .30. The tangential driving force P may be as high as 80 lbs. per inch width of face of the driving surface, but the compound by great pressure and friction on the journal bearings.

In frictional grooved gearing circumferential wedge-shaped grooves cut in the faces of two wheels in contact. If P = the force pressing wheels together, and N = the normal pressure on all the grooves, $(\sin \alpha + f \cos \alpha)$, in which 2α = the inclination of the sides of the grooves, and the maximum tangential available force $T = fN$. The inclination of the sides of the grooves to a plane at right angles to the axis is usually 10° .

Frictional Grooved Gearing.—A set of friction-gears transmitting 150 H.P. is on a steam-dredge described in Proc Inst. M.E. 1888. Two grooved pinions of 54 in. diam., with 9 grooves of $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. pitch angle of 40° cut on their face, are geared into two wheels of 15 ft. diam. similarly grooved. The wheels can be thrown in and out of gear by operating eccentric bushes on the large wheel-shaft. The circumferential speed of the wheels is about 500 ft. per min. Allowing for engine efficiency, if half the power is transmitted through each set of gears the tangential force at the rim is about 3960 lbs., requiring, if the angle is 40° and coefficient of friction .15, a pressure of 7534 lbs. between the wheels and pinion to prevent slipping.

The wear of the wheels proving excessive, the gears were replaced by gear wheels and brake-wheels with steel brake-bands, which arrangement has proven more durable than the grooved wheels. Mr. Daniel states that if the frictional wheels had been run at a higher speed they would have been better, and says they should run at least 50 ft. per min.

HOISTING.

Approximate Weight and Strength of Cordage.
(See also pages 339 to 345.)

Size in Circumference.	Size in Diameter.	Weight of 100 ft. Manila, in lbs.	Strength of Manila Rope, in lbs.	Size in Circumference.	Size in Diameter.	Weight of 100 ft. Manila, in lbs.
inch.	inch.			inch.	inch.	
2	$\frac{5}{16}$	13	4,000	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	72
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	16	5,000	5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	80
2 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$	20	6,250	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	97
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	24	7,500	6	2	113
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{11}{16}$	28	9,000	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{8}$	131
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	33	10,500	7	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	153
3 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	38	12,250	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{3}{8}$	174
4	1	45	14,000	8	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	211
4 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{16}$	51	16,000	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{7}{8}$	235
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	58	18,000	9	3	262
4 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	65	20,250			

Working Strength of Blocks. (B & L. Block Co.)

Regular Mortise-blocks Single and Double, or Two Double Iron-strapped Blocks, will hoist about—

inch.	lbs.	inch.	lbs.
5	250	8	2,000
6	350	10	3,000
7	500	12	4,000
8	1,300	14	5,000
9	2,000	16	7,500
10	4,000	18	10,000
12	10,000	20	16,000
14	16,000		

When double and triple block are used together, a certain amount of weight can be safely hoisted, as larger blocks

Comparative Efficiency in Chain-blocks both in Hoisting and Lowering.

(Tests by Prof. R. H. Towne, *Hoisting*, March, 1881.)

Number of Hooks.	WORK OF HOISTING. Load of 3000 lbs.					WORK OF LOWERING. Load of 3000 lbs., lowered 7 ft. in each test.				
	Waste by Friction, per cent.	Actual Efficiency, per cent.	Relative Efficiency.	Velocity ratio.		Exclusive of Factor of Time.			Inclusive of Time.	
						Pull on Hand Chain, lbs.	Length of Hand Chain, feet.	Work performed, ft. lbs.	Relative Forces expended by Operator.	Time in Min.
1	20.50	79.50	1.00	22.5	8.00	225	1.896	1.00	0.75	1.000
2	28.00	72.00	.90	22.44	11.00	225	2.294	1.22	1.30	.786
3	32.00	68.00	.86	22.40	14.00	225	2.692	1.44	1.50	.658
4	35.00	65.00	.82	22.36	17.00	225	3.090	1.66	1.60	.562
5	38.00	62.00	.79	22.32	20.00	225	3.488	1.88	1.70	.490
6	41.00	59.00	.76	22.28	23.00	225	3.886	2.10	1.80	.430
7	44.00	56.00	.73	22.24	26.00	225	4.284	2.32	1.90	.380
8	47.00	53.00	.70	22.20	29.00	225	4.682	2.54	2.00	.340
9	50.00	50.00	.67	22.16	32.00	225	5.080	2.76	2.10	.310
10	53.00	47.00	.64	22.12	35.00	225	5.478	2.98	2.20	.280

No. 1 was Weston's triplex block; No. 2, Weston's differential. No. 4 was Weston's imported. The others were from different makers, whose names are not given. All the blocks were of one-ton capacity.

Proportions of Hooks.—The following formulae are given by Henry R. Towne, in his treatise on Cranes, as a result of an extensive experimental and mathematical investigation. They apply to hooks of capacities from 250 lbs. to 30,000 lbs. Each size hook is made from some commercial size of round iron. The basis in each case is, therefore, the size of iron of which the hook is to be made, indicated by Δ in the diagram. The dimension D is arbitrarily assumed. The other dimensions, as given by the formulae, are those which, while preserving a proper bearing-face on the interior of the hook for the ropes or chains which may be passed through it, give the greatest resistance to spreading and to ultimate rupture, which the amount of material in the original bar admits of. The symbol Δ is used to indicate the nominal capacity of the hook in tons of 2000 lbs. The formulae which determine the lines of the other parts of the hooks of the several sizes are as follows, the measurements being all expressed in inches:

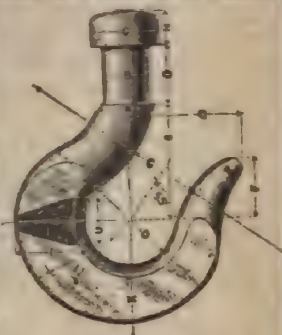


FIG. 164.

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= .5 \Delta + 1.25 & G &= .75D. & H &= 1.09A & L &= 1.05A \\
 B &= .64 \Delta + 1.00 & O &= .363 \Delta + .66 & I &= 1.33A & M &= .50A \\
 C &= .33 \Delta + .85 & Q &= .64 \Delta + 1.60 & J &= 1.30A & N &= .85B - .10 \\
 & & & & K &= 1.13A & U &= .888A
 \end{aligned}$$

The dimensions Δ are necessarily based upon the ordinary merchant size of round iron. The sizes which it has been found best to select are the following:

Capacity of hook:	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{16}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	4	5	6	8	10
Dimension Δ :	$11/16$	$3/4$	$1\ 1/16$	$1\ 1/4$	$1\ 3/8$	$1\ 7/8$	2	$2\ 1/4$	$2\ 3/4$	$3\ 1/4$	$3\ 3/4$

h_1 = reduced length of rope in l attached to ascending cage;
 h_2 = increased length of rope in l attached to descending cage;
 w = weight of rope per foot in pounds. Then

$$A = \left[\frac{Wv^2}{2gt} \right] + \left\{ \left(\frac{vt}{L^2} \right) - \frac{h_1 w + h_2 w}{2} \right\} K$$

PNSC.

Applying the above formula when designing new engines, we found that 30 inches diameter of cylinders would produce equal results, to those of the 36-inch cylinder in use, the latter was needed.

Counterbalancing may be employed in the following methods:

(a) *Tapering Rope*.—At the initial stage the tapering rope was wound from greater depths than is possible with ropes of uniform thickness. The thickness of such a rope at any point should only be such as to bear the load on it at that point.

With tapering ropes we obtain a smaller difference between the final load, but the difference is still considerable, and for perfect equality of the load we must rely on some other resource. The thicker ropes is to obtain a rope of uniform strength, thinner at the end where the weight is least, and thicker at the drum end where it is greatest.

(b) *The Counterpoise System* consists of a heavy chain worked down a staple pit, the motion being obtained by means of a drum placed on the same axis as the winding drum. It is so arranged the chain hangs in full length down the staple pit at the commencement of the winding; in the centre of the run the whole of the chain is at the bottom of the pit, and, finally, at the end of the winding the chain has been rewound upon the small drum, and is in the same position as was at the commencement.

(c) *Loaded-wagon System*.—A plan, formerly much employed, have a loaded wagon running on a short incline in place of which the rope actuating this wagon being connected in the same manner above to a subsidiary drum. The incline was constructed steeply at commencement, the inclination gradually decreasing to nothing. At the end of a wind the wagon was at the top of the incline, and during the winding of the run gradually passed down it till, at the meet of cages, it was exerted on the engine—the wagon by this time being at the bottom of the latter part of the wind the resistance was all against the engine its having to pull the wagon up the incline, and this resistance was from nothing at the meet of cages to its greatest quantity at the end of the lift.

(d) *The Endless rope System* is preferable to all others, if the cost of sump room and the shaft is free from tubes, cross timbers, impediments. It consists in placing beneath the cages a tail rope in diameter to the winding rope, and, after conveying this down to the bottom, attaching it beneath the other cage.

(e) *Flat Ropes Coiling on Reels*.—This means of winding allows of equalization, for the radius of the coil of ascending rope increases, while that of the descending one continues to diminish. Consequently, as the resistance decreases in the ascending load it increases, and as the power increases in the other, the leverage of the drum. The variation in the leverage is a constant quantity, and is equal to the thickness of the rope where it is wound on the drum.

By the above means a remarkable uniformity in the load is obtained, the only objection being the use of flat ropes, which wear, and only last about two thirds the time of round ones.

(f) *Conical Drums*.—Results analogous to the preceding may be obtained by using round ropes coiling on conical drums, which may either be made with the successive coils lying side by side, or they may be given a spiral groove. The objection to these forms is, that perfect equalization is not obtained with the conical drums unless the sides are very steep, consequently there is great risk of the rope slipping; to obviate this, conical drums were proposed. They are, however, very expensive, and the displacement of the winding rope from the centre line of the drum is very great owing to their necessary large width.

(g) *The Knap System of Winding*.—An iron pulley with a rope passing over its head-gear pulley, round the drum, and then over its head-gear pulley, round the drum.

the other head-gear pulley, is connected with the second cage. The rope thus encircles about half the periphery of the drum in the manner as a driving-belt on an ordinary pulley. There is a balance weight between the cages, passing round a pulley in the sump; the arrangement may be likened to an endless rope, the two cages being simply points on it.

BELT-CONVEYORS.

Grain-elevators. American Grain-elevators are described in a paper by E. Lee Heidenreich, read at the International Engineering Congress, Chicago (Trans. A. S. C. E. 1893). See also Trans. A. S. M. E. vii, 600.

Belts for carrying Grain.—Flexible-rubber bands are extensively used for carrying grain in and around elevators and warehouses. An instance is given of the grain-storage warehouses of the Alexandria Dock, Liverpool (Inst. M. E., July, 1891), describes the performance of these bands. They are three miles in length. A band $16\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, 1370 feet long, moving at 10 feet per second has a carrying capacity of 50 tons per hour. See paper on Belts as Grain Conveyors, by T. W. Hugo, Trans. A. S. M. E., 1900.

Carrying-bands or Belts are used for the purpose both of sorting and of removing impurities. These carrying-bands may be said to be of two descriptions, namely, the wire belt, which consists of a length of woven wire; and the steel-plate belt, which consists of three endless chains, carrying steel plates varying in width from 6 to 14 inches. (Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1890.)

CRANES.

Definition of Cranes. (Henry R. Towne, Trans. A. S. M. E., iv, 1895, in *Hoisting*, published by The Yale & Towne Mfg. Co.)

A crane is a machine for raising and lowering weights. A Crane is a machine with the added capacity of moving the load in a horizontal or lateral direction.

Cranes are divided into two classes, as to their motions, viz., *Rotary* and *Rectilinear*, and into four groups, as to their source of motive power, viz.:

- 1. *When operated by manual power.*
- 2. *When driven by power derived from line shafting.*
- 3. *Electric, Hydraulic, or Pneumatic.*—When driven by an engine or engine-motor attached to the crane, and operated by steam, electricity, water, or compressed air, supplied to the crane from a fixed source of supply.
- 4. *Self-propelled.*—When the crane is provided with its own boiler or other source of power, and is self-propelling; usually being capable of both rotary and rectilinear motions.

Rotary and Rectilinear Cranes are thus subdivided:

ROTARY CRANES.

- Revolving cranes.**—Having rotation, but no trolley motion.
- Travelling cranes.**—Having rotation, and a trolley travelling on the jib.
- Column cranes.**—Identical with the jib-cranes, but rotating around a vertical column (which usually supports a floor above).
- Pillar cranes.**—Having rotation only; the pillar or column being supported entirely from the foundation.
- Jib cranes.**—Identical with the last, except in having a jib and trolley motion.
- Truck cranes.**—Identical with jib-cranes, except that the head of the crane is held in position by guy-rods, instead of by attachment to a roof or other support.
- Traveling cranes.**—Consisting of a pillar or jib-crane mounted on wheels, and adapted to travel longitudinally upon one or more rails.
- Truck cranes.**—Consisting of a pillar crane mounted on a truck, and adapted with a steam-engine capable of propelling and rotating the truck, and of hoisting and lowering the load.

RECTILINEAR CRANES.

- Bridge cranes.**—Having a fixed bridge spanning an opening, and a trolley moving across the bridge.
- Truck cranes.**—Consisting of a truck, or short bridge, travelling on overhead rails, and without trolley motion.
- Travelling cranes.**—Consisting of a bridge moving longitudinally on overhead rails, and a trolley moving transversely on the bridge.

A Large Travelling-crane, designed and built by Engineering Co., Alliance, O., for the 12-inch-gun shop at the Navy Yard, is described in *American Mechanist*, June 12, 1903. It has a net tonnage of 150 tons; distance between centres of inside rails, 50 ft. 6 in.; cross travel, 44 ft. 2 in.; effective lift, 40 ft.; four speeds for hoisting, 4, 8, 16 and 32 ft. per min.; four speeds for travelling, 150, 75, 37½ and 18¾ ft. per min.; traversing speeds of trolley on bridge, 25 and 50 ft. per min.; speeds of bridge on main track, 30 and 60 ft. per minute. See page 100 for details.

A 150-ton Pillar-crane was erected in 1899 on the Glasgow Harbour. The jib is formed of two steel tubes, each 29 in. in diameter and 65 ft. long. The radius of sweep for heavy lifts is 65 ft. The jib is counterbalanced by a balance box weighted with 100 tons of iron. In a test a 150-ton load was lifted at the rate of 4 in. per min. and a complete revolution made with this load in 5 minutes. See page 100 for details.

Compressed-air Travelling-cranes.—Compressed-air travelling cranes have been built by the Lane & Bodley Co., Glasgow. They are of 20 tons nominal capacity, each about 50 ft. span and 10 ft. high. They are of the triple-motor type, a pair of simple rods being used for each of the necessary operations, the pair of rods for bridge and the pair for the trolley travel being each 5-in. diameter, while the pair for hoisting is 7-in. bore by 9-in. stroke, furnished by a compressor having steam and air cylinders of 12 in. diameter and 12 in. stroke, which with a boiler pressure of about 80 psi. pressure when required of somewhat over 100 pounds. This is allowed to run continuously without a governor, the speed being regulated by the resistance of the air in a receiver. From a pipe extending along one of the supporting trusses communication is maintained with an auxiliary receiver on each traveller by 1-in. hose, the object of the auxiliary receiver being to provide air near the engines for immediate demands and independent connection, which may thus be of small dimension. Some of the advantages possessed by this type of crane are: simplicity; absence of moving parts, excepting those required for a particular motion; it is in use; no danger from fire, leakage, electric shocks, or explosion; repair; variable speeds and reversal without gearing; almost no noise; and moderate cost.

Quay-cranes.—An illustrated description of several stationary and travelling cranes, with results of experiments on them, is given on page 100 for this Department of the Navy.

point. When the main rope draws a set of full cars out, the tail rope runs loose on the shaft, and the rope, being attached to the rear car, winds itself steadily. Going in, the reverse takes place. Each car is provided with a brake to check the speed of the train on a down grade, to prevent its overrunning the forward rope. As a rule, the tail rope is strained less than the main rope, but in cases of heavy grades and steep upward it is possible that the strain in the former may become as great or even larger, than in the latter, and in the selection of the cars it should be had to this circumstance.

IV. The Endless-rope System.—The principal features of this system are as follows:

1. The rope, as the name indicates, is endless.
 2. Motion is given to the rope by a single wheel or drum, and friction is obtained either by a grip-wheel or by passing the rope several times over the wheel.
 3. The rope must be kept constantly tight, the tension to be produced by artificial means. It is done in placing either the return wheel or a tension wheel on a carriage and connecting it with a weight hanging over a pulley, or attaching it to a fixed post by a screw which occasionally has to be shortened.
 4. The cars are attached to the rope by a grip or clutch, which can hold at any place and let go again, starting and stopping the train at will without stopping the engine or the motion of the rope.
 5. On a single-track road the rope works forward and backward, but on a double track it is possible to run it always in the same direction, the full cars going on one track and the empty cars on the other.
- This method of conveying coal, as a rule, has not found as general introduction as the tail-rope system, probably because its efficiency is not so apparent and the opposing difficulties require greater mechanical contrivances and more complicated appliances. Its advantages are, first, that it requires one third less rope than the tail-rope system. This advantage, however, is partially counterbalanced by the circumstance that the extra tension the rope requires a heavier size to move the same load than when a main and tail rope are used. The second and principal advantage is that it is possible to start and stop trains at will without signalling to the engine. On the other hand, it is more difficult to work curves with the endless rope, and still more so to work different branches, and the constant strain of the rope under tension or its elongation under changes of temperature frequently causes the rope to slip on the wheel, in spite of every precaution causing delay in the transportation and injury to the rope.

V. Wire-rope Tramways.—The methods of conveying material by a suspended rope tramway find especial application in places where a mine is located on one side of a river or deep ravine and the loading station is on the other. A wire rope suspended between the two stations forms the track on which material in properly constructed "carrriages" or "buggies" is transported. It saves the construction of a bridge or trestlework and is practical for a distance of 2000 feet without an intermediate support.

There are two distinct classes of rope tramways:

1. The rope is stationary, forming the track on which a bucket or car is suspended, the material moves forward and backward, pulled by a smaller cable or wire rope.
2. The rope is movable, forming itself an endless line, which serves at the same time as supporting track and as pulling rope.

Of these two the first method has found more general application and is especially adapted for long spans, steep inclinations, and heavy loads. The second method is used for long distances, divided into short spans and is only applicable for light loads which are to be delivered at regular intervals.

For detailed descriptions of the several systems of wire-rope transportation, see circulars of John A. Roebling's Sons Co., The Tranton Iron Works, and other wire-rope manufacturers. See also paper on Two-rope Hoisting Systems, by R. Van A. Norris, Trans. A. S. M. E., xii 626.

In the *Bleichert System* of wire-rope tramways, in which the track is stationary, loads of 1000 pounds each and upward are carried. When the average spans on a level are from 500 to 800 feet, in crossing steep ravines, however, spans up to 1500 feet are frequently adopted. At a tramway system at Granite, Montana, the total length of the line is 3000 feet, of which 1225 feet are descending loads, amounting to a constant strain of 12 tons, developed over 14 horse power, which is sufficient to supply the line with material as well as about 50 tons of supplies per day up the

to run the ore crusher and elevator. It is capable of delivering 250 of material in 10 hours.

SUSPENSION CABLEWAYS OR CABLE HOISTS.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

quarrying, rock-cutting, stripping, piling, dam-building, and many other operations where it is necessary to hoist and convey large individual loads economically, it frequently happens that the application of a system of cranes is impracticable, by reason of the limited area of their efficiency in the room which they occupy.

To meet such conditions cable-hoists are adapted, as they can be efficiently used in clear spans up to 1500 feet, and in lifting individual loads up to 100 tons. Two types are made—one in which the hoisting and conveying are done by separate running ropes, and the other applicable only to inclines, in which the carriage descends by gravity, and but one running rope is required. The moving of the carriage in the former is effected by means of an endless rope, and these are commonly known as "endless-rope" cableways to distinguish them from the latter, which are termed "inclined" cable-hoists.

A general arrangement of the endless-rope cable-hoists consists of a cable passing over towers, A frames or masts, as may be most convenient, and anchored firmly to the ground at each end, the requisite tension of the cable being maintained by a turnbuckle at one anchorage.

On this cable travels the carriage, which is moved back and forth over the line by means of the endless rope. The hoisting is done by a separate rope, both ropes being operated by an engine specially designed for the purpose, which may be located at either end of the line, and is constructed in such a way that the hoisting-rope is coiled up or paid out automatically as the carriage is moved in and out. Loads may be picked up or discharged at any point along the line. Where sufficient inclination can be obtained in the main cable for the carriage to descend by gravity, and the loading and unloading is done at fixed points, the endless rope can be dispensed with. The carriage, which is similar in construction to the carriage used in the endless-rope cableways, is arrested in its descent by a stop-block, which is clamped to the main cable at any desired point, the speed of the descending carriage being under control of a brake on the engine-drum.

Stress in Hoisting-ropes on Inclined Planes.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

Angle of inclination.	Stress in lbs. per ton of 3000 lbs.	Rise per 100 ft. horizontal.	Angle of inclination.	Stress in lbs. per ton of 3000 lbs.	Rise per 100 ft. horizontal.	Angle of inclination.	Stress in lbs. per ton of 3000 lbs.
horizontal.		ft.	horizontal.		ft.	horizontal.	
2° 52'	140	55	28° 49'	1008	110	47° 44'	1516
5° 49'	240	60	30° 58'	1067	120	50° 12'	1573
8° 32'	336	65	33° 02'	1128	130	52° 26'	1630
11° 10'	432	70	35° 00'	1185	140	54° 38'	1683
14° 03'	527	75	36° 53'	1248	150	56° 19'	1699
16° 42'	613	80	38° 40'	1307	160	58° 00'	1730
19° 18'	700	85	40° 22'	1362	170	59° 33'	1758
21° 49'	782	90	42° 00'	1375	180	60° 57'	1782
24° 14'	860	95	43° 32'	1415	190	62° 15'	1801
26° 34'	933	100	45° 00'	1450	200	63° 37'	1832

The above table is based on an allowance of 40 lbs. per ton for rolling friction, but an additional allowance must be made for stress due to the weight of the rope proportional to the length of the plane. A factor of safety of 5 should be taken.

The hoisting the slack-rope should be taken up gently before beginning the descent, otherwise a severe extra strain will be brought on the rope.

The best rope for inclined planes is composed of six strands of seven wires each, and about a humpen centre. The wires are much coarser than those of a 19-wire rope of the same diameter, and for this reason the 42-wire rope is better adapted to withstand the rough usage and surface wear of inclined planes.

The suspension cableway, carrying loads of 2½ tons, etc.

Williamsport, Pa., by the Trenton Iron Co., is described by E. G. Spillbury in *Trans. A. I. M. E.* ix. 766. The span is 733 feet, crossing the Susquehanna River. Two steel cables, each 2 in. diam., are used. On these cables runs a carriage supported on four wheels and moved by an endless cable 1 inch in diam. The load consists of a cage carrying a railroad-car loaded with lumber, the latter weighing about 12 tons. The power is furnished by a 50 H P. engine, and the trip across the river is made in about three minutes.

A hoisting cableway on the endless-rope system, erected by the Lidgerwood Mfg. Co., at the Austin Dam, Texas, had a single span 1350 ft. in length, with main cable $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam., and hoisting-rope $1\frac{3}{4}$ in. diam. Loads of 7 to 8 tons were handled at a speed of 600 to 800 ft. per minute.

Tension required to Prevent Slipping of Wire on Drum.—The amount of artificial tension to be applied in an endless rope to prevent slipping on the driving-drum depends on the character of the drum, the condition of the rope and number of laps which it makes. If T and S represent respectively the tensions in the taut and slack lines of the rope; W , the necessary weight to be applied to the tail-sheave; R , the resistance of the cars and rope, allowing for friction; n , the number of half-laps of the rope on the driving-drum; and f , the coefficient of friction, the following relations must exist to prevent slipping:

$$T = Se^{fn\pi}, \quad W = T + S, \quad \text{and} \quad R = T' - S;$$

$$\text{from which we obtain} \quad W = \frac{e^{fn\pi} + 1}{e^{fn\pi} - 1} R,$$

In which $e = 2.71828$, the base of the Napierian system of logarithms.

The following are some of the values of f :

	Dry.	Wet.	Greasy.
Rope on a grooved iron drum.....	.130	.085	.070
Rope on wood-filled sheaves.....	.235	.170	.140
Rope on rubber and leather filling.....	.495	.400	.305

The values of the coefficient $\frac{e^{fn\pi} + 1}{e^{fn\pi} - 1}$, corresponding to the above values

of f , for one up to six half-laps of the rope on the driving-drum or sheaves, are as follows:

f	$n = \text{Number of Half-laps on Driving-wheel.}$					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
.070	9.180	4.623	3.141	2.418	1.969	1.729
.085	7.546	3.833	2.620	2.047	1.714	1.505
.130	5.345	2.777	1.953	1.570	1.358	1.232
.140	4.623	2.418	1.729	1.416	1.240	1.154
.170	3.833	2.047	1.505	1.268	1.149	1.085
.205	3.212	1.762	1.338	1.165	1.083	1.043
.235	2.831	1.562	1.215	1.110	1.051	1.024
.400	1.765	1.176	1.047	1.013	1.004	1.001
.495	1.538	1.003	1.010	1.004	1.001	

The importance of keeping the rope dry is evident from these figures.

When the rope is at rest the tension is distributed equally on the two lines of the rope, but when running there will be a difference in the tensions of the taut and slack lines equal to the resistance, and the values of T and S may be readily computed from the foregoing formulae.

Taper Ropes of Uniform Tensile Strength.—Prof. A. S. Herschel in *The Engineer*, April, 1880, p. 267, gives an elaborate mathematical investigation of the problem of making a taper hoisting-rope of uniform tensile strength at every point in its length. Mr. Charles D. West, commenting on Prof. Herschel's paper, gives a similar solution, and derives therefrom the following formula, based on a breaking strain of 20,000 lbs. per sq. in. of the rope, core included, with a factor of safety of 10:

$$F = 9680(\log G - \log g); \quad \log G = \frac{F}{2680} + \log g;$$

in which F = length in fathoms, and G and g the girth in inches at any two sections F fathoms apart.

EXAMPLE—Let it be required to find the dimensions of a steel-wire rope to transmit 4000 lbs.—cage, train, and coal—from a depth of 400 fathoms. Area of section at lower end = $6720 \div 4000 = .84$ sq. in.; therefore girth = 1.04 in. at bottom.

$$\text{Log } G = 400 + 3680 \div \log 3.25 = .10869 + .51188 = .62057;$$

therefore $G = 4.174$, or, say, 4.3 in. girth at top.

Equations show that the true form of rope is not a regular taper or straight cone, but follows a logarithmic curve, the girth rapidly increasing towards the upper end.

Relative Effect of Various-sized Sheaves or Drums on the Life of Wire Ropes.

(Thos. E. Hughes, *Colly Eng.*, April, 1893.)

CAST-STEEL ROPES FOR INCLINES.

Made of 6 strands, of 7 wires each, laid around a hemp core.

Diameter of rope in in.	Diameters of Sheaves or Drums in feet, showing percentages of life for various diameters.						
	100%.	90%.	80%.	75%.	60%.	50%.	25%.
16	14	12	11	9	7	4.75	
14	12	10	8.5	7	6	4.5	
12	10	8	7.25	6.5	5.5	4.25	
10	8.5	7.75	7	6	5	4	
8.5	7.75	7	6.75	6	5	4.5	3.75
7.75	7	6.25	5.75	4.5	3.75	3.25	
7	6.25	5.5	5	4.25	3.5	2.75	
6	5.25	4.5	4	3.25	3	2.5	
5	4.5	4	3.5	2.75	2.25	1.75	

Use of iron ropes for inclines has been generally abandoned, steel being more satisfactory and economical.

CAST-STEEL HOISTING-ROPES.

Made of 6 strands, of 19 wires each, laid around a hemp core.

Diameter of rope in in.	Diameters of Sheaves or Drums in feet, showing percentages of life for various diameters.						
	100%.	90%.	80%.	75%.	60%.	50%.	25%.
14	12	10	8.5	7	6	4.5	
12	10	8	7	6	5.25	4.25	
10	8.5	7.5	6.75	5.5	5	4	
8	7.5	6.5	6	5	4.5	3.75	
7.5	7	6	5.5	4.5	4	3.50	
6.75	6.75	5.75	5	4.25	3.5	3	
5.5	4.5	4	3.75	3.25	3	2.25	
4.5	4	3.75	3.25	3	2.5	2	
4	3	3	2.75	2.25	2	1.5	
3	2	1.5	

WIRE-ROPE TRANSMISSION.

Following data and formulae are taken from a paper by Wm. Hewitt, Trenton Iron Co., 1890. (See also circulars of John A. Roebling's Co., Trenton, N. J.; "Transmission of Power by Wire Ropes," by A. Phil. Van Nostrand's Science Series No. 28; and Reuleaux's Constructor.)

Section of Wire Rope best suited, under ordinary conditions, for transmission of power is composed of 6 strands of 7 wires each, laid in about a hempen centre. Ropes of 12 and 19 wires to the strand are preferred. They are more flexible, and may be applied with advantage on inclines which do not allow the use of large transmission wheels, but at high speed. They are not as well adapted to stand surface wear on account of the smaller size of the wires.

The Driving-wheels (Fig. 165) are usually of cast iron made as light as possible consistent with the requisite strength.

Materials have been used for filling the bottom of the groove, such as tar, jute yarn, hard wood, India-rubber. The filling which gives the heat on the rope, however, consists of segments of blocks of India-rubber, soaked in oil, and packed alternately in the groove, turned to a true surface.

In long spans, intermediate wheels are frequently used, and are sufficient to support only the slack side of the rope; but whatever the side of the rope that the power is transmitted, the side of the rope will require a less number of supports than the slack side. The supporting the driving side, however, in all cases be of equal diameter with the wheels. With the slack side small wheels may be used, but their diameter should not be less than one half that of the driving-sheaves.

The system of carrying sheaves may generally be replaced by that of intermediate stations. The rope thus, instead of running the whole length of the transmission, runs only from one station to the next. It is advisable to make the stations equidistant, so that a rope can be on hand, ready spliced, to put on the wheels of any span, and give out. This method is to be preferred where there is a sudden motion to the rope, as it prevents sudden movements of this kind being transmitted over the entire line.

Gross horse-power transmitted = $N_0 = .0003702 D^2 v \left(k - \frac{ED}{18R} \right)$
 D = diameter of rope in inches (= 9 times diameter of single wire);
 v = velocity of rope in feet per second; k = safe stress per square inch = for iron 25,700 lbs.; E = modulus of elasticity = 29,000,000 lbs. per square inch;
 R = radius of driving-wheels in inches. The term $\frac{ED}{18R}$ = the stress in inch due to bending of wires around sheaves.

Loss due to centrifugal force = $N_1 = .0000424 D^2 v^3$;
 Loss due to journal friction of driving-wheels = $N_2 = .0000424 W$;
 Loss due to intermediate-wheels = $N_3 = .0000424 w$;
 in which W = total weight of rope; w = weight of wheel and axle;
 Net horse-power transmitted,

$$N = N_0 - N_1 - N_2 = D^2 v \left[.0003702 \left(k - \frac{ED}{18R} \right) - .0000424 v^2 \right]$$

For a maximum value of N the diameter of the wheels should be not less than 185 to 192 times the diameter of the rope, and for a ratio of diameters an approximate formula for the actual horse-power transmitted is $N = 3.0148 D^2 V$, in which V = number of revolutions of wheels per minute.

The proper deflections when the rope is at rest are obtained by the following formula: Deflection = $.00005765 \text{ span}^2$, and are as follows:

Span in feet ..	50	100	150	200	250	300	350
Deflection ..	13 1/4"	7"	1' 3 1/2"	2' 3 1/2"	3' 7 1/4"	5' 2 1/4"	7' 5 1/2"

It has been found in practice that when the deflection of the rope is less than 3 inches the transmission cannot be effected with a single shafting or belting is to be preferred. This deflection corresponds to a span of about 54 feet. It is customary to make the upper side of the rope the driving side. The maximum limit of span is determined by the minimum deflection that may be given to the upper side of the rope. Assuming that the clearance between the upper and lower wheels of the rope should not be less than two feet, and that the minimum deflection in diameter, we have a maximum deflection of the upper side of the rope which corresponds to a span of about 370 feet.

Much greater spans than this are practicable, in cases where the rope is of such a size that the upper side of the rope can be supported by a single wheel.

er, as in crossing gullies or valleys, and there is nothing to interfere with using the proper deflections. Some very long transmissions of power have been effected in this way without an intervening support. There is one at Rockport, N. Y., for instance, with a clear span of about 1700 feet.

A later circular of the Trenton Iron Co. (1899) the above figures are what modified, giving lower values for the power transmitted by a given rope, as follows:

The proper ratio between the diameters of rope and sheaves is that which permit the maximum working tension to be obtained without overstraining the wires in bending. For rope of 7-wire strands this ratio is about 10; for rope of 12-wire strands, 1:11½; and for rope of 19-wire strands, which gives the following minimum diameter of sheaves, in inches, responding to maximum efficiency.

Rope, in inches.	¼	5/16	¾	7/16	1½	9/16	5/8	11/16	¾	¾	1	1½
Wire strands,	37	47	56	66	75	84	94	103	112
"	36	43	50	57	65	72	78	86	101	115
"	34	39	45	51	56	62	68	73	90	101

Assuming the sheaves are of equal diameter, and not smaller than consistent with maximum efficiency as determined by the preceding table, the horse-power transmitted approximately equals 3.1 times the square of the diameter of the rope in inches multiplied by the velocity in feet per second.

From this rule we deduce the following:

Horse-power of Wire-rope Transmission.

Velocity, in feet per second.	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Rope, in inches.	Horse-power Transmitted.						
1/4	1	6	8	10	12	14	16
5/16	6	9	12	15	18	21	24
¾	9	13	17	22	26	31	35
7/16	12	18	24	30	36	42	47
1/2	15	23	31	39	47	54	62
9/16	20	29	39	49	59	69	78
5/8	24	36	48	61	73	85	97
11/16	29	44	59	73	88	103	117
¾	35	52	70	87	106	122	140
7/8	48	71	95	119	142	166	190
1	62	93	124	155	186	217	248

The proper deflection to give the rope in order to secure the necessary tension is

$$h = .0000958S^2.$$

where h is the deflection with the rope at rest, and S = the span, both in feet.

Durability of Wire Ropes.—At the Risdon Iron Works, San Francisco, a steel wire rope 2½ inches in circumference running over 10-foot gages at 5000 ft. per minute has transmitted 40 H.P. for six years without sawing the rope. At the wire-mills a steel wire rope 2½ in. in circumference running over 8-foot sheaves has been running steadily for a period of six years at a velocity of 1500 ft. per minute, transmitting 80 H.P.

In Inclined Transmissions, when the angle of inclination is great, the proper deflections cannot be readily determined, and the rope becomes more sensitive to the ordinary variations in the deflections, so that tightening sheaves must be resorted to for producing the requisite tension. In the case of very short spans. When the horizontal distance between two wheels is less than 60 ft., or when the angle of inclination exceeds 45 degrees, it will be found desirable to use tightening sheaves.

Where pulleys should be placed on the slack side of the rope.

Wire-rope Catenary. (From an article on

transmission, by M. Arthur Achard, Proc. Inst. M. E., Jan. 1900.)

have to bear two distinct molecular strains: First, a

well as upon its lineal weight, that the tension to which it tends. By fixing the weight of the rope and its length, the two spans assume in common, when at rest, is determined, their common tension: which latter must be such as to produce the two unequal tensions, T and t , necessary for the true power. The driving force $= T - t$.

Moreover, the tension in either span is not the same throughout its length: it is a minimum at the lowest point of the curve and increases towards the two extremities. The calculation of the tension at any point is very complicated if based upon the true form of the curve, but by substituting a parabola for the catenary, which is almost always the case, the calculation becomes simple. If the two points are on the same level, the lowest point is midway between them, and

this point is $S_0 = \frac{pl^2}{8h}$, p being the lineal weight, or pounds

per foot, l its horizontal projection, which is approximately equal to the distance between the centres of the pulleys, and h the deflection in the middle. A catenary possesses the remarkable mechanical property that the difference between the tensions at any two points is equal to the weight of the rope corresponding to the difference in level between the

points. Therefore at the two ends will be $S_1 = S_0 + ph_1$

substituting for S_1 in the above equation the required value, and solving it with relation to h , the deflections h_1 and h_2 of the two trailing spans will be obtained. The deflection h_0 of the middle span

at rest, is given by the equation $h_0 = \frac{1}{8} \frac{pl^2}{h_0} + \frac{1}{8} \frac{ph_0^2}{h_0}$. If the area of the iron portion of the rope, and S the unit strain which

tension T produces on it, we have $wS = T = \frac{pl^2}{8h_1} + ph_1$. The

area w of the rope in square inches, and its weight p in pounds per foot. The ratio $w + p$ differs little from a mean value of 0.24. The working tension usually assigned for iron-wire ropes is 5 lbs. per square inch. Hence $wS + p = 0.24 \times 14,220 = 3410$; and we

have the equation $\frac{l^2}{8h_1} + h_1 = 3410$, which is useful as giving

the length l and deflection h_1 for the driving-span of a rope. For leather, $w + p = 2.53$ approximately, and it is impossible to

use a value than about 855 lbs. per square inch; the relation is

$\frac{l^2}{8h_1} + h_1 = 900$, which with equal deflections would give

extremities; the tension at the upper end of each exceeds that at the other by the quantity pH , H being the difference in level between the centres of the two pulleys, or, which is approximately the same, between the centres of the driving-span at its lower end and the driven-span at its lower end. It is evidently the tension of the driving-span at its lower end which must be regulated so as to obtain the proper driving tension at the driven pulley. Large diameter of pulleys tends to preserve the ropes, makes the effect of stiffness insignificant, and diminishes the effect of friction on the ropes.

Other formula for the tension at the ends of a catenary (assuming it to be a parabola) is $S_1 = \frac{W}{2h} \{ \frac{1}{2} l^2 + (2h)^2 \}$, in which S = the tension in lbs., W = weight of the rope in lbs.; l = span, and h = deflection, in feet.

Diameter and Weight of Pulleys for Wire Rope, Ordinary.

Diameter, ft.	18	14.9	12.4	7.0
Single groove, lbs. ...	6232	5180	2425	798
Double groove, lbs. ...	8267	6888	4078	1164

Table of Transmission of Power by Wire Ropes.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co., 1886.)

in feet.	Number of Revolutions.	Trade No. of Rope.	Diameter of Rope.	Horse- power.	in feet.	Number of Revolu- tions.	Trade No. of Rope.	Diameter of Rope.	Horse- power.
80	23	5/8	3	7	140	20	9/16	35	
100	23	5/8	3 1/2	8	80	19	5/8	26	
120	23	5/8	4	8	100	19	5/8	32	
140	23	5/8	4 1/2	8	120	19	5/8	39	
80	23	5/8	4	8	140	19	5/8	45	
100	23	5/8	5	9	80	20	9/16 3/4	47	
120	23	5/8	6	9	100	20	9/16 3/4	48	
140	23	5/8	7	9	120	20	9/16 3/4	58	
80	22	7/16	9	9	140	20	9/16 3/4	60	
100	22	7/16	11	10	80	19	9/16 3/4	69	
120	22	7/16	13	10	100	19	9/16 3/4	73	
140	22	7/16	15	10	120	19	9/16 3/4	84	
80	21	3/4	14	10	140	19	5/8 11/16	87	
100	21	3/4	17	12	80	18	5/8 11/16	88	
120	21	3/4	20	12	100	18	5/8 11/16	90	
140	21	3/4	23	12	120	18	5/8 11/16	102	
80	20	9/16	20	12	140	17	5/8 11/16	112	
100	20	9/16	25	14	80	17	11/16 3/4	110	
120	20	9/16	30	14	100	17	11/16 3/4	123	
						16	3/4	136	
						8	1 1 1/2	141	
						7	1 1 1/2	148	
						7	1 1 1/2	173	
						7		185	

Long-distance Transmissions. (From Circular of the Trenton Co., 1892.)—In very long transmissions of power the conditions do not admit of obtaining the proper tensions required in the ordinary system of "flying transmission of power," as it is termed. In other words, to obtain the proper conditions, it would necessitate numerous and expensive intermediate stations. In case, for instance, it is desired to utilize the power of a turbine to drive a factory, say a mile away, the best method is to employ a larger rope than would ordinarily be used, running it at a moderate

speed. The rope may be in one continuous length, supported, at intervals of about 100 ft., on sheaves of comparatively small diameter, since the greater rigidity of these ropes preserves them from undue bending. Where sharp angles occur in the line, however, sheaves must be of a size corresponding to the safe limit of tension due to bending. The rope must run under a high working tension, far in excess of what in the ordinary system would cause the rope to slip on the sheaves. The working tension may be four or five times as great as the tension in the slack portion of the rope, and in order to prevent slipping, the rope is wrapped several times about grooved drums, or a series of sheaves at each end of the line provide for the slack due to the stretch of the rope, one of the sheaves placed on a slide worked by long-threaded bolts, or, better still, on a slide provided with counterweights, which runs back and forth on a rail. The latter preserves a uniform tension in the slack portion of the rope, which is very important.

Wire-rope trainways are practically transmissions of power of the type in which the load, however, instead of being concentrated at one terminal, is distributed uniformly over the entire line. Cable railways are also transmissions of this class. The amount of horse-power transmitted is given by the formula

$$N = [4.755D^2 - .000006(W' + g + g_2)]v;$$

in which D = diameter of the rope in inches; v = velocity in ft. per sec.; W' = weight of the rope; g = weight of the terminal sheaves and axles; g_2 = weight of the intermediate sheaves and axles.

ROPE-DRIVING.

The transmission of power by cotton or manila ropes promises to be a formidable competitor with gearing and leather belting for use where the amount of power is large, or the distance between the power and the driven shaft is comparatively great. The following is condensed from a paper by W. Hunt, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xii, p. 230:

But few accurate data are available, on account of the long period required in each experiment, a rope lasting from three to six years. In the early applications so great a strain was put upon the rope that wear was rapid, and success only came when the work required of the rope was greatly reduced. The strain upon the rope has been decreased, and it is approximately known what it should be to secure reasonable durability. Installations which have been successful, as well as those in which the rope was destructive, indicate that 200 lbs. on a rope one inch in diameter is a safe and economical working strain. When the strain is increased, the wear is rapid.

In the following equations

C = circumference of rope in inches; g = gravity;
 D = sag of the rope in inches; H = horse-power;
 F = centrifugal force in pounds; L = distance between pulleys;
 P = pounds per foot of rope; w = working strain in pounds;
 R = force in pounds doing useful work;
 S = strain in pounds on the rope at the pulley;
 T = tension in pounds of driving side of the rope;
 t = tension in pounds on slack side of the rope;
 v = velocity of the rope in feet per second;
 W = ultimate breaking strain in pounds.

$$W = 720C^2; \quad P = .032C^2; \quad w = 20C^2.$$

This makes the normal working strain equal to 1/36 of the breaking strength, and about 1/25 of the strength at the splice. The actual strain is ordinarily much greater, owing to the vibrations in running, as well as to imperfectly adjusted tension mechanism.

For this investigation we assume that the strain on the driving side of the rope is equal to 200 lbs. on a rope one inch in diameter, and an equal strain for other sizes, and that the rope is in motion at various velocities from 10 to 140 ft. per second.

The centrifugal force of the rope in running over the pulley will

amount of force available for the transmission of power. The centrifugal force $F = P v^2 + g$.

At a speed of about 80 ft. per second, the centrifugal force increases faster than the power from increased velocity of the rope, and at about 140 ft. per second it equals the assumed allowable tension of the rope. Computing this at various speeds and then subtracting it from the assumed maximum tension, we have the force available for the transmission of power. The amount of this force cannot be used, because a certain amount of tension on each side of the rope is needed to give adhesion to the pulley. What tension should be given to the rope for this purpose is uncertain, as there are no experiments which give accurate data. It is known from considerable experience that when the rope runs in a groove whose sides are inclined to each other at an angle of 45° there is sufficient adhesion when the sum of the tensions $T + t = 2$.

For the present purpose, T can be divided into three parts: 1. Tension for useful work; 2. Tension from centrifugal force; 3. Tension to balance the rope for adhesion.

The tension t can be divided into two parts: 1. Tension for adhesion; 2. Tension from centrifugal force.

It is evident, however, that the tension required to do a given work should not be materially exceeded during the life of the rope.

There are two methods of putting ropes on the pulleys; one in which the rope is single and spliced on, being made very taut at first, and less so as the rope lengthens, stretching until it slips, when it is respliced. The other method is to wind a single rope over the pulley as many turns as needed to give the necessary horse power and put a tension pulley to give the necessary adhesion and also take up the wear. The tension t required to transmit normal horse-power for the ordinary speeds and sizes of rope is computed by formula (1), below. The total tension T on the driving side of the rope is assumed to be the same at all speeds. The centrifugal force, as well as the amount equal to the tension for adhesion on the slack side of the rope, is taken from the total tension T to ascertain the amount of force available for the transmission of power.

It is assumed that the tension on the slack side necessary for giving useful work is equal to one half the force doing useful work on the driving side.

For the rope; hence the force for useful work is $R = \frac{2(T - F)}{3}$; and the tension on the slack side to give the required adhesion is $\frac{1}{2}(T - F)$. Hence

$$t = \frac{(T - F)}{3} + F. \quad (1)$$

The sum of the tensions T and t is not the same at different speeds, as the formula (1) indicates.

As F varies as the square of the velocity, there is, with an increasing velocity of the rope, a decreasing useful force, and an increasing total tension, on the slack side.

Under these assumptions of allowable strains the horse-power will be

$$H = \frac{2v(T - F)}{3 \times 550}. \quad (2)$$

Transmission ropes are usually from 1 to $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter. A comparison of the horse-power for four sizes at various speeds and under ordinary conditions, based on a maximum strain equivalent to 200 lbs. for a one-inch diameter, is given in Fig. 166. The horse-power of other sizes is readily obtained from these. The maximum power is transmitted, under the assumed conditions, at a speed of about 80 feet per second.

The wear of the rope is both internal and external; the internal is caused by the movement of the fibres on each other, under pressure in bending the sheaves, and the external is caused by the slipping and the wedging of the grooves of the pulley. Both of these causes of wear are, within limits of ordinary practice, assumed to be directly proportional to the velocity.

Hence, if we assume the coefficient of the wear to be k , the wear w will be in which the wear increases directly as the velocity, but the horse-power that can be transmitted, as equation (2) shows, will not vary at the same rate.

The rope is supposed to have the strain T constant at all speeds on the driving side, and in direct proportion to the area of the cross-section; hence

the contrary of the driving side is not affected by the speed or by the diameter of the rope.

The deflection of the rope between the pulleys on the slack side varies with each change of the load or change of the speed, as the tension equals (1) indicates.

The deflection of the rope is computed for the assumed value of T and

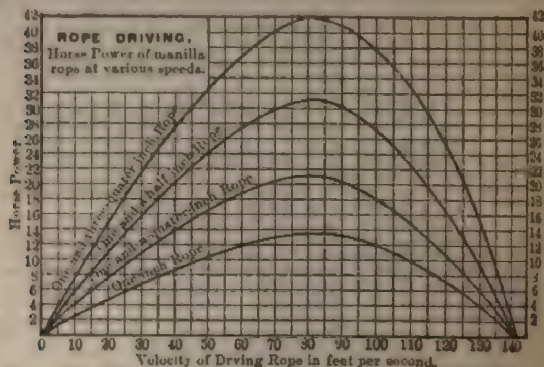


FIG. 166.

by the parabolic formula $S = \frac{PL^2}{8D} + PD$, S being the assumed strain on the driving side, and t , calculated by equation (1), on the slack side. The tension t varies with the speed.

Horse-power of Transmission Rope at Various Speeds.

Computed from formula (2), given above.

Diam. of Ropes.	Speed of the Rope in feet per minute.										Diam. of Ropes.	
	1500	2000	2500	3000	3500	4000	4500	5000	6000	7000		8000
1/4	1.45	1.9	2.3	2.7	3	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.1	2.9	0	1/4
5/16	2.3	3.2	3.6	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.3	4.9	3.4	0	5/16
3/8	3.3	4.3	5.2	5.8	6.7	7.2	7.7	7.7	7.1	4.9	0	3/8
1/2	4.5	5.9	7.0	8.2	9.1	9.2	10.8	10.8	9.3	6.9	0	1/2
5/8	5.8	7.7	9.2	10.7	11.9	12.8	13.6	13.7	12.3	8.8	0	5/8
3/4	7.2	12.1	14.3	16.8	18.0	20.0	21.2	21.4	19.5	13.8	0	3/4
1 1/4	13.1	17.4	20.7	23.1	26.8	28.8	30.6	30.8	28.2	19.0	0	1 1/4
1 1/2	18	23.7	28.2	32.8	36.4	39.2	41.5	41.8	37.4	27.6	0	1 1/2
2	23.2	30.8	36.8	42.8	47.6	51.2	54.4	54.8	50	35.2	0	2

The following notes are from the circular of the C. W. Hunt Co., New York:

For a temporary installation, when the rope is not to be long in use it might be advisable to increase the work to double that given in the table.

For convenience in estimating the necessary clearance on the driving and on the slack sides, we insert a table showing the sag of the rope at different speeds when transmitting the horse-power given in the preceding table. When at rest the sag is not the same as when running, being greater on the driving and less on the slack sides of the rope. The sag of the driving side when transmitting the normal horse-power is the same no matter what size of rope is used or what the speed driven at, because the assumption is that the strain on the rope shall be the same at all speeds when transmitting

force available for the transmission of power. The centrifugal force $F = \frac{W}{g} \cdot v^2$.

About 80 ft. per second, the centrifugal force increases faster than increased velocity of the rope, and at about 140 ft. per second assumed allowable tension of the rope. Computing these speeds and then subtracting it from the assumed maximum force available for the transmission of power. This force cannot be used, because a certain amount of tension on the rope is needed to give adhesion to the pulley. What is given to the rope for this purpose is uncertain, as there is no which give accurate data. It is known from considerable experience when the rope runs in a groove whose sides are inclined at an angle of 45° there is sufficient adhesion when the tensions $T + t = 2$.

For this purpose, T can be divided into three parts: 1. Tension for adhesion; 2. Tension from centrifugal force; 3. Tension to balance tension.

T can be divided into two parts: 1. Tension for adhesion; 2. Tension from centrifugal force.

However, that the tension required to do a given work should not be exceeded during the life of the rope.

Methods of putting ropes on the pulleys; one in which the rope is spliced on, being made very taut at first, and less so as it stretches until it slips, when it is respliced. The other is to run a single rope over the pulley as many turns as needed to carry horse power and put a tension pulley to give the necessary force also take up the wear. The tension t required to transmit power for the ordinary speeds and sizes of rope is computed (1), below. The total tension T on the driving side of the rope to be the same at all speeds. The centrifugal force, as well as equal to the tension for adhesion on the slack side of the rope, from the total tension T to ascertain the amount of force available for transmission of power.

Let the tension on the slack side necessary for giving t to one half the force doing useful work on the driving side. The force for useful work is $R = \frac{2(T - F)}{3}$; and the tension on the slack side to give the required adhesion is $\frac{1}{2}(T - F)$. Hence

$$t = \frac{(T - F)}{3} + F \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

The tensions T and t is not the same at different speeds, as the forces.

As the square of the velocity, there is, with an increasing speed, a decreasing useful force, and an increasing total tension, also.

Assumptions of allowable strains the horse-power will be

$$H = \frac{2v(T - F)}{3 \times 650} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Ropes are usually from 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter. A comparison of horse-power for four sizes at various speeds and under various conditions, based on a maximum strain equivalent to 200 lbs. for a rope of 1 inch diameter, is given in Fig. 166. The horse-power of other ropes obtained from these. The maximum power is transmitted, under conditions, at a speed of about 80 feet per second.

The wear on a rope is both internal and external; the internal is caused by the fibres on each other, under pressure in bending, and the external is caused by the slipping and the wedging of the pulley. Both of these causes of wear are, within ordinary practice, assumed to be directly proportional to the velocity. If we assume the coefficient of the wear to be k , the wear which the rope increases directly as the velocity, but the power that can be transmitted, as equation (2) shows, will not vary at the same rate.

It is assumed to have the strain T constant at all speeds on the driving side, in direct proportion to the area of the cross-section; hence

For large amounts of power it is common to use a number of rope side by side in grooves, each spliced separately. For smaller powers engineers use one rope wrapped as many times around the pulley as is necessary to get the horse-power required, with a time allowed for the slack as the rope wears when first put in use. The necessary tension pulley should be carefully adjusted, as the wear caused by friction from this cause is one of the most common errors in rope-driving. We therefore give a table showing the proper strain on the rope for various sizes, from which the tension weight to transmit the horse-power is easily deduced. This strain can be still further increased, horse-power transmitted is usually less than the nominal, and the rope was proportioned to do, or if the angle of groove is too acute.

DIAMETER OF PULLEYS AND WEIGHT OF ROPE.

Diameter of Rope, in inches.	Smallest Diameter of Pulleys, in inches.	Length of Rope to allow for splicing, in feet.	Weight of rope per foot.
$\frac{1}{4}$	30	6	2
$\frac{5}{16}$	34	6	2
$\frac{3}{8}$	40	7	3
$\frac{7}{16}$	36	8	3
1	42	9	4
$1\frac{1}{4}$	54	10	5
$1\frac{1}{2}$	60	12	6
$1\frac{3}{4}$	72	13	7
2	84	14	8

With a given velocity of the driving-rope, the weight of rope transmitting a given horse-power is the same, no matter what size is adopted. The smaller rope will require more parts, but the weight will be the same.

Miscellaneous Notes on Rope-driving.—W. H. Booth, in his *Minutes to the Amer. Machinist* the following data from English practice on cotton ropes. The calculated figures are based on a tensile strength of 10 on a $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch rope of 600 lbs., and an initial tension of 1,10 the static stress, which corresponds fairly with practice.

Diameter of rope.....	$1\frac{1}{4}$ "	$1\frac{3}{8}$ "	$1\frac{1}{2}$ "	$1\frac{3}{4}$ "	$1\frac{7}{8}$ "
Weight per foot, lbs.....	5	6	7	8	9
Centrifugal tension = V^2 divided by.....	64	53	44	38	33
" for $V = 80$ ft. per sec., lbs.....	100	121	145	170	192
Total tension allowable.....	300	360	430	500	600
Initial tension.....	80	96	115	136	160
Net working tension at 80 ft. velocity.....	170	203	242	280	337
Horse-power per rope.....	24	28	34	41	50

The most usual practice in Lancashire is summed up roughly in the following figures: $1\frac{3}{4}$ -inch cotton ropes at 5000 ft. per minute velocity, 24 horse-power. The most common sizes of rope now used are $1\frac{3}{4}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch. The maximum horse-power for a given rope is obtained at about 80 ft. per second. Above that speed the power is reduced by centrifugal force. At a speed of 2500 ft. per minute four ropes will do about the same work as three at 5000 ft. per min.

Cotton ropes do not require much lubrication in the sense that required by ropes made of the rough fibre of manila hemp. Good surface dressing is all that is required. For small ropes, common in mining machinery, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, it is the custom to prevent fluffing of the ropes on the surface by a light application of a mixture of black-lead and molasses,—but only enough should be used to lay the rope put upon one of the pulleys in a series of light dips.

Reuleaux's Constructor gives as the "specific capacity" of hemp ropes, in actual practice, that is, the horse-power transmitted per square inch of cross-section for each foot of linear velocity per minute, as follows: For a cross-section being taken as that due to the full outside diameter of the rope. For a $1\frac{3}{4}$ in. rope, with a cross-section of 2 sq. in. at 2500 ft. per min. this gives a horse-power of from 24 to 32. See Mr. Hunt's table and 49 by Mr. Booth's.

the formulæ for calculating sources of loss in hemp-ropes to (1) journal friction, (2) stiffness of ropes, and (3) creep constants in these formulæ are, however, uncertain from initial data. He calculates an average case giving loss of journal friction = 4%, to stiffness 7.8%, and to creep 5%, or 16.8% this is not to be considered higher than the actual loss.

(In *Eng'g News*, Dec. 6, 1890) says: In England hemp and have been largely superseded by ropes of cotton; and I am a reason for this is that dry manila ropes wear out too fast, ropes give too low a coefficient of friction. The angle of has been in use for 33 years, having been first introduced at Belfast, Ireland; but if we are to use tallow-laid or other, we should certainly use a sharper angle in the groove, American system, which employs a continuous rope with

formula, Tension of driving side of rope + tension of slack implies a coefficient of friction of only .10. But I have a coefficient of friction of .25, and have found one authority giving divides for single-line transmission 30° angle of groove. English engineer, and Yale & Towne use a 30° groove in wheels of travelling-cranes, and I hope to see the best American 30° or 35° as a standard groove angle. The work done in any manila rope from a 30° groove is not worth consideration. I hear a great deal about the loss of power on this account. I favor of using the continuous-rope system, and also of ropes than are recommended in Mr. Hunt's paper.

For small transmission I have ever seen (about 20 H.P.) emmanila rope on wheels 30 in. in diameter, using a tension car. For use large ropes I think it wiser to replace small ones by doing a great gain may be made in efficiency, thus saving

the possibility of failures in the continuous-rope plan have occurred when driven sheaves were of widely different diameters, as when driving dynamos, or driving a line-shaft from an engine. If uniformly installed the ropes will not pull alike, and by calculation we may find one rope pulling twice or three times as much as the sheave.

The system designed by the writer employs an engine-driving sheave of the diameter of the driven sheave. To equalize the pull on the ropes the grooves of the large driving-sheaves were made 60° and those of the small sheaves with an angle of 45°. The groove angle has entirely remedied the unequal pulling com-

pared that in sheaves of the same diameter, by the use of a right angle, the ropes may all pull alike; while, where the sheaves are of different diameter, the pull is unequal. The only difference of condition lies in the different arc of contact of the rope on the sheave which leads to a greater frictional hold of the rope on the large sheave than on the two sheaves we may sharpen the frictional hold on the small sheave or increase the angle of the large sheave.

The Walker Mfg. Co. adopts a curved form of groove instead of one with a straight lined to each other at 45°. The curves are concave to the center of the sheave so that the rope rests on the sides of the groove in driving and driven pulleys the rope rests on the bottom of the groove, which is the same. The Walker Mfg. Co. also uses a "differential" drum for heavy lifting in which the grooves are contained each in a separate ring which slide on the turned surface of the drum in case one rope wears out.

The rope drive on the separate, or English, rope system is described in *Power*, April, 1892. It is in use at the India Mill at Darwen, which was originally driven by gears, but did not prove successful, and rope driving was resorted to. The 55,000 spindles and preparation of 2000 horse power tandem compound engine, with cylinders 48 in diameter and 72-inch stroke, running at 54 revolutions per minute, the fly-wheel is 30 feet in diameter, weighs 65 tons, and is supported on four pillars. These ropes lead off to receive power from several floors, so that each floor receives its power direct from the engine.

The speed of the ropes is 5089 feet per minute, and five ropes are used, the number of ropes upon each being proportioned to the power required.

to the amount of power required upon the several floors. Lambropes are used. (For much other information on this subject see "Driving," by J. J. Flather, John Wiley & Sons, 1895.)

FRICTION AND LUBRICATION.

Friction is defined by Rankine as that force which acts between bodies at their surface of contact so as to resist their sliding on each other, and which depends on the force with which the bodies are pressed together.

Coefficient of Friction.—The ratio of the force required to move a body along a horizontal plane surface to the weight of the body is called the coefficient of friction. It is equivalent to the tangent of the angle of inclination which is the angle of inclination to the horizontal of an inclined plane upon which the body will just overcome its tendency to slide. The angle is denoted by θ , and the coefficient by f , $f = \tan \theta$.

Friction of Rest and of Motion.—The force required to start a body sliding is called the friction of rest, and the force required to keep it sliding after having started is called the friction of motion.

Rolling Friction is the force required to roll a cylindrical or spherical body on a plane or on a curved surface. It depends on the nature of the surfaces and on the force with which they are pressed together, and is essentially different from ordinary, or sliding, friction.

Friction of Solids.—Rennie's experiments (1839) on friction of solids usually unlubricated and dry, led to the following conclusions:

1. The laws of sliding friction differ with the character of the rubbing together.
2. The friction of fibrous material is increased by increased area of surface and by time of contact, and is diminished by pressure and velocity.
3. With wood, metal, and stones, within the limit of abrasion, the friction varies only with the pressure, and is independent of the extent of time of contact and velocity.
4. The limit of abrasion is determined by the hardness of the rubbing parts.
5. Friction is greatest with soft and least with hard materials.
6. The friction of lubricated surfaces is determined by the nature of the lubricant rather than by that of the solids themselves.

Friction of Rest. (Rennie.)

Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Values of f .		
	Wrought iron on Wrought iron.	Wrought on Cast iron.	Steel on Cast iron.
187	.25	.26	.20
221	.27	.29	.23
336	.31	.33	.25
448	.38	.37	.33
560	.41	.37	.36
672	Abraded	.39	.40
784	"	Abraded	Abraded

Law of Unlubricated Friction.—A. M. Wellington, Eng. April 7, 1888, states that the most important and the best determined law of unlubricated friction may be thus expressed:

The coefficient of unlubricated friction decreases materially with increase of velocity, and is very much greater at minute velocities of 0.1 ft. per sec. than at minute increases of such velocities, and continues to fall markedly with higher velocities up to a certain varying point, following the laws which obtain with lubricated friction.

Friction of Steel Tires Sliding on Steel Rails. (House & Galton.)

Speed, miles per hour.....	10	15	20	25
Coefficient of friction.....	0.110	.087	.080	.075
Adhesion, lbs. per ton (2240 lbs.)	246	192	179	168

Friction is a consequence of the irregularities of form and of surface of bodies rolling one over the other. Its laws are entirely established in consequence of the uncertainty which is attached to the amount of the resistance is due to roughness of surface to original and permanent irregularity of form, and how they vary under the load. (Thurston.)

Law of Rolling Friction.—If R = resistance applied at the axle of the wheel, W = total weight, r = radius of the wheel, Coefficient, $R = fW + r$, f is very variable. Coulomb gives .06 for metal, where W is in pounds and r in feet. Tredgold gives .02 for iron on iron. .002 for soft soil Morin found $f = .005$, and on hard smooth roads

of the Society of Arts (Clark, R. T. D.) reported a loaded axle a resistance on various loads as below:

Load	Speed per hour.	Coefficient.	Resistance.
.....	2.87 miles.	.007	17.41 per ton.
.....	3.56 "	.0121	27.14 "
.....	3.34 "	.0185	41.60 "
.....	3.45 "	.0130	44.48 "
.....	3.51 "	.0451	101.09 "

as the value of f for ordinary railroads, .003, well-laid railroad or possible railroad track, .001.

Experiments that have been made upon the coefficients of rolling friction from axle friction, are too incomplete to serve as a basis for (Thurston.)

Fluid Friction.—For all fluids, whether liquid or gaseous, is (1) independent of the pressure between the masses in direct proportion to the area of rubbing surface; (2) proportional to the square of the relative velocity at moderate and high speeds, directly nearly at low speeds; (3) independent of the nature of the solid against which the stream may flow, but dependent upon their degree of roughness; (4) proportional to the density, and related in some way to its viscosity. (Thurston.)

Friction of Lubricated Surfaces approximates to that of solid friction when the surface is run dry, and to that of fluid friction as it is flooded

Repose and Coefficients of Friction of Building Materials. (From Rankine's Applied Mechanics.)

	θ .	$f = \tan \theta$.	$\frac{1}{\tan \theta}$.
and brickwork..	31° to 35°	.6 to .7	1.67 to 1.4
brickwork with	36 1/2°	.74	1.35
.....	36 1/2°	about .4	2.5
.....	35° to 163°	.7 to .8	1.43 to 3.3
ber.	36 1/2° to 11 1/2°	.6 to .2	2 to 5
als.	31° to 11 1/2°	.8 to .2	1.67 to 5
als.	14° to 8 1/2°	.25 to .15	4 to 6.67
y clay	27°	.51	1.96
st clay.	18 1/2°	.33	3.
dry sand, clay,	14° to 45°	.25 to 1.0	4 to 1
with.	21° to 37°	.38 to .75	2.63 to 1.33
damp clay....	45°	1.0	1
wet clay.....	17°	.3	3.33
shingle and	30° to 48°	.61	1.63 to 0.9

Friction.—The following is a table of the angle of repose of friction $f = \tan \theta$, and its reciprocal, $1 + f$, for the same—condensed from the tables of General Morin as given by Rankine:

No.	Surfaces.	<i>e.</i>	<i>f.</i>	
1	Wood on wood, dry . . .	14° to 26½°	.25 to .5	1.0
2	" " " souped . . .	11½° to 22°	.2 to .04	1.0
3	Metals on oak, dry . . .	20½° to 31°	.5 to .6	1.5
4	" " " wet . . .	18½° to 14°	.24 to .26	1.5
5	" " " soapy . . .	11½°	.2	1.5
6	" " " elm, dry . . .	11½° to 14°	.2 to .25	1.5
7	Hemp on oak, dry . . .	28°	.53	1.5
8	" " " wet . . .	18½°	.08	1.5
9	Leather on oak . . .	15° to 10½°	.27 to .38	1.5
10	" " " metals, dry . . .	29½°	.56	1.5
11	" " " " wet . . .	20°	.50	1.5
12	" " " " greasy . . .	13°	.23	1.5
13	" " " " oily . . .	8½°	.15	1.5
14	Metals on metals, dry . . .	8½° to 11°	.15 to .2	1.5
15	" " " " wet . . .	16½°	.13	1.5
16	Smooth surfaces, occasionally greased . . .	4° to 4½°	.07 to .06	1.5
17	Smooth surfaces, continuously greased . . .	5°	.08	1.5
18	Smooth surfaces, best results . . .	1½° to 3°	.03 to .056	1.5
19	Bronze on lignum vitæ, constantly wet . . .	3° ?	.05 ?	1.5

Coefficients of Friction of Journals. (Morris)

Material.	Unguent.	Lubrication.	
		Intermittent.	Continuous.
Cast iron on cast iron . . .	Oil, lard tallow. Unctuous and wet.	.07 to .08 .14	.05
Cast iron on bronze . . .	Oil, lard, tallow. Unctuous and wet.	.07 to .08 .16	.05
Cast iron on lignum vitæ	Oil, lard.05
Wrought iron on cast iron	Oil, lard, tallow.	.07 to .08	.05
" " " bronze . . .	Oil, lard.	.11	.05
Iron on lignum vitæ . . .	Unctuous.	.19	.05
Bronze on bronze . . .	Olive-oil. Lard.	.10 .03	.05

Prof. Thurston says concerning the above figures that much better are probably obtained in good practice with ordinary machines; here given are so greatly modified by variations of speed, pressure, temperature, that they cannot be taken as correct for general purposes.

Average Coefficients of Friction. Journal of cast iron on bearing; velocity 750 feet per minute; temperature 70° F.; oil fed through an oil-hole. (Thurston on Friction and Lost Work.)

Oils.	Pressures, pounds per square inch		
	8	16	32
Sperm, lard, neat's-foot, etc.	.150 to .250	.133 to .102	.066 to .141
Olive, cotton-seed, rape, etc.	.160 " .233	.107 " .245	.101 " .111
Cod and menhaden.	.248 " .378	.131 " .365	.097 " .111
Mineral lubricating-oils.	.154 " .260	.145 " .225	.088 " .111

With fine steel journals running in bronze bearings and under light pressures, the coefficients are far below those above given; for example, the coefficient with 50 lbs. per square inch pressure is .0061; with 300 lbs., .0057.

pressures, as in spindles, the coefficients are much higher, as found, at a temperature of 100° and a velocity of 600

lbs. per sq. in.....	1	2	3	4	5
.....	.88	.27	.23	.18	.17

coefficients, however, and the great decrease in the coefficient as the pressures are limited as a practical matter only to the smaller values exist especially in spinning machinery, where the pressure is so great that a film of oil so thick that the viscosity of the oil is an important factor in the frictional resistance.

is on Friction of a Journal Lubricated by an experiment by the Committee on Friction, Proc. Inst. M. E., that the absolute friction, that is, the absolute tangential force of bearing, required to resist the tendency of the brass to rotate, is nearly a constant under all loads, within certain limits. Most certainly it does not increase in direct proportion as it should do according to the ordinary theory of solid friction. The results of these experiments seem to show that the friction of a lubricated journal follows the laws of liquid friction much more closely than those of solid friction. They show that under these circumstances the friction is nearly independent of the pressure per square inch, and increases with the velocity, though at a rate not nearly so rapid as the velocity.

The results on friction at different temperatures indicate a great increase in friction as the temperature rises. Thus in the case of a journal of 450 revolutions per minute, the coefficient of friction at 120° is only one third of what it was at a tempera-

ture of steel, 4 inches diameter and 6 inches long, and a gun-bracing somewhat less than half the circumference of the journal, on its upper side, on which the load was applied. When the journal was immersed in oil, and the oil therefore carried away by rotation of the journal, the greatest load carried with the oil was 625 lbs. per square inch, and with mineral oil 625 lbs.

With ordinary lubrication, the oil being fed in at the center of the brass, and a distributing groove being cut in the brass of the journal, the bearing would not run cool with only one inch, the oil being pressed out from the bearing-surface into the oil-hole, instead of being carried in by it. On introducing the oil through two parallel grooves, the lubrication appeared to be perfect, but the bearing seized with 340 lbs. per square inch.

When the oil was introduced through two oil-holes, one near each end of the journal, and each connected with a curved groove, the brass refused to run cool, and seized with a load of only 200 lbs. per square

inch under the journal feeding rape-oil, the bearing fairly cart. Tower's conclusion from these experiments is that the results depend on the quantity and uniformity of distribution of the oil, and the difference between the oil-bath results and seizing, according to the perfection of the lubrication. The lubrication may be perfect with a coefficient of 1/100; but it appeared as though it could not be perfect and the friction increased much beyond this point without the aid of heating and seizing. The oil bath probably represents the best lubrication possible, and the limit beyond which friction cannot be reduced by lubrication; and the experiments show that with speeds of 600 feet per minute, by properly proportioning the bearing, it is possible to reduce the coefficient of friction to as low a value as 1/1500 is easily attainable, and probably is feasible.

In ordinary engine-bearings in which the direction of the motion is alternating and the oil given an opportunity to get between the surfaces the duration of the force in one direction is not sufficient to allow the oil film to be squeezed out.

The behavior of the apparatus gave reason to believe that the minimum friction speed of minimum friction was from 100 to 200 feet per minute, and that this speed of minimum friction tends to be the same for all bearings, and also with less perfect lubrication. It is meant that speed in approaching what is called the minimum, and above which the friction increases.

Coefficients of Friction of Journal with Oil-bath.—Abstract of results of Tower's experiments on friction (Proc Inst M 1883). Journal, 4 in. diam., 6 in. long; temperature, 160° F.

Lubricant in Bath.	Nominal Load, in pounds per sq. in.				
	625	520	415	310	215
Coefficients of Friction.					
Lard-oil:					
157 ft. per min.....0009	.0012	.0014	.0017
471 " ".....0017	.0021	.0029	.0042
Mineral grease:					
157 ft. per min.....	.001	.0014	.0016	.0022	.0034
471 " ".....	.002	.0022	.0027	.004	.0067
Sperm oil:					
157 ft. per min.....	seiz'd	.0015	.0011	.0016
471 " ".....0021	.0019	.0027
Rape-oil:	(573 lb.)				
157 ft. per min.....	.001	.0009	.0008	.0014	.0021
471 " ".....	.0015	.0016	.0016	.0024	.0034
Mineral oil:					
157 ft. per min.....	.0013	.0012	.0012	.0014	.0021
471 " ".....	.0018	.002	.0024	.0034	.005
Rape-oil fed by syphon lubricator:					
157 ft. per min.....0052	.0059
314 " ".....0065	.0077
Rape-oil, pad under journal:					
157 ft. per min.....0099	.010
314 " ".....0099	.0125

Comparative friction of different lubricants under same circumstances, temperature 90°, oil-bath:

Sperm-oil.....	100 per cent.	Lard.....	129
Rape-oil.....	100 "	Olive-oil.....	129
Mineral oil.....	129 "	Mineral grease.....	200

Coefficients of Friction of Motion and of Rest of Journal.—A cast-iron journal in steel boxes, tested by Prof. F. R. Mott, at a speed of rubbing of 150 feet per minute, with lard and with sperm-oil, gave the following:

Pressures per sq. in., lbs.....	50	100	250	500	1000
Coeff., with sperm.....	.013	.008	.005	.004	.003
" " lard.....	.02	.0137	.0085	.0053	.003

The coefficients at starting were:

With sperm.....	.07	.135	.14	.15	.17
With lard.....	.07	.11	.11	.10	.10

The coefficient at a speed of 150 feet per minute decreases with increase of pressure until 500 lbs. per sq. in. is reached; above this it increases slightly at rest or at starting increases with the pressure throughout the whole range of the tests.

Value of Anti-friction Metals. (Denton.)—The various metals available for lining brasses do not afford coefficients of friction lower than can be obtained with bare brass, but they are "overheating," because of the superiority of such material over brass, ability to permit of abrasion or crushing, without excessive increase of friction.

Thurston (Friction and Lost Work) says that gun bronze, and other soft white alloys have substantially the same friction as brass, and the friction is determined by the nature of the rubbing surfaces, and not by the rubbing surfaces, when the latter are in good order. The use of gun bronze at higher temperatures than the bronze. This, however, is not necessarily indicate a serious defect, but simply denotes a tendency of the white alloys for bearing loss mainly in their surface, and not in the rubbing surfaces after any local or general injury by abrasion or crushing.

on for Bearings. (Joshua Rose.)—(Cast iron appears to be an exception to the general rule, that the harder the metal the greater the wear, because cast iron is softer in its texture and easier to cut with tools than steel or wrought iron, but in some situations it is more durable than hardened steel; thus when surrounded by steam it wears better than will any other metal. Thus, for instance, experience has shown that piston-rings of cast iron will wear smoother, better, and longer than those of steel, and longer than those of either iron or brass, whether the cylinder in which it works be composed of steel, wrought iron, or cast iron; the latter being the more noticeable two surfaces of the same metal do not, as a rule, wear together. So also slide-valves of brass are not found to wear so smoothly as those of cast iron, let the metal of which the seating be whatever it may; while, on the other hand, a cast iron slide-valve wears longer of itself and causes less wear to its seat, if the latter be of steel, wrought iron, or brass.)

of Metals under Steam-pressure.—The friction of iron under steam-pressure is double that of iron upon iron. (See, Trans. A. S. M. E., 1, 151.)

"Laws of Friction."—1. The friction between two bodies is proportional to the pressure; i.e., the coefficient is constant for the same pair of surfaces.

efficient and amount of friction, pressure being the same, is in direct proportion to the areas in contact.

2. The coefficient of friction is independent of velocity, although static friction is greater than the friction of motion.

3. (See, April 7, 1888, comments on these "laws" as follows: From the year 1876 there was no attempt worth speaking of to enlarge our knowledge of the laws of friction, which during all that period was assumed to be true, although it was really worse than nothing, since it was for the most part wholly false. In the year first mentioned Morin began a series of experiments which extended over two or three years, and which resulted in the enunciation of these three "fundamental laws of friction," which are even approximately true.)

4. These laws were accepted as axiomatic, and were quoted as such in every scientific work published during that whole period, so that they are so thoroughly discredited it has been attempted to show their defects on the ground that they cover only a very limited range of pressures, areas, velocities, etc., and that Morin himself only considered them as true within the range of his conditions. It is now clearly established that there are no limits or conditions within which any one of the laws approximates to exactitude, and that there are many conditions in which they lead to the wildest kind of error, while many of the conclusions are inaccurate as the laws. For example in Morin's "Table of Coefficients of Friction of Smooth Plane Surfaces, perfectly lubricated" may be found in hundreds of text-books now in use the coefficient of friction on brass is given as .075 to .103, which would make the resistance of railway trains 15 to 30 lbs. per ton instead of the 3 to 6 lbs. actually is.

5. Morin, in a letter to the Secretary of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers dated March 15, 1879, writes as follows concerning his experiments made more than forty years before: "The results furnished by my experiments as to the relations between pressure, surface, and speed on the one hand and sliding friction on the other have always been regarded by me as mathematical laws, but as close approximations to the truth, the results of the data of the experiments themselves. The same holds true for many other laws of practical mechanics, such as those of fluid resistance, etc."

6. (See, Denton's *Storons Indicator*, July, 1860) says: It has been generally assumed that friction between lubricated surfaces follows the simple law that the amount of the friction is some fixed fraction of the pressure between the surfaces, such fraction being independent of the intensity of the pressure, the area of the surfaces, and the velocity of rubbing, between certain limits, and that the fixed fraction referred to is represented by the coefficient of friction given by the experiments of Morin or obtained from experiments which represent equations of practical lubrication such as those of Weber's *Manual of Power*.

7. (See, *Elements of Thurston, Woodbury, Tower, etc.* however, the coefficient of friction between lubricated metallic surfaces, such as iron

chine bearings, is not directly proportional to the pressure, is independent of the speed, and that the coefficients of Morin and Webber are tenfold too great for modern journals.

Prof. Denton offers an explanation of this apparent contradiction of theories by showing with laboratory testing machine data that the laws hold for bearings lubricated by a restricted feed of lubricant as is afforded by the oil cups common to machinery; whereas the experiments have been made with a surplus feed or superabundance of oil, such as is provided only in railroad-car journals and a few cases of practice.

That the low coefficients of friction obtained under the latter case are realized in the case of car journals, is proved by the fact that the temperature of car-boxes remains at 100° at high velocities, and experience shows that this temperature is consistent only with a coefficient of total friction of one per cent. Deductions from experiments on train wheels also indicate the same low degree of friction. But these low coefficients do not account for the internal friction of steam-engines as well as the coefficients of Morin and Webber.

In *American Machinist*, Oct. 23, 1880, Prof. Denton says: Morin's coefficient of friction of lubricated journals did not extend to bearings. They apply only to the conditions of general shafting and engine bearings. He clearly understood that there was a frictional resistance due to the viscosity of the oil, and that therefore, for very light pressures, in which he experimented did not prevail.

He applied his dynamometers to ordinary shaft-journals without preparation of the rubbing-surfaces, and without resorting to the methods of supplying the oil.

Later experimenters have with few exceptions devoted themselves solely to the measurement of resistance practically due to viscous effects. They have eliminated the resistance to which Morin confined his experiments, namely, the friction due to such contact of the rubbing surfaces as prevail with a very thin film of lubricant between comparatively rough faces.

Prof. Denton also says (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, x, 518): "I do not believe is a particle of proof in any investigation of friction ever made that the laws do not hold for ordinary practical oil-cups or restricted cases."

Laws of Friction of well-lubricated Journals.
Goodman (*Trans. Inst. C. E.*, 1886, *Eng. & Arch. News*, Apr. 7 and 14, 1886) giving the results obtained from the testing machines of Thurst & Treadwell Stroudley, arrives at the following laws.

LAWS OF FRICTION: WELL-LUBRICATED SURFACES
(Oil-bath.)

1. The coefficient of friction with the surfaces efficiently lubricated is 1/4 to 1/10 that for dry or scantily lubricated surfaces.
 2. The coefficient of friction for moderate pressures and speeds varies approximately inversely as the normal pressure, the frictional resistance as the area in contact, the normal pressure remaining constant.
 3. At very low journal speeds the coefficient of friction is also high; but as the speed of sliding increases from about 10 ft. to 10 ft. the friction diminishes, and again rises when that speed is exceeded, approximately as the square root of the speed.
 4. The coefficient of friction varies approximately inversely as the nature, within certain limits, namely, just before admission to law practice.
- The evidence upon which these laws are based is taken from various experiments. That relating to Law 1 is derived from the "Friction Experiments," by Mr. Beauchamp Tower.

Method of Lubrication.	Coefficient of Friction.	Group of Experiments.
Oil-bath	0.0175	1
Injection lubricator	0.0175	
Feed under journal	0.0175	

With a load of 298 lbs. per sq. in. and a journal speed of 10 ft. per sec. he found the coefficient of friction to be 0.0175, which is the same as the above.

ness as much, with a pad. The very low coefficients on a lower will be accounted for by Law 2, as he found that the force per square inch under varying loads is nearly constant,

sq. in.	529	468	415	363	310	258	205	153	100
lb. persq. in.	.416	.514	.428	.472	.464	.438	.43	.458	.45

If resistance per square inch is the product of the coefficient the load per square inch on horizontal sections of the brass, product be a constant, the one factor must vary inversely as the load will give a low coefficient, and *vice versa*.

In lubrication, the coefficient is more constant under varying normal resistance than varies directly as the load, as shown by table VIII of his report (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1883).

As to Law 3, A. M. Wellington (Trans. A. S. C. E. 1884), in experiments revolving at very low velocities, found that the friction great, and nearly constant under varying conditions of the oil, and temperature. But as the speed increased the friction regularly, and again returned to the original amount when it was reduced to the same rate. This is shown in the following

per minute:	3.33	4.96	8.82	21.42	35.37	53.01	89.28	106.02
friction:	.070	.069	.055	.047	.040	.035	.030	.026

found by Prof. Kimball that when the journal velocity was increased to 110 ft. per minute, the friction was reduced 70%; in another experiment it was reduced 67% when the velocity was increased from 1 to 10 ft. per minute; but after that point was reached the coefficient varied with the square root of the velocity.

The results were obtained by Mr. Tower:

Load	209	262	314	366	419	471	Nominal Load per sq. in.
on0010	.0012	.0013	.0014	.0015	.0017	520 lbs.
	.0013	.0014	.0015	.0017	.0018	.002	468 "
	.0014	.0015	.0017	.0019	.0021	.0024	415 "

The law of friction with temperature is approximately in the inverse square. Take, for example, Mr. Tower's results, at 262 ft. per minute:

110°	100°	90°	80°	70°	60°
.0044	.0051	.006	.0073	.0092	.0119
.00451	.00518	.00608	.00733	.00964	.01252

This law does not hold good for pad or siphon lubrication, as then the coefficient diminishes more rapidly for given increments of temperature on a gradually decreasing scale, until the normal temperature is reached; this normal temperature increases directly as the load is shown in the following table taken from Mr. Stroudley's experiments with a pad of rape oil:

Load	105°	110°	115°	120°	125°	130°	135°	140°	145°
on022	.0180	.0160	.0140	.0125	.0115	.0110	.0105	.0102
	.022	.0180	.0160	.0140	.0125	.0115	.0110	.0105	.0102

Westinghouse experiments it was found that with velocities per minute, and with low pressures, the frictional resistance was as the normal pressure; but when a velocity of 100 ft. per minute was reached, the coefficient of friction greatly diminished; from this Prof. Kennedy found that the coefficient of friction was sensibly less than for low.

Pressures on Bearing-surfaces. (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1883.)
Committee on Friction experimented with a soft

increased, and may be stated approximately as $1/30$ at 2 diminishing to $1/40$ at 75 lbs. per sq. in.

The high coefficients of friction are explained by the differing a collar bearing. It is similar to the slide-block of an engine, carry only about one tenth the load per sq. in. that can be crank-pins.

In experiments on cylindrical journals it has been shown cylindrical journal) was lubricated from the side on which 600 lbs. per sq. in. was the limit of pressure; that it would not come to be lubricated on the lower side and was allowed to with it, 600 lbs. per sq. in. was reached with impunity; and 1 sq. in., which was reckoned upon the full diameter of the bearing, be reckoned on the sixth part of the circle that was taking portion of the load, it followed that the pressure upon that part amounted to about 1200 lbs. per sq. in.

In connection with these experiments Mr. Wicksteed sliding machines the pressure on the collars is frequently as high sq. in., but the speed of rubbing in this case is frequently as high the experiments of the Research Committee. In machine slowly and intermittently, as in testing-machines, very measures are admissible.

Mr. Adamson mentions the case of a heavy upright shaft small footstep-bearing, where a weight of at least 20 tons shaft of 5 in. diameter, or, say, 30 sq. in. area, giving a pressure sq. in. The speed was 150 to 200 revs. per min. It was necessary oil under the bearing by means of a pump. For heavy bearings such as a fly wheel shaft, carrying 100 tons on two journals, getting oil into the bearings was to flatten the journal throughout its whole length to the extent of about an eighth width for each inch in diameter up to 8 in. diameter; above less flat in proportion to the diameter. At first sight it appears to get a continuous flat place coming round in every revolution, loaded shaft; yet it carried the oil effectually into the bearing much better in consequence than a truly cylindrical journal side.

In thrust-bearings on torpedo-boats Mr. Thornycroft allows never more than 50 lbs. per sq. in.

Prof. Thurston *Friction and Lost Work*, p. 240, says: pressure per square inch is reached on the slow-working pivots of swing bridges.

Mr. Tower says (*Proc. Inst. M. E.*, Jan. 1884): In some

Proc Inst. C. E. 1896) found that the total frictional resistance was reduced by diminishing the width of the brass, and was most efficient in reducing the friction when the brass was of from 120° to 80°. The film is probably at its best between 120° and 140°.

In the case of a railway axle-bearing where an oil-groove is cut into an oil-hole is drilled through the top of the brass into it, and only on the off side, which is probably due to the oil escaping towards the crown of the brass, and so leaving the off side the wear consequently ensues.

The brass wears always on the forward side. The same observations made in marine engine journals, which always wear in the same way to what they might be expected. Mr. Stronchley says it is due to a film of lubricant being drawn in from the journal to the aft part of the brass, which effectually lubricates the wear on that side; and that when the lubricant reaches the crown of the brass it is so attenuated down to a wedge shape that lubrication, and greater wear consequently follows.

On *Am. Mach.*, Oct. 30, 1890) says: Regarding the pressure subjected in railroad car-service, it is probably more severe than in any other class of practice. Car brasses, when used bare, are so much like the journal, that during the early stages of their use they are subjected to a pressure of about one square inch. In this case the pressure is upwards of 6000 lbs. But at the slowest speeds of freight cars the pressure is so rapid that, within about thirty minutes the pressure is raised to about three inches, and is thereby able to relieve the journal. Water can successfully prevent overheating of the journal, and takes place with any oil, and measures of relief must be taken to the question of differences of lubricating power of the lubricants available. A brass which has been run about 100 lbs load may have extended the area of bearing surface to four inches. The pressure is then about 1700 lbs. per square inch. It is assumed that this is an average minimum area for car-service, and unmanageable overheating has occurred during the short time. This area will very slowly increase with any

oil. *Am. Mach.*, Feb. 1893) says: One of the most vital points of an engine service is that of main bearings. They should have a surface exceeding 350 feet per minute, with a mean bearing of one inch of projected area of journal of not more than 80 square inches. Within the safe limit of cool performance and easy bearings are designed in this way, it would admit the use of a main wearing-surface, which in a large type of engines is what we think advisable.

In a Bearing.—Mr. Beauchamp Tower (Proc. Inst. C. E. 1896) made experiments with a brass bearing 4 inches diameter and determined the pressure of the oil between the brass and journal was half immersed in oil, and had a total load of 100 lbs.

The journal rotated 150 revolutions per minute. The pressure was determined by drilling small holes in the bearing at intervals, connecting them by tubes to a Bourdon gauge. It was found that the pressure varied from 310 to 625 lbs. per square inch, the greatest pressure being on the "off" side of the centre line of the top of the journal in the direction of motion of the journal. The sum of the upward pressures for the whole lubricated area was 100 lbs. total pressure on the bearing. The speed was reduced to 75 revolutions, but the oil pressure remained the same, showing that the oil was completely oil-borne at the lower speed as at the higher speed was the observed friction at the lower speed:

lbs. per square inch...	443	343	211	89
friction00132	.00168	.00247	.0044

per square inch is the total load divided by the product of the width of the journal. At the same low speed of 20 revolutions the pressure was increased to 676 lbs. per square inch without any oil.

Journal Brasses. (J. E. Denton) The brasses were dressed with an emery-wheel, for the bearing-surface on the journal, as at

of a portion of the surface, of only 1 square inch. With this pressure of lbs. per square inch, the coefficient of friction may be 0.12, and the surface be overheated, scarred and cut but, on the contrary, it may wear down to a smooth bearing, giving a highly polished area of contact of 1/4 inches, or more, inside of two hours of running, gradually decreasing pressure per square inch of contact, and a coefficient of friction of less than 0.05. A reciprocating motion in the direction of the axis is of help in reducing the friction. With such polished surfaces any oil will run and the coefficient of friction then depends on the viscosity of the oil. At a pressure of 1000 lbs. per square inch, revolutions from 170 to 230 per min. and temperatures of 75° to 135° F., with both sperm and paraffine oil, a coefficient of as low as 0.115 has been obtained, the oil being fed continuously by a pad.

Experiments on Overheating of Bearings. Hot Bearings. Tests with car brasses loaded from 1000 to 3500 lbs. per square inch gave 7 cases of overheating out of 32 trials. The tests show that a matter of chance is the overheating, as a brass which ran hot at 10 lbs. load on one day would run cool on a later date at the same or higher load. The explanation of this apparently arbitrary difference is that the accidental variations of the smoothness of the surfaces, the infinitesimal in their magnitude, cause variations of friction which are tending to produce overheating, and it is solely a matter of chance these tendencies preponderate over the lubricating influence of the oil. There is no appreciable advantage shown by sperm oil, when there is a tendency to overheat—that is, paraffine can lubricate under the highest pressures which occur, as well as sperm, when the surfaces are within the limits affording the minimum coefficients of friction.

Sperm and other oils of high heat-resisting qualities, like vegetable petroleum cylinder stocks, only differ from the more volatile oils like paraffine, in their ability to reduce the chances of the continual infinitesimal abrasion producing overheating.

The effect of emery or other gritty substance in reducing overheating of a bearing is thus explained:

The effect of the emery upon the surfaces of the bearings is to cut latter with a series of parallel grooves, and apparently after such grooves are made the presence of the emery does not practically increase the friction over the amount of the latter when pure oil only is between the surfaces. The infinite number of grooves constitute a very perfect means of keeping a uniform oil supply at every point of the bearings. As long as grooves in the journal match with those in the brasses the friction appears to be only about 10% to 15% of the pressure. But if a smooth journal is between a set of brasses which are grooved, and pressure be applied, the journal crushes the grooves and becomes brazed or coated with them, then the coefficient of friction becomes upward of 40%. If then oil is applied, the friction is made very much less by its presence, because grooves are made to match each other, and a uniform oil supply present at every point of the bearings, whereas before the application of the oil many spots of the latter receive no oil between them.

Moment of Friction and Work of Friction of various surfaces, etc.

	Moment of Friction, inch-lbs.	Energy lost by friction in ft. lbs. per rev.
Flat surfaces.....	f/W
Shafts and journals.....	$\frac{2}{3}f/Wd$	$.2618f/Wd$
Flat pivots.....	$\frac{2}{3}f/Wr$	$.1745f/Wr$
Collar-bearing.....	$\frac{2}{3}f/W \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2^2 + r_1^2}$	$.1745f/W \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2^2 + r_1^2}$
Conical pivot.....	$\frac{2}{3}f/Wr \csc \alpha$	$.1745f/Wr \csc \alpha$
Conical journal.....	$\frac{2}{3}f/Wr \sec \alpha$	$.1745f/Wr \sec \alpha$
Truncated-cone pivot.....	$\frac{2}{3}f/W \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2 \sin \alpha + r_1}$	$.1745f/W \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2 \sin \alpha + r_1}$
Conical pivot.....	f/Wr	$.1745f/Wr$
Schiele's "anti-friction" pivot.....	f/Wr	$.1745f/Wr$

the above f = coefficient of friction;

W = weight on journal or pivot in pounds;

r = radius, d = diameter, in inches;

S = space in feet through which sliding takes place;

r_2 = outer radius, r_1 = inner radius;

n = number of revolutions per minute;

α = the half-angle of the cone, i.e., the angle of the slope with the axis.

To obtain the horse-power, divide the quantities in the last column by

$$\text{Horse-power absorbed by friction of a shaft} = \frac{fWdn}{126050}$$

The formula for energy lost by shafts and journals is approximately true for loosely fitted bearings. Prof. Thurston shows that the correct formula, according to the character of fit of the bearing; thus for loosely fitted journals, if U = the energy lost,

$$U = \frac{2f\pi r}{41 + f^2} Wn \text{ inch-pounds} = \frac{.2618fWdn}{41 + f^2} \text{ foot-lbs.}$$

For perfectly fitted journals $U = 2.54f\pi r Wn$ inch-lbs. = $.3325fWdn$, ft. lbs. or a bearing in which the journal is so grasped as to give a uniform pressure throughout, $U = f\pi^2 r Wn$ inch-lbs. = $.4112fWdn$, ft. lbs.

Resistance of railway trains and wagons due to friction of trains:

$$\text{Pull on draw-bar} = \frac{f \times 2240}{R} \text{ pounds per gross ton,}$$

in which R is the ratio of the radius of the wheel to the radius of journal. For a cylindrical journal, perfectly fitted into a bearing, and carrying a total load W , it distributes the pressure due to this load unequally on the bearing, the maximum pressure being at the extremity of the vertical radius, while at the extremities of the horizontal diameter the pressure is zero. At any point θ of the bearing-surface at the extremity of a radius which makes an angle θ with the vertical radius the normal pressure is proportional to $\cos \theta$, w = normal pressure on a unit of surface, w = total load on a unit of surface of the journal, and r = radius of journal,

$$w \cos \theta = 1.57rp, \quad p = \frac{w \cos \theta}{1.57r}.$$

PIVOT-BEARINGS.

The Schiele Curve.—W. H. Harrison, in a letter to the *Am. Machinist*, 1891, says the Schiele curve is not as good a form for a bearing as the segment of a sphere. He says: A mill stone weighing a ton frequently rests its whole weight upon the flat end of a hard-steel pivot $1\frac{1}{2}$ " diameter, on a square inch area of bearing; but to carry a weight of 3000 lbs. he uses an end bearing about 4 inches diameter, made in the form of a segment of a sphere about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in height. The die or fixed bearing should be lished to fit the pivot. This form gives a chance for the bearing to adjust itself, which it does not have when made flat, or when made with the Schiele curve. If a side bearing is necessary it can be arranged further up the shaft. The pivot and die should be of steel, hardened; cross-gutter should be in the die to allow oil to flow, and a central oil-hole should be in the shaft.

The advantage claimed for the Schiele bearing is that the pressure is uniformly distributed over its surface, and that it therefore wears uniformly. Fred Lewis (*Am. Mach.*, April 19, 1894) says that its merits as a thrust-bearing have been vastly overestimated; that the term "anti-friction" applied to it is a misnomer, since its friction is greater than that of a flat or collar of the same diameter. He advises that flat thrust-bearings should always be annular in form, having an inside diameter one half of the external diameter.

Section of a Flat Pivot-bearing. The Research Committee (*Proc. Inst. M. E.*, 1890) experimented on a step-bearing, the die $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam., the oil being forced into the bearing through a hole in the die and distributed through two radial grooves, insuring thorough lubrication. The step was of steel and the bearing of manganese-bronze.

At revolutions per min	50	128	194	300
The coefficient of friction varied	.0181	.0053	.0051	.0041
between	1.800	.023	.0113	0.002

With a white-metal bearing at 128 revolutions the coefficient of friction was a little larger than with the manganese bronze. At the higher speeds the coefficient of friction was less, owing to the more perfect lubrication shown by the more rapid circulation of the oil. At 128 revolutions the bronze bearing heated and seized on one occasion with a contact of 100 pounds per square inch, and on another occasion with 300 pounds per square inch. The steel bearing under similar conditions heated and seized with a load of 100 pounds per square inch. The steel footstep on manganese bronze was also tried, lubricating with three and with four radial grooves. Friction was from one and a half times to twice as great as with one groove. (See also Allowable Pressures, page 336.)

Mercury-bath Pivot.—A nearly frictionless step bearing obtained by floating the bearing with its superincumbent weight in mercury. Such an apparatus is used in the lighthouses of La Hève, & is thus described in *Eng'g*, July 14, 1863, p. 41:

The optical apparatus, weighing about 1 ton, rests on a circular table, which is supported by a vertical shaft of wrought iron of 10 in. diameter.

This is kept in position at the top by a bronze ring and a guide ring, and at the bottom in the same way, while it rotates on a tapered pivot resting in a steel socket, which is fitted to the base of the shaft. The vertical shaft there is rigidly fixed, a floating cast-iron ring 50 cm. in diameter and 13.8 in. in depth, which is plunged into and rotates in a bath contained in a fixed cylindrical tank. The clearance between the two horizontal surfaces of the drum and ring being only 0.05 in. as much as possible the volume of mercury contained 220 lba., while the clearance at the bottom is 0.1 in.

BALL-BEARINGS, FRICTION ROLLERS, ETC.

A. H. Tyler (*Eng'n.*, Oct. 30, 1898, p. 483), after experiments in comparison with experiments of others arrives at the following conclusion: That each ball must have two points of contact only.

The balls should be of the largest possible diameter which the disposal will admit of.

Any one ball should be capable of carrying the total load upon it. Two rows of balls are always sufficient.

A ball-bearing requires no oil, and has no tendency to heat up loaded.

Until the crushing strength of the balls is being neared, the friction distance is proportional to the load.

The frictional resistance is inversely proportional to the diameter, but in what exact proportion Mr. Tyler is unable to say. It varies with the square.

No rubbing action will take place between the balls, and damage against it are unnecessary, and usually injurious.

The above will show that the ball bearing is most suitable for light and light loads. On the spindles of wood carving machines, some reach as high as 30,000 revolutions per minute. They are perfectly even, have any oil upon them. For heavy loads the balls should not be two thirds the diameter of the shaft, and are better if made equal

Ball-bearings have not been found satisfactory for street cars, the reason apparently that the tubes crowd together. Better results have been obtained from coned rollers. A conical system of rods is described in *Eng'g*, Oct. 6, 1893, p. 420.

Friction-rollers. If a journal instead of revolving on bearings be supported on friction rollers the force required to start and revolve will be reduced in nearly the same proportion than that of the axes of the rollers is less than the diameter of the journals. In experiments by A. M. Wellington, with a journal 10 in. diameter, on rollers 8 in. diam., whose axes were 1/2 in. diam. The force to start and revolve was 1/2 the friction of an ordinary 10 in. journal on a 10 in. axle. In that of the ordinary roller, the force to start and revolve was 1/2 of the friction of a 10 in. journal on a 10 in. axle to draw the roller was 1/2 of the friction of a 10 in. journal on a 10 in. axle.

bearings for Very High Rotative Speeds. (Proc. Inst. Mech. Engrs., 1888, p. 482.)—In the Parsons steam-turbine, which has a speed of 18,000 rev. per min., as it is impossible to secure absolute accuracy, the bearings are of special construction so as to allow of a very small amount of lateral freedom. For this purpose the bearing is made up of two sets of steel washers $1/16$ inch thick and of different diameters, the larger fitting close in the casing and about 1.32 inch clearance on the outside, and the smaller fitting close on the bearing and about 1.32 inch clearance on the casing. These are arranged alternately, and are held together by a spiral spring. Consequently any lateral movement of the bearing causes them to slide mutually against one another, and by this action to check or damp any vibrations that may be set up in the spindle. The tendency of the spindle is then to rotate about its axis of mass, or rather about its axis as it is called; and the bearings are thereby relieved from excessive pressure, and the machine from undue vibration. The finding of the centre of gyration, or rather allowing the turbine itself to find its own centre of gyration, is a well-known device in other branches of mechanics. In the instance of the centrifugal hydro-extractor, where a mass very far out of balance is allowed to find its own centre of gyration, the faster the more steadily did it revolve and the less was the vibration. A similar illustration is to be found in the spindles of spinning machines, which run at about 10,000 or 11,000 revolutions per minute; they are made of hardened and tempered steel, and although of very small dimensions, the outside diameter of the largest portion or driving wheel being perhaps not more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ in., it is found impracticable to run them at that speed unless it might be called a hard-and-fast bearing. They are therefore run with an elastic substance surrounding the bearing, such as steel springs, hemp, or cork. Any elastic substance is sufficient to absorb the vibration, and permit of absolutely steady running.

FRICTION OF STEAM-ENGINES.

Distribution of the Friction of Engines.—Prof. Thurston in "Friction and Lost Work," gives the following:

	1.	2.	3.
Main bearings.....	47.0	35.4	35.0
Piston and rod.....	82.9	25.0	21.0
Crank-pin.....	6.8	5.1	18.0
Cross-head and wrist-pin.....	5.4	4.1	
Valve and rod.....	2.5	26.4	22.0
Eccentric strap.....	5.3	4.0	
Link and eccentric.....	9.0
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

No. 1, Straight-line, $6'' \times 12''$, balanced valve; No. 2, Straight-line, $6'' \times 12''$, balanced valve; No. 3, $7'' \times 10''$, Lansing traction locomotive valve-gear. Prof. Thurston's tests on a number of different styles of engines indicate that the friction of any engine is practically constant under all loads. (See A. S. M. E., viii, 30; ix, 74.)

No. 4, Straight-line engine, $8'' \times 14''$, I.H.P. from 7.41 to 57.54, the friction H.P. varied irregularly between 1.95 and 4.02, the variation being independent of load. With 50 H.P. on the brake the I.H.P. was only 54.5, the friction only 2.6 H.P., or about 5%.

A compound condensing-engine, tested from 0 to 102.6 brake H.P., gave from 14.92 to 117.8 H.P., the friction H.P. varying only from 14.92 to 15.2. At the maximum load the friction was 15.2 H.P., or 12.9%.

The friction increases with increase of the boiler-pressure from 30 to 70 lb. and then becomes constant. The friction generally increases with increase of speed, but there are exceptions to this rule.

Deaton (Stevens Indicator, July, 1890), comparing the calculated friction of a number of engines with the friction as determined by measurements, finds that in one case, a 75-ton ammonia ice-machine, the friction of the compressor, 17½ H.P., is accounted for by a coefficient of friction of 7.66%. The external bearings, allowing 6% of the entire friction of the machine, give a friction of pistons, stuffing-boxes, and valves. In the case of the steam pumping-engine, estimating the friction of the external bearings, the coefficient of friction of 9% and that of the pistons, valves, and stuffing-boxes as in the case of the ice-machine, we have the total friction as follows:

	Horse-power	Friction
Crank-pins and effect of piston-thrust on main shaft	0.75	1.0
Weight of fly-wheel and main shaft	1.35	2.0
Steam valves	0.45	0.5
Excentric	0.07	0.1
Pistons	0.43	0.5
Stuffing-boxes, six altogether	0.72	0.8
Air-pump	2.10	2.5
Total friction of engine with load	6.21	7.4
Total friction per cent of indicated power	4.27	

The friction of this engine, though very low in proportion to the power, is satisfactorily accounted for by Morin's law used with a coefficient of friction of 5%. In both cases the main items of friction are those of the weight of the fly wheel and main shaft and to the piston, crank-pins and main-shaft bearings. In the ice-machine the losses are the larger owing to the extra crank pin to work the pump. In the steam engine the former expenditure is absorbed by the crank pin, partly absorbed by the pump-pistons, and only the surplus effect of the crank-shaft.

Prof. Denton describes in Transactions A. S. M. E., 2, 1908, an apparatus by which he measured the friction of a piston packing ring. When the piston was thoroughly devoid of lubricant, the coefficient of friction was found to be about 7%, with an oil-film of one drop in two the coefficient was about 5%; with one drop per minute it was about 1%. Rates of feed gave unsatisfactory lubrication, the piston ground the ends of the stroke when run slowly, and the flow of oil left upon the cylinder was found by analysis to contain about 50% of iron. A feed of one minute reduced the coefficient of friction to about 1%, and gave a perfect lubrication, the oil retaining its natural color and quality.

LUBRICATION.

Measurement of the Durability of Lubricants.

on, Trans. A. S. M. E., xl 1915.—"Practical differences of lubricants depend not only on any differences of inherent ability to resist wear" by rubbing, but upon the rate at which they flow through the bearing-surfaces. The conditions which control this delicate influence that all attempts thus far made to measure the ability of lubricants may be said to have failed to make distinguishing value having any practical significance. In some kinds of work the limit to the consumption of oil depends upon the extent to which the refuse becomes mixed with it, as in railroad car lubrication and in agricultural machinery. The economy of one oil over another, the quality used is concerned—that is, so far as durability is concerned, simply proportional to the rate at which it can insinuate itself into the out of minute orifices or cracks. Oils will differ in their ability to first, in proportion to their viscosity, and second, in properties of lubricating properties which they may possess by virtue of the particular elements in their composition. Where the thickness of film between rubbing surfaces must be so great that the large amounts of oil used in bearings in excess time, and the same quantities, such as to permit to be fed at high temperatures or applied by methods of expelling the fluidity, it is probable that the least amount of oil will be expending as costly as is great as in the petroleum cylinder stocks. When the oil must flow freely at ordinary temperatures and the feed is restricted, as in the case of crank-pin bearings, it is not practicable such heavy oils in a satisfactory manner. Oils of less viscosity fluids approximating to least cost must then be used.

Relative Value of Lubricants.

portant. The three elements which determine the value of a lubricant are cost due to consumption of lubricants, the cost spent for wear due to the frictional resistance caused by use of the lubricant, and the cost due to metallic wear on the journal and the bearings. To calculate the power is alone to be considered, in rolling mills and in most of the quantity of lubricant used is the only important element. Lubricants not only do both these elements enter the value

The cost of the wearing away of the metallic parts enters in addition, furthermore, the latter is the greatest element of cost in the case. **Qualifications of a Good Lubricant**, as laid down by *Eng. & Proc. Inst. C. E.*, vol. xlv., p. 372, are: 1. Sufficient body to keep surfaces free from contact under maximum pressure. 2. The possible fluidity consistent with the foregoing condition. 3. The small coefficient of friction, which in both lubrication would be for an approximately. 4. The greatest capacity for storing and carrying heat. 5. A high temperature of decomposition. 6. Power of resisting the action of the atmosphere. 7. Freedom from corrosion on the metals upon which used.

Lubricants for Different Purposes. (Thurston.)

For rock-drills and compressed air:	Light mineral lubricating-oils.
For low pressures, slow speed...	Graphite, soapstone, and other solid lubricants.
For low pressures, with slow speed...	The above, and lard, tallow, and other greases.
For low pressures and high speed...	Sperm-oil, castor-oil, and heavy mineral oils.
For high pressures and high speed....	Sperm, refined petroleum, olive, rape, cotton-seed.
For machinery	Lard-oil, tallow-oil, heavy mineral oils, and the heavier vegetable oils.
For engines	Heavy mineral oils, lard, tallow.
For and other delicate mecha-	Clarified sperm, neat's-foot, poppy-seed, olive, and light mineral lubricating oils.

For machinery with mineral oils, sperm is best; lard is much used; olive and cotton-seed are good.

Amount of Oil needed to Run an Engine.--The Vacuum Oil Co., in response to an inquiry as to cost of oil to run a 1000 H.P. engine, wrote: The cost of running two engines of equal size of the same type is not always the same. Therefore while we could furnish you with what it is costing some of our customers having Corliss engines of 1000 H.P., we could only give a general idea, which in itself is considerably out of the way as to the probable cost of cylinder-oil per year for a particular engine. Such an engine ought to consume on less than 8 drops of 600 W oil per minute. If 3000 drops are used per quart, and 8 drops used per minute, it would take about 100 half barrels (52.5 gallons) of 600 W cylinder-oil, at 65 cents per barrel, about \$85 for cylinder oil per year, running 6 days a week and 10 hours a day. Engine-oil would be even more difficult to guess at what the cost would be, because it would depend upon the number of cups required, the time, which varies somewhat according to the style of the engine. Doubtless be safe, however, to calculate at the outside that not more than twice as much engine-oil would be required as of cylinder-oil. The Vacuum Oil Co. in 1892 published the following results of practice for 600 W cylinder-oil:

For a compound engine,	20 and 32×48 ; 83 revs. per min.; 1 drop of oil per min. to 1 drop in two minutes.
For a triple exp. " "	20 , 32 , and 40×48 ; 1 drop every 2 minutes.
For a single " "	30 and 36×36 ; 143 revs. per min.; 2 drops of oil per min., reduced afterwards to 1 drop per min.
For a " "	$15 \times 25 \times 16$; 240 revs. per min.; 1 drop every 4 minutes.

Of tests on ocean-steamers communicated to the author by Prof. W. F. Durand gave: for 1200-H.P. marine engine, 5 to 6 English gallons (6 to 8 U.S. gal.) of engine-oil per 24 hours for external lubrication; and for a marine engine, triple expansion, running 75 revs. per min., 8 to 7 U.S. gal. per 24 hours. The cylinder-oil consumption is exceedingly variable, from 1 to 4 gals. per day on different engines, including cylinder-oil and the piston-rods.

Quantity of Oil used on a Locomotive Crank-pin. *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xi. 1890, says: A very economical case is shown when a locomotive main crank-pin consumes

cubic inches of oil in a thousand miles of service. This is equivalent to a consumption of one milligram to seventy square inches of surface rubbed over.

The Examination of Lubricating-oils. (Prof. Thos. B. Stillman, *Stevens Indicator*, July, 1890.)—The generally accepted conditions of a good lubricant are as follows:

1. "Body" enough to prevent the surfaces, to which it is applied, from coming in contact with each other. (Viscosity.)
2. Freedom from corrosive acid, either of mineral or animal origin.
3. As fluid as possible consistent with "body."
4. A minimum coefficient of friction.
5. High "flash" and burning points.
6. Freedom from all materials liable to produce oxidation or "gumming."

The examinations to be made to verify the above are both chemical and mechanical, and are usually arranged in the following order:

1. Identification of the oil, whether a simple mineral oil, or animal oil, or a mixture.
2. Density.
3. Viscosity.
4. Flash point.
5. Burning-point.
6. Acidity.
7. Coefficient of friction.
8. Cold test.

Detailed directions for making all of the above tests are given in Prof. Stillman's article.

Weights of Oil per Gallon.—The following are approximately the weights per gallon of different kinds of oil (Penn. R. R. Specifications):

Lard-oil, tallow-oil, neat's-foot oil, bone-oil, colza-oil, mustard-seed oil, rapeseed oil, paraffine-oil, 500° fire-test oil, engine-oil, and cylinder lubricant, 7½ pounds per gallon.

Wool-oil and passenger-car oil, 7.4 pounds per gallon; navy sperm-oil, 7.3 pounds per gallon; signal-oil, 7.1 pounds per gallon; 800° burning oil, 6.9 pounds per gallon; and 150° burning oil, 6.6 pounds per gallon.

Penns. R. R. Specifications for Petroleum Products.

1889.—Five different grades of petroleum products will be used. The materials desired under this specification are the products of the distillation and refining of petroleum unmixed with any other substances.

150° Fire-test Oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if sample (1) is not "water-white" in color; (2) flashes below 130° Fahrenheit; (3) below 151° Fahrenheit; (4) is cloudy or shipment has cloudy barrels when received, from the presence of glue or suspended matter; (5) becomes opaque or shows cloud when the sample has been 10 minutes at a temperature of 0° Fahrenheit.

The flashing and burning points are determined by heating the oil in an open vessel, not less than 12° per minute, and applying the test flame every 7°, beginning at 123° Fahrenheit. The cold test may be conveniently made by having an ounce of the oil in a four-ounce sample bottle, with a thermometer suspended in the oil, and exposing this to a freezing mixture of ice and salt. It is advisable to stir with the thermometer while the oil is cooling. The oil must remain transparent in the freezing mixture ten minutes after it has cooled to zero.

300° Fire-test Oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if sample (1) is not "water white" in color; (2) flashes below 240° Fahrenheit; (3) below 238° Fahrenheit; (4) is cloudy or shipment has cloudy barrels when received, from the presence of glue or suspended matter; (5) becomes opaque or shows cloud when the sample has been 10 minutes at a temperature of 32° Fahrenheit.

The flashing and burning points are determined the same as for the test oil, except that the oil is heated 15° per minute, test flame being applied first at 249° Fahrenheit. The cold test is made the same as above, except that ice and water are used.

Paraffine-oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if the sample (1) is other than pale lemon color; (2) flashes below 249° Fahrenheit; (3) below viscosity less than 40 seconds or more than 65 seconds when tested as described under "Wool Oil" at 100° Fahrenheit throughout the year; (4) gravity at 60° Fahrenheit, below 24° Baumé, or above 26° Baumé; (5) from October 1st to May 1st has a cold test above 10° Fahrenheit.

The flashing point is determined same as for 300° fire test oil. The cold test is determined as follows: A couple of ounces of oil is put in a four-ounce sample bottle, and a thermometer placed in it. The oil is then frozen in a freezing mixture of ice and salt being used if necessary. When the oil has become hard, the bottle is removed from the freezing mixture and the frozen oil allowed to soften, being stirred and thoroughly raised at the same time by means of the thermometer, until the mass will run freely.

to the other. The reading of the thermometer when this is the case is called as the cold test of the oil.

—This grade of oil will not be accepted if the sample (1) flashes, 1st to October 1st, below 240° Fahrenheit, or from October 1st to May 1st below 300° Fahrenheit; (2) has a gravity, at 60° Fahrenheit, below 0.87 or above 0.90; (3) from October 1st to May 1st has a cold test below 110° Fahrenheit; (4) shows any precipitation in 10 minutes when 5 metres are mixed with 95 cubic centimetres of 88° gasoline; (5) costs less than 55 seconds, or more than 100 seconds, when tested as below. From October 1st to May 1st the test must be made at 110° Fahrenheit, and from May 1st to October 1st at 110° Fahrenheit.

For oil the flashing point is determined the same as for paraffine winter oil the same, except that the test flame is applied first to the wick. The cold test is made the same as for paraffine oil.

The precipitation test is to exclude tarry and suspended matter. It is made by putting 5 cubic centimetres of the oil in a 100-cubic-centimetre, then filling to the mark with gasoline, and thoroughly

shaking. The test is made as follows: A 100 cubic-centimetre pipette of the form is graduated to hold just 100 cubic centimetres to the bottom.

The size of the aperture at the bottom is then made such that 100 cubic centimetres of water at 100° Fahrenheit will run out the pipette in 10 seconds. Pipettes with bulbs varying from 1 1/4 inches in diameter outside, and about 4 1/2 inches long, will give exactly the same results, provided the aperture at the bottom is of the same size. The pipette being obtained, the oil sample is heated to 110° Fahrenheit, care being taken to have it uniformly heated, and run up into the pipette to the proper mark. The time occupied in running out, down to the bottom of the bulb, gives the test.

Test Oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if sample (1) shows a flash point below 415° Fahrenheit; (2) shows precipitation with gasoline when tested for well oil.

The flashing point is determined the same as for well oil, except that the test flame is applied first at 438° Fahrenheit.

SOLID LUBRICANTS.

Graphite is in a condition of powder and used as a *solid lubricant*, so distinguished from a liquid lubricant, has been found to do well after has failed.

In 1829, says: "Graphite lessened friction in all cases where it was used." General Morin, at a later date, concluded from experiments that it could be used with advantage under heavy pressures; and Prof. Reuleaux found it well adapted for use under both light and heavy pressures (with certain oils). It is especially valuable to prevent abrasion under heavy loads and at low velocities.

Graphite, also called tale and steatite, in the form of powder and mixed with oil or fat, is sometimes used as a lubricant. Graphite or soap, mixed with soap, is used on surfaces of wood working against either metal or wood.

Graphite.—A new self-lubricating bearing known as fibre-graphite, described by John H. Cooper in Trans. A. S. M. E., Vol. 374, as made by P. H. Holmes, of Gardiner, Me. This bearing material is made of selected natural graphite, which has been finely divided and freed from foreign and gritty matter, to which is added wood fibre or other material and then solidified by pressure in specially prepared moulds; the material from which the bearings are first thoroughly dried, then saturated with drying oil, and finally subjected to a current of hot, dry air for the purpose of oxidizing the oil, and hardening the mass. When finished, the bearing is "machined" to size or shape with the same facility and means as metal.

Graphite is a solid compound, usually containing graphite, made in the form of all cylinders which are fitted permanently into holes drilled in the metal of the bearing. The bearing thus fitted runs without any other

Size, of cupolas from 34 inches to 44 inches in diameter.

Capacity of Cupola.—The accompanying table will be of mining the capacity of cupola needed for the production of iron in a specified time.

First, ascertain the amount of iron which is likely to be cast, and the length of time which can be devoted profitably and supposing that two hours is all that can be spared for that ten tons is the amount which must be melted, find in the following Capacity per hour in Pounds, the nearest figure to five which is found to be 10,700 pounds per hour, opposite to which Diameter of Cupolas, Inside Lining, will be found 48 inches. size of cupola required to furnish ten tons of molten iron in

Or suppose that the heats were likely to average 8 tons, which increase up to ten, then it might not be thought wise to increase consequent on working a 48-inch cupola, in which case the directions given, it will be found that a 40-inch cupola will purpose for 6 tons, but would require an additional hour's time whenever the 10-ton heat came along.

The quotations in the table are not supposed to be all that in the hour by some of the very best cupolas, but are sizes which a common cupola under ordinary circumstances may melt in the time specified.

Height of Cupola.—By height of cupola is meant the distance base to the bottom side of the charging hole.

Depth of Bottom of Cupola.—Depth of bottom is the distance sand bed, after it has been formed at the bottom of the cupola under side of the tuyeres.

All the amounts for fuel are based upon a bottom of 10 inches; any departure from this depth must be met by a corresponding quantity of fuel used on the bed; more in proportion increased, and less when it is made shallower.

Amount of Fuel Required on the Bed.—The column "Amount required on Bed, in Pounds" is based on the supposition that straight one all through, and that the bottom is 10 inches deep; if the bottom be more, as in those of the Colliau type, then additional fuel will be needed.

The amounts being given in pounds, answer for both coke and coal should be used, it would reach about 15 inches above the same weight of coke would bring it up to about 22 inches above which is a reliable amount to stock with.

First Charge of Iron.—The amounts given in this column

[illegible]

tuyeres 10 inches by 13½ inches.

If it is found that the given number of flat tuyeres exceeds that of the diminished part of the cupola, they can be reduced to the decreased length to be added to the depth, or the end; by so doing, we arrive at a modified form of the cupola.

Another important point in this connection is to arrange the tuyeres in such a manner as will concentrate the fire at the smallest possible compass, so that the metal in fusion is to traverse while exposed to the oxidizing influence of the air.

To accomplish this, recourse has been had to the use of three rows of tuyeres in some instances—the "Stewart" and "Colliau" cupola furnaces having three rows, and the "Colliau" cupola furnace having four.

Blast pressure.—Experiments show that about 30,000 lbs. of air are consumed in melting a ton of iron, which would weigh more than both iron and fuel. When the proper quantity is supplied, the combustion of the fuel is perfect, and the result is a molten metal. When the supply of air is insufficient, the combustion is imperfect, and carbonic oxide gas is the result. The amount of air required in two cases is as 15 to 4½, showing a loss of over two thirds of perfect combustion.

It is not always true that we obtain the most rapid result by forcing into the cupola the largest quantity of air. If the air is too much elevated the temperature of the air supplied to the cupola is too high to enter into combustion. If more air than this is supplied, it reduces the temperature, and retards combustion, and may be extinguished with too much blast.

Slag in Cupola.—A certain amount of slag is necessary to melt the iron which has fallen to the bottom from the top of the cupola. If it was not there, the iron would suffer from decarburization.

When slag from any cause forms in too great abundance, it can be removed away by inserting a hole a little below the tuyeres, and the slag will find its way as the iron rises in the bottom.

In the event of clean iron and fuel, slag seldom forms in small heats; this renders any preparation unnecessary, but when the cupola is to be taxed to its full capacity, then incumbent on the melter to flux the charges all the time, trying it away in the manner directed.

18 to 10 pounds of metal; any well-constructed cupola will

(*Am. Mach.*, Mar. 5, 1891) gives the following as the practice iron-works, Carteret, N. J.: "We melt daily from twenty to 25 tons, with an average of 11.2 pounds of iron to one of fuel. In even to nine pounds is good melting, but in a cupola that is 48 inches, anything less than nine pounds shows a defect in tuyeres or strength of blast, or in charging up."

"Text-book," by Thos. D. West, gives forty-six reports in cupola practice in thirty States, reaching from Maine to

arges in Stove-foundries. (*Iron Age*, April 14, 1892.) are charged exactly the same. The amount of fuel on the charges differs, while varying amounts of iron are used.

Below will be found charging-lists from some of the foundries in the country:

	lbs.		lbs.
coke.....	1,500	Four next charges of coke,	
of iron.....	5,000	each.....	150
charges of iron.....	1,000	Six next charges of coke, each	120
second charges		Nineteen next charges of coke,	
each.....	200	each.....	100

At 18 tons there would be 5120 lbs. of coke used, giving a increase the amount of iron melted to 24 tons, and a ratio of 6 to 1 of coal is obtained.

	lbs.		lbs.
coke.....	1,600	Second and third charges of	
of iron.....	1,800	fuel.....	120
of fuel.....	150	All other charges of fuel, each	100
charges of iron,			
.....	1,000		

to melt 5060 lbs. of coke would be necessary, giving a ratio of 6 to 1 pound of coke.

	lbs.		lbs.
coke.....	1,600	All other charges of iron.....	2,000
of iron.....	4,000	All other charges of coke.....	150
second charges			
.....	200		

At 18 tons 4100 lbs. of coke would be used, or a ratio of 8.5 to 1.

	lbs.		lbs.
coke.....	1,800	All charges of coke, each.....	200
of iron.....	5,000	All other charges of iron.....	2,000

At 18 tons, 3000 lbs. of fuel would be used, giving a ratio of 2.4 to 1 of coke. Very high, indeed, for stove-plate.

	lbs.		lbs.
coal.....	1,200	All other charges of iron, each	2,000
of iron.....	5,000	All other charges of coal, each	175
of coal.....	200		

At 18 tons 4700 lbs. of coal would be used, giving a ratio of 7.7 to 1 of coal.

Efficient to demonstrate the varying practices existing among foundries. In all these places the iron was proper for stove-plate and apparently there was little or no difference in the kind of metal and at the different foundries.

Increased Driving. (*Erie City Iron-works*, 1891.)—A 60-in. cupola, 100 tons clean castings a week, melting 8 tons per pound of fuel, 7½ lbs.; per cent weight of good castings to 21. Jan. May, 1891: Increased rate of melting to 11½ tons per lb. fuel, 9½; per cent weight of good castings, 75; one week, 17, 10.3 lbs. iron per lb. fuel; per cent weight of good castings, 75. Increase was made by putting in an additional row of tuyeres, 14 ounces. Coke was used as fuel. (W. O. V. *Ed.* 1045.)

Buffalo Steel Pressure-blowers, Speeds and Capacities as applied to Cupolas.

Sq. in. Blast.	No. of Blower.	Diameter inside of Cupola, in.	Pressure in oz.	Speed—No. of Revolutions per minute.	Melting Capacity in pounds, per hour.	Cubic Feet of Air required per minute.	Horse-power required.	Pressure in oz.	Speed—No. of Revolutions per minute.	Melting Capacity in pounds, per hour.	Cubic Feet of Air required per minute.
4	4	30	8	4793	1545	412	1.0	8	5005	1667	437
6	5	35	8	3011	2321	619	1.2	10	4569	2000	520
8	6	30	8	3456	3098	825	2.05	10	3974	2900	740
11	7	35	8	3092	4218	1125	3.1	10	3416	4770	1230
14	8	40	8	2502	5425	1444	3.9	10	3044	6000	1550
18	9	45	10	2617	7818	2055	7.1	12	2916	8300	2120
26	10	55	10	2139	11295	3012	10.2	12	2352	12470	3190
46	11	73	12	1639	21978	5861	35.2	14	1777	20800	5370
68	12	88	12	1639	32995	8636	35.2	14	1777	33000	8600

In the table are given two different speeds and pressures for each blower, and the quantity of iron that may be melted, per hour. In all cases it is recommended to use the lowest pressure of blast that will do the work. Run up to the speed given for that pressure, and regulate the quantity of air by the blast-gate. The tuyere area should be at least one square foot of the area of cupola in square inches, with not less than four equal distances around cupola, so as to equalize the blast throughout. Variations in temperature affect the working of cupolas materially, weather requiring increase in volume of air.

(For tables of the Sturtevant blower see pages 519 and 520.)

Loss in Melting Iron in Cupolas. (G. O. Vair, Jr. March 5, 1891, gives a record of a 45-in. Colliat cupola as follows:

Ratio of fuel to iron, 1 to 7.42.

Good castings	21,314 lbs.
New scrap	3,025 "
Millings	290 "
Loss of metal	1,681 "

Amount melted

Loss of metal, 5.89%. Ratio of loss, 1 to 17.55.

Use of Softeners in Foundry Practice. (W. Graham, Jr.)

June 27, 1889.)—In the foundry the problem is to have the right proportion of combined and graphitic carbon in the resulting casting; this is getting the proper proportion of silicon. The variations in the proportion of silicon afford a reliable and inexpensive means of producing a casting of any required mechanical character which is possible with the iron employed. In this way, by mixing suitable irons in the right proportions, a required grade of casting can be made more cheaply than by using a single iron in which the necessary proportions are already found.

If a strong machine casting were required, it would be necessary to have the phosphorus, sulphur, and manganese within certain limits. Turner found that cast iron which possessed the maximum of the qualities contained, graphite, 2.52%; silicon, 1.42%, phosphorus, 0.004%, sulphur, 0.002%, manganese, 0.58%.

A strong casting could not be made if there was much more than a small amount of phosphorus, sulphur, or manganese. Irons of the same composition of phosphorus, sulphur, and manganese would be most suitable for different purposes, but they could be of different grades, having different proportions of silicon, combined and graphitic carbon. Thus hard irons, and white irons, and even steel scrap, all containing the proper proportions of phosphorus, sulphur, and manganese, could be mixed together, and having a large amount of silicon were mixed with them, producing a casting of the proper proportions of silicon, phosphorus, sulphur, and manganese. This would be the silicon to be forced into the graphite state, and

be soft. High-silicon irons used in this way are called "softeners." The following are typical analyses of softeners:

Ferro-silicon.				Softeners, American.			Scotch Irons, No. 1.	
Foreign.		American.		Well-ston.	Globe.	Belle-fonte.	Ex-linton.	Cott-ness.
10.55	9.80	12.08	10.34	0.67	5.89	3 to 6	2.15	2.59
1.84	0.69	0.06	0.07	0.79	0.25	0.21
0.52	1.12	1.52	1.92	2.57	2.85	8	3.76
3.86	1.95	0.76	0.52	1.00	0.53	2.80	1.70
0.04	0.21	0.48	0.45	0.50	1.10	0.35	0.62	0.85
0.03	0.04	Trace	Trace	Trace	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.01

(For other analyses, see pages 371 to 373.)

These contain a low percentage of total carbon and a high percentage of combined carbon. Carbon is the most important constituent of iron, and there should be about 3.4% total carbon present. By adding silicon, which contains only 2% of carbon the amount of carbon in the iron is lessened.

It is found that more silicon is lost during the remelting of pig iron than in remelting pig iron of lower percentages of silicon. This is about the possible disadvantage of using ferro-silicons containing a percentage of combined carbon as 0.70% to overcome the bad combined carbon in other irons.

Most irons generally contain much more phosphorus than is desired in the strongest castings. It is a mistake to employ a low-phosphorus iron as an iron that would increase the phosphorus for the sake of adding softening qualities, when softening can be produced by mixing irons of the same low phosphorus. (For a discussion of the influence of silicon see page 365.)

Shrinkage of Castings.—The allowance necessary for shrinkage varies with the different kinds of metal, and the different conditions under which the casting is made. For castings where the thickness runs about one inch, cast under ordinary conditions, the following allowance can be made:

Iron, $\frac{3}{8}$ inch per foot.	For zinc, $\frac{5}{16}$ inch per foot.
3/16 " " "	tin, 1/12 " " "
1/4 " " "	aluminum, 3/16 " " "
1/2 " " "	Britannia, 1/32 " " "

Castings, under the same conditions, will shrink less, and thinner than this standard. The quality of the material and the manner of pouring and cooling will also make a difference.

Experiments by W. J. Keep (see Trans. A. S. M. E. vol. xvi.) show that the shrinkage of cast iron of a given section decreases as the percentage of silicon increases, while for a given percentage of silicon the shrinkage as the section is increased. Mr. Keep gives the following showing the approximate relation of shrinkage to size and per-silicon:

Sectional Area of Casting.						
$\frac{1}{8}$ " □	1" □	1" × 2"	2" □	3" □	4" □	
Shrinkage in Decimals of an inch per foot of Length.						
.183	.158	.146	.130	.113	.102	
.171	.145	.133	.117	.098	.087	
.159	.133	.121	.104	.085	.074	
.147	.121	.108	.092	.073	.060	
.135	.108	.095	.077	.059	.045	
.123	.095	.082	.065	.046	.032	

iron is 20 ft. per minute, whether for the lathe, planing, shaping machine. (Proc. Inst. M. E., April, 1883, p. 248.)

Table of Cutting-speeds.

Diameter, inches.	Feet per minute,						
	5	10	15	20	25	30	35
	Revolutions per minute.						
1/16	76.4	152.8	229.2	305.6	382.0	458.4	534.8
1/8	50.0	101.9	152.8	203.7	254.6	305.6	356.5
3/16	38.2	76.4	114.6	152.8	191.0	229.2	267.4
1/4	30.6	61.1	91.7	122.2	152.8	183.4	213.9
5/16	25.5	50.9	76.4	101.8	127.3	152.8	178.2
3/8	21.5	43.7	65.5	87.3	109.1	130.9	152.8
7/16	19.1	38.2	57.3	76.4	95.5	114.6	133.7
1/2	17.0	34.0	50.9	67.9	84.9	101.8	118.8
5/8	15.3	30.6	45.8	61.1	76.4	91.7	106.9
3/4	13.9	27.8	41.7	55.6	69.5	83.4	97.2
7/8	12.7	25.5	38.2	50.9	63.6	76.4	89.1
1	10.9	21.8	32.7	43.7	54.6	65.5	76.4
1 1/8	9.6	19.1	28.7	38.2	47.8	57.3	66.9
1 1/4	8.5	17.0	25.5	34.0	42.5	50.9	59.4
1 3/8	7.6	15.3	22.9	30.6	38.2	45.8	53.5
1 1/2	6.9	13.9	20.8	27.8	34.7	41.7	48.6
1 5/8	6.4	12.7	19.1	25.5	31.8	38.2	44.6
1 3/4	5.5	10.9	16.4	21.8	27.3	32.7	38.2
1 7/8	4.8	9.6	14.3	19.1	23.0	28.7	33.4
2	4.2	8.5	12.7	17.0	21.2	25.5	29.7
2 1/8	3.8	7.6	11.5	15.3	19.1	22.9	26.7
2 1/4	3.5	6.9	10.4	13.9	17.4	20.8	24.3
2 3/8	3.2	6.4	9.5	12.7	15.9	19.1	22.3
2 1/2	2.7	5.5	8.2	10.9	13.6	16.4	19.1
2 5/8	2.4	4.8	7.2	9.6	11.9	14.3	16.7
2 3/4	2.1	4.2	6.4	8.5	10.6	12.7	14.3
3	1.9	3.8	5.7	7.6	9.6	11.5	13.3
3 1/8	1.7	3.5	5.2	6.9	8.7	10.4	12.2
3 1/4	1.6	3.2	4.8	6.4	8.0	9.5	11.1
3 3/8	1.5	2.9	4.4	5.9	7.3	8.8	10.3
3 1/2	1.4	2.7	4.1	5.5	6.8	8.2	9.5
3 5/8	1.3	2.5	3.8	5.1	6.4	7.6	8.9
3 3/4	1.2	2.4	3.6	4.8	6.0	7.2	8.4
4	1.1	2.1	3.2	4.2	5.3	6.4	7.4
4 1/8	1.0	1.9	2.9	3.8	4.8	5.7	6.7
4 1/4	.9	1.7	2.6	3.5	4.3	5.2	6.1
4 3/8	.8	1.6	2.4	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.6
4 1/2	.7	1.5	2.2	2.9	3.7	4.4	5.1
4 5/8	.7	1.4	2.0	2.7	3.4	4.1	4.8
4 3/4	.6	1.3	1.9	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.5
5	.5	1.1	1.6	2.1	2.7	3.2	3.7
5 1/8	.5	.9	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.2
5 1/4	.4	.8	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.8
5 3/8	.4	.7	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.5
5 1/2	.3	.6	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2

Speed of Cutting with Turret Lathes.—Jones & Lamson Co. give the following cutting-speeds for use with the lathe:

	Feet
Threading	Tool steel and taper on tubing.
Machinery	Very soft steel.
Turning	Cut which reduces the stock to 1/2 of its original diameter.
machinery	Cut which reduces the stock to 3/4 of its original diameter.
steel	Cut which reduces the stock to 1/2 of its original diameter.
Turning very soft machinery steel, light cut and cool work.	Cut which reduces the stock to 1/2 of its original diameter.

Metal-cutting Tools.—"Huthe," the German Engi-
book, gives the following cutting-angles for using least power:

	Top Rake.	Angle of Cutting-edge.
on.....	8°	51°
.....	4°	51°
.....	4°	66°

Machinist comments on these figures as follows: We are
the best nor even the generally used angles for tools,
vary so much to suit different circumstances, such as degree
of the metal being cut, quality of steel of which the tool is
cut, kind of finish desired, etc. The angles that cut with
economy of power are easily determined by a few experiments,
angles must be determined by good judgment, guided by expe-
rience in all cases, however, we think the best practical angles are
those given.

For names and descriptions of various forms of cutting-tools, see
the Tools in App. Cyc. App. Mech., vol. II., and in Modern

Angle of cutting-faces (Joshua Rose): For cast steel,
is: for gun-metal or brass, about 50 degrees; for copper and
cut 30 to 35 degrees.

Gearing Lathes for Screw-cutting. (Garvin Ma-
chined from the lathe index the number of threads per inch cut
and multiply it by any number that will give for a product
index; put this gear upon the stud, then multiply the number
each to be cut by the same number, and put the resulting gear

to cut $11\frac{1}{2}$ threads per inch. We find on the index that 48 into
is per inch, then $6 \times 4 = 24$, gear on stud, and $11' \times 4 = 46$.

Any multiplier may be used so long as the products include
ing with the lathe. For instance, instead of 4 as a multiplier

Thus, $6 \times 6 = 36$, gear upon stud, and $11\frac{1}{2} \times 6 = 69$, gear

Calculating Simple and Compound Gearing

There is no Index. (Am. Mach.)—If the lathe is simple,
stud runs at the same speed as the spindle, select some gear
and multiply its number of teeth by the number of threads
lead-screw, and divide this result by the number of threads
cut. This will give the number of teeth in the gear for the
result is a fractional number, or a number which is not among
and, then try some other gear for the ser-w. Or, select the
and first, then multiply its number of teeth by the number of
to be cut, and divide by the number of threads per inch on

This will give the number of teeth for the gear on the
lathe is compound, select at random all the driving-gears,
numbers of their teeth together, and this product by the num-
to be cut. Then select at random all the driven gears except
the numbers of their teeth together, and this product by the
ends per inch in the lead-screw. Now divide the first result by
obtain the number of teeth in the remaining driven gear. Or,

in all the driven gears. Multiply the numbers of their teeth
this product by the number of threads per inch in the lead-
select at random all the driving gears except one. Multiply
of their teeth together, and this result by the number of threads
screw to be cut. Divide the first result by the last, to obtain
teeth in the remaining driver. When the gears on the com-
are fast together, and cannot be changed, then the driven one
ice as many teeth as the other, or driver, in which case in the
insider the lead-screw to have twice as many threads per inch
has, and then ignore the compounding entirely. Some lathes
ated that the stud on which the first driver is placed revolves
ut as the spindle. This can be ignored in the calculations by
number of threads of the lead-screw. If both the last condi-
nt ignore them in the calculations by multiplying the number
inch in the lead-screw by four. If the thread to be cut is

If the pitch of the lead-screw is fractional, or if both
reduce the fractions to a common denominator.
If these fractions as if they equalled the pitch of the

to be cut, and of the lead-screw, respectively. Then use that pair given above which applies to the lathe in question. For instance it is desired to cut a thread of $25\frac{3}{32}$ -inch pitch, and the lathe has threads per inch. Then the pitch of the lead-screw will be equal to $4\frac{3}{32}$ inch. We now have two fractions, $25\frac{3}{32}$ and $4\frac{3}{32}$; the screws will be in the proportion of 25 to 8, and the gears can be found by the above rule, assuming the number of threads to be cut on the stud, and those on the lead-screw to be 25 per inch. But this latter may be further modified by conditions named above, such as a reduction of the stud, or fixed compound gears. In the instance given if the stud had been $25\frac{1}{8}$ threads per inch, then its pitch being $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, the fractions $4\frac{3}{32}$ and $25\frac{3}{32}$, which, reduced to a common denominator, are $64\frac{1}{160}$ and $125\frac{1}{160}$, and the gears will be the same as if the lead-screw had $64\frac{1}{160}$ threads per inch, and the screw to be cut $64\frac{1}{160}$ threads per inch.

On this subject consult also "Formulas in Gearing," published by Sharpe Mfg. Co., and Jamieson's Applied Mechanics.

Change-gears for Screw-cutting Lathes.—There is a great uniformity among lathe-builders as to the change-gears provided for cutting. W. R. Macdonald, in *Am. Mach.*, April 7, 1892, proposed a series, by which 33 whole threads (not fractional) may be cut with only nine gears:

Screw.	Spindle.										Whole
	20	24	30	36	45	60	72	90	110	120	130
20	8	6	4	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	1
24	16	12	9	9	9	8	6	6	4	4	3
30	20	15	12	12	12	10	8	8	5	5	4
36	24	18	14	14	14	12	10	10	6	6	5
45	30	22	18	18	18	15	12	12	7	7	6
60	40	30	24	24	24	20	16	16	9	9	8
72	48	36	28	28	28	24	20	20	11	11	10
90	60	45	36	36	36	30	24	24	13	13	12
110	72	54	42	42	42	36	30	30	15	15	14
120	80	60	48	48	48	40	32	32	16	16	15
130	86	64	50	50	50	42	34	34	17	17	16

Ten gears are sufficient to cut all the usual threads, with the exception perhaps of $11\frac{1}{2}$, the standard pipe-thread; in ordinary practice any thread between 11 and 12 will be near enough for the customary thread; if not, the addition of a single gear will give it.

In this table the pitch of the lead-screw is 12, and it may be of any other fine for the purpose. This may be rectified by making the gears in any other desirable pitch, and establishing the proper ratio between the lathe spindle and the gear-stud.

Metric Screw-threads may be cut on lathes with inch-leading screws, by the use of change wheels with 50 and 127 teeth. Centimetres = 50 inches ($127 \times 0.3937 = 50.9999$ in.).

Rule for Setting the Taper in a Lathe.—A simple rule can be given which will produce exact results, owing to the fact that the centres enter the work an indefinite distance. If it were not for this circumstance the following would be an exact rule, and it is an approximation to it. To find the distance to set the centre over, divide the difference of the diameters of the large and small end of the taper by 2, and multiply by the ratio which the total length of the shaft bears to the length of the tapered portion. Example: Suppose a shaft three feet long, a taper turned on the end one foot long, the large end of the taper 2 inches and the small end one inch diameter.

$$\frac{2 - 1}{2} \times \frac{36}{12} = 1.5 \text{ inches}$$

Electric Drilling-machines. Speed of Drilling in Steel Plates. (Proc Inst M E, Aug. 1885, p. 375.)—In making the shaft of the S.S. "Albatross," after a very small amount of preliminary working the machines drilled the 2-inch holes to the full depth, doing the work at the rate of one hole every 6 minutes. The time occupied in altering the position of the machines to drill the next hole was not included. The machines were not conveniently arranged for drilling pulley-blocks, which were not conveniently arranged for drilling. Repeated trials of these drilling machines showed that they consumed electrical energy in both holding on and

to about $\frac{3}{4}$ H.P., they were drilled holes of 3 inch diameter, each thickness of steel $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, and $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, and of mild steel plates of 13 16 inch each, taking exactly 14 minutes for each

of Twist-drills. The cutting speeds and rates of feed for the Morse Twist-drill and Machine Company are given in the table.

Revs. per minute for drills $\frac{1}{16}$ in. to 2 in. diam., as usually applied.

Speed for Steel.	Speed for Iron.	Speed for Brass.	Diameter of Drills.	Speed for Steel.	Speed for Iron.	Speed for Brass.
			inch.			
340	1280	1560	1 $\frac{1}{16}$	54.	75	85
460	680	785	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	52	70	80
310	420	540	1 $\frac{3}{16}$	49	66	75
240	320	400	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	46	62	70
190	260	330	1 $\frac{5}{16}$	44	60	70
150	220	280	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	42	58	72
140	185	230	1 $\frac{7}{16}$	40	56	65
115	160	200	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	39	54	66
100	140	180	1 $\frac{9}{16}$	37	51	63
95	120	160	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	36	49	60
85	115	145	1 $\frac{11}{16}$	34	47	56
75	105	130	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	33	45	55
70	100	120	1 $\frac{13}{16}$	32	43	54
65	90	115	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	31	41	52
62	85	110	1 $\frac{15}{16}$	30	40	51
58	80	100	2	29	39	49

One inch in soft cast iron will usually require: For $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. drill, 125 revs.; for $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. drill, 130 revolutions; for $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. drill, 100 revolutions; for 1-in. drill, 95 revolutions.

Amount of feed for twist drills are thus given by the same company:

For drill. $\frac{1}{16}$ $\frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{3}{16}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$

Each depth of hole. 125 125 150 to 140 1 inch feed per min.

MILLING-CUTTERS.

Adly (Proc Inst M. E., Oct. 1890, p. 537), gives the following: **Analysis of Steel.**—The following are analyses of milling cutter made from best quality crucible cast steel and from self-hardening steel:

	Crucible Cast Steel, per cent.	Ivanhoe Steel, per cent.
Carbon	1.2	1.67
Manganese	0.112	0.252
Phosphorus	0.018	0.051
Silicon	0.36	3.557
Sulphur	0.02	0.01
Iron	4.05
By difference	98.29	90.81
	100,000	100,000

Analysis is of a cutter 11 in. diam., 1 in. wide, which gave very fine at a cutting speed of 60 ft. per min. Large milling cutters are built up, the cutting-edges only being of tool steel. A cutter 22 in. $\frac{3}{4}$ in. wide has been made in this way, the teeth being clamped between cast-iron flanges. Mr. Adly recommends for this form of cutter with a cutting angle of 70° , the face of the tooth being set for back of line on the cutter, the clearance angle being thus for. At the iron-works, Leeds, the face of the tooth is set for back of the round being wrought iron and for for steel.

of Teeth.—For obtaining a suitable pitch of teeth for milling various diameters there exists no standard rule, the pitch being fixed in an arbitrary manner, according to individual

For estimating the pitch of teeth in a cutter of any diameter d in., Mr. Addy has worked out the following rule, which he has found to be giving good results in practice:

$$\text{Pitch in inches} = \frac{1}{4} (\text{diam. in inches} \times 8) \times 0.0025 = .177 \sqrt{d}$$

J. M. Gray gives a rule for pitch as follows: The number of teeth in a milling-cutter ought to be 100 times the pitch in inches, that is, if there were 27 teeth, the pitch ought to be 0.27 in. The rules are practically the same, for if d = diam., n = No. of teeth, p = pitch, c = circumference, πn ; $d = \frac{\pi n}{\pi} = \frac{100p^2}{\pi} = 31.83p^2$; $p = \sqrt{\frac{.0318d}{\pi}} = .177 \sqrt{d}$; No. of teeth = $\frac{100}{.177 \sqrt{d}} = \frac{565}{\sqrt{d}}$.

Number of Teeth in Mills or Cutters. (Joshua Rose.)—The teeth of cutters must obviously be spaced wide enough apart to admit of grinding one tooth without touching the next one, and the teeth of the teeth are always made in the plane of a line radiating from the center. In cutters up to 3 in. in diam. it is good practice to have 27 teeth per in. of diam., while in cutters above that diameter the teeth may be coarser, as follows:

Diameter of cutter, 6 in. ; number of teeth in cutter	27
" " " 7 " "	25
" " " 8 " "	20

Speed of Cutters.—The cutting speed for milling was originally very low; but experience has shown that with the improvement in use it may with advantage be considerably increased, especially in cutters of large diameter. The following are recommended as safe speeds for cutters of 6 in. and upwards, provided there is not any great depth of cut to cut away:

	Steel.	Wrought iron.	Cast iron.
Feet per minute. . . .	30	48	60
Feed, inch per min. . .	$\frac{1}{16}$	1	$\frac{1}{16}$

Should it be desired to remove any large quantity of material the cutting-speeds are still recommended, but with a finer feed. A safe cutting-speed is: Number of revolutions per minute which the spindle should make when working on cast iron = 240, divided by the diameter of the cutter in inches.

Speed of Milling-cutters. (Proc. Inst. M. E., April, 1884.)—The cutting-speed which can be employed in milling is much greater than that which can be used in any of the ordinary operations of turning on a lathe, or of planing, shaping, or slotting. A milling-cutter with a good supply of oil, or soap and water, can be run at from 80 to 120 ft. per min. when cutting wrought iron. The same metal can only be turned at 40 ft. with a tool holder having a good cutter, at the rate of 30 ft. per min. about one third the speed of milling. A milling-cutter will cut cast iron at the rate of 25 to 40 ft. per min.

The following extracts are taken from an article on speed and feed in milling-cutters in *Eng'g*, Oct. 22, 1891: Milling-cutters are generally employed on cast iron at a speed of 250 ft. per min.; on wrought iron, 80 ft. to 100 ft. per min. The latter materials need a copious supply of lubricant, such as oil or soapy water. These rates of speed are approached by other tools. The usual cutting-speeds on the lathe for planing, and slotting machines rarely exceed about one third of those above, and frequently average about a fifth, the time lost in each case being reckoned.

The feed in the direction of cutting is said by one writer to vary in ordinary work, from 10 to 70 revs. of a 4-in. cutter per in. of feed. It must be to an extent depend on the character of the work done, but the average shavings of extreme thinness. For example, the circumference of a cutter being, say, 12 1/2 in., and having, say, 60 teeth, the average distance corresponding to the passage of one cutting-tooth over the work is 1/60 of the above-named feed motions, is 1/60 x 12 1/2 = 1/48 in. This gives an advance, for each tooth of only 1/48 = 1/48 x 12 1/2 = 1/4 in. feeds as these are used only for light finishing work, and are not generally recommended, also for finishing, a cutter about 3 in. in diam. nearly 3 in. in diameter, which should be run at about 100 revs. per min. for soft steel, 120 for ordinary cast iron, about 140 for

10 to 160 for the various qualities of gun-metal and brass smaller or larger the rates of revolution are increased or diminished with the following table, which gives these rates of cut and shows the lineal speed of the cutting-edge:

Steel.	Wrought Iron.	Cast Iron.	Gun-metal.	Brass.
45	60	90	105	120

are intended for very light finishing cuts, and they must be
 at one half for heavy cutting.

Results have been found to be the highest that could be attained by workshop routine, having due consideration to economy in change and grind the cutters when they become dull: 15 ft. to 40 ft. per min.; depth of cut, 1 in.; feed, $\frac{1}{16}$ in. per steel—About 30 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{16}$ in.; feed, $\frac{1}{16}$ in. per gun-metal—80 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{16}$ in.; feed, $\frac{1}{16}$ in. per iron gear wheels—25 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{16}$ in.; feed, $\frac{1}{16}$ in. Hard, close-grained cast iron—30 ft. per min.; depth feed, 5 to 10 in. per min. Gun-metal joints, 33 ft. per min.; 1 in.; feed, $\frac{1}{16}$ in. per min. Steel-bars—21 ft. per min.; depth feed, $\frac{1}{16}$ in. per min.

ling-cutter, 4 in. in diam. and 12 in. wide, tested under two ed in the same machine, gave the following results: The stances was worked up to its maximum speed before it gave being to ascertain definitely the relative amount of work ped and a light feed, as compared with a low speed and a machine was used single-gearcd and double-gearcd, and in dth of cut was 10½ in.

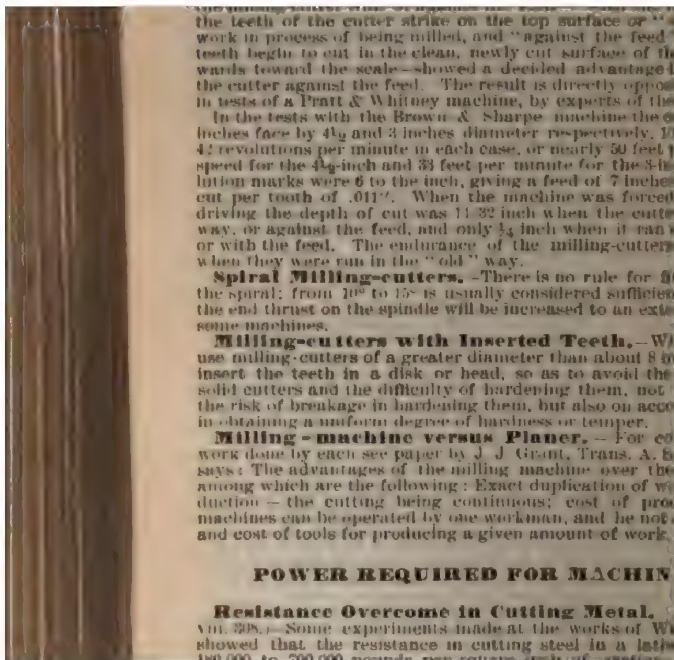
1 ft. per min.; 5-16 in. depth of cut; feed, 13 in. per min. —
 dia. Double-gear, 10 ft. per min.; $\frac{5}{8}$ in. depth of cut; feed,
 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 40 cu. in. per min.

Resin with **Milling-machines**. — Horace L. Ich. Dec. 28, 1893, gives the following resins in flat-surface in a Pratt & Whitney milling-machine: The mills for the diam., 13 teeth, 40 to 50 revs. and $4\frac{1}{2}$ " feed per min. One can run over this piece at a feed of 3" per min., but the milling is slow and the rate of production is small. The following are the mill figures are as follows: with 47% feed: Surface only; feed per tooth, 0.00812; cuts per inch, 133. And with a Surface speed, 84 ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.0157; cuts

84" per min. the mills stood up well in this job of cast-iron with a 9" feed they required grinding after surfacing on wheels, it did not damage the mill-teeth to do this job with surface finished, but they would not endure 60% cuts per cut in milling the surface speed of the mills does not seem to be a mill destruction; it is the increase of feed per tooth that reduced production of finished surface. This is precisely the reason of single-pointed lathe and planer tools in general; with a surface-speed limit which cannot be economically exceeded, and so long as this surface-speed limit is not reached, a feed can be made anything up to the limit of the drive of the lathe or planer, or to the safe strain on the work itself, in any case be easily broken by a too great feed.

total extreme figures were obtained in one experiment made at 5.16" wide by 36" deep in a bank of 8 shafts 14" diam. cut & Whitney No. 3 column milling-machine. The 8 mills operated with 45 ft. surface speed and 195 ft. per min. were 5" diam., with 28 teeth, giving the following figures: 6 speed, 45 ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.02024"; cuts per

Feed with the revolution of mill. Flooded with oil, thus is of oil running constantly over each mill. Face of tooth cutting keyway was described as having a heavy wave or hump bottom, and it was said to have shown no signs of being cutters or on the machine. As a result of the experiment economical steady work to run at 17 revs., with a feed of .001 in. work fed with mill revolution, giving the following figures: 17 speed, 45 ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.0081"; ex



the teeth of the cutter strike on the top surface or "work in process of being milled, and "against the feed" teeth begin to cut in the clean, newly cut surface of the work toward the scale—showed a decided advantage of the cutter against the feed. The result is directly opposed in tests of a Pratt & Whitney machine, by experts of the

In the tests with the Brown & Sharpe machine the 3 inches face by $4\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 inches diameter respectively, at 47 revolutions per minute in each case, or nearly 50 feet per speed for the $4\frac{1}{2}$ -inch and 33 feet per minute for the 3-inch. The marks were 8 to the inch, giving a feed of 7 inches cut per tooth of .017". When the machine was forced driving the depth of cut was $1\frac{1}{32}$ inch when the cutter ran way, or against the feed, and only $\frac{1}{32}$ inch when it ran with the feed. The endurance of the milling-cutters when they were run in the "old" way.

Spiral Milling-cutters.—There is no rule for the spiral; from 10° to 15° is usually considered sufficient; the end thrust on the spindle will be increased to an extent on some machines.

Milling-cutters with Inserted Teeth.—When use milling-cutters of a greater diameter than about 8 in. insert the teeth in a disk or head, so as to avoid the solid cutters and the difficulty of hardening them, not the risk of breakage in hardening them, but also on account of obtaining a uniform degree of hardness or temper.

Milling-machine versus Planer.—For work done by each see paper by J. J. Grant, Trans. A. S. M. E. says: The advantages of the milling machine over the planer among which are the following: Exact duplication of work—production—the cutting being continuous; cost of production—machines can be operated by one workman, and he not a cost of tools for producing a given amount of work.

POWER REQUIRED FOR MILLING

Resistance Overcome in Cutting Metal.

AM. M. E. Some experiments made at the works of Wm. showed that the resistance in cutting steel in a lathe 100 000 to 200 000 pounds per square inch of surface

to remove it. The weight of metal removed per hour would be $1\frac{1}{2} \times .375 \times .26 \times 60 = 1082.8$ lbs. Our earlier form of 36" planer had with one tool on $\frac{3}{4}$ " cut on work 200 lbs. of metal per hour, and the machine has more than five times its capacity. The total pulling force of the planer is 35,000 lbs.

Horse-power Required to Run Lathes. (J. J. Flather, *Am. Mach.*, April 23, 1891.)—The power required to do useful work varies with pitch and breadth of chip, with the shape of tool, and with the nature of metal operated upon; and the power required to run a machine empty is often a variable quantity.

For instance, when the machine is new, and the working parts have not been worn or fitted to each other as they will be after running a few days, the power required will be greater than will be the case after the working parts have become better fitted.

Another cause of variation of the power absorbed is the driving belt; a belt will increase the friction, hence to obtain the greatest efficiency machine we should use wide belts, and run them just tight enough to slip. The belts should also be soft and pliable, otherwise power is wasted in bending them to the curvature of the pulleys.

Another cause is the variation of journal-friction, due to slackening up or tightening the cap-screws, and also the end-thrust bearing screw.

Mr. Flather's investigations show that it requires less total power to turn off a large weight of metal in a given time than it does to plane off the same weight, and also that the power is less for large than for small diameters.

The following table gives the actual horse-power required to drive a lathe at varying numbers of revolutions of main spindle.

HORSE-POWER FOR SMALL LATHES.

Without Back Gears.		With Back Gears.		Remarks.
No. of revs. per min.	H.P. required to drive empty.	Revs. of spindle per min.	H.P. required to drive empty.	
16.72	.143	14.6	.126	20" Fitchburg lathe.
17.08	.197	24.33	.141	
17.00	.310	38.42	.274	
17.4	.159	4.84	.132	Small lathe (13 $\frac{3}{4}$ "), Chemnitz, Germany. New machine.
17.10	.230	12.8	.137	
17.0	.339	19.2	.230	
17.0	.306	6.81	.157	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ " lathe do. New machine.
17.0	.339	14.8	.206	
17.0	.435	22.1	.249	
17.0	.086	2.31	.055	20" lathe do.
17.0	.210	6.72	.063	
17.0	.326	10.8	.087	

P_0 = horse-power necessary to drive lathe empty, and N = number of revolutions per minute, then the equation for average small lathes is $P_0 = 0.095 + 0.0012N$.

The power necessary to drive the lathes empty when the back gears are in use, gives the following average equation for lathes under 20" swing is

$$H.P._0 = 0.10 + 0.006N.$$

Larger lathes vary so much in construction and detail that no general formula can be obtained which will give, even approximately, the power required to run them, and although the average formula shows that at least one horse-power is needed to start the small lathes, there are many American lathes under 20" swing working on a consumption of less than .35 horse-power.

The amount of power required to remove metal in a machine is able within more accurate limits.

Referring to Dr. Hartig's researches, $H.P. = CW$, where C and W the weight of chips removed per hour.

Average values of C are .030 for cast-iron, .032 for wrought steel.

The size of lathe, and, therefore, the diameter of work, has effect on the cutting power. If the lathe be heavy, the cut can be and consequently the weight of chips increased, but the value of C is about the same for a given metal through several sizes of lathes.

HORSE-POWER REQUIRED TO REMOVE CAST IRON IN A 20-INCH LATHE (J. J. Hobart.)

Descriptive No.	Number of Trials.	Tool used.	Average Cutting-speed in feet per minute.	Depth of Cut in inches.	Average Breadth of Cut in inches.	Average H.P. required to remove Metal.
1	65	Side tool.....	37.90	.125	.015	.342
2	15	Diamond.....	35.00	.125	.015	.315
3	17	Round nose.....	42.61	.125	.015	.292
4	2	Left-hand round nose.....	37.20	.125	.015	.287
5	4	Square-faced tool 1/8" broad....	25.82	.015	.125	.253
6	1	"	25.37	.048	.048	.200
7	1	"	25.64	.125	.015	.246

The above table shows that an average of .36 horse power is required to turn off 10 pounds of cast-iron per hour, from which we obtain a value of the constant $C = .024$.

Most of the cuts were taken so that the metal would be red-hot; with a broad surface cut and a coarse feed, as in No. 6, the least power per pound of chips removed in a given time was a minimum, as in No. 6.

HORSE-POWER REQUIRED TO REMOVE METAL IN A 20-INCH LATHE (R. H. Smith.)

Number of Experiments.	Metal.	Cutting-speed, ft. per min.	Depth of Cut, in.	Average Breadth of Cut, in.	Average H.P. required to remove Metal.	Average Power per pound of chips removed.
4	Cast iron	12.7	.08	.046	.106	2.5
4	Cast iron	11.1	.135	.046	.117	12
4	Cast iron	12.65	.04	.038	.108	1.1
4	Wrought iron	9.6	.03	.042	.060	1.1
4	Wrought iron	9.1	.06	.045	.138	4.0
4	Wrought iron	7.2	.14	.045	.175	4.0
4	Wrought iron	9.35	.045	.038	.095	1.0
4	Steel	6.00	.02	.048	.063	1.0
4	Steel	5.8	.04	.042	.082	1.0
4	Steel	5.1	.06	.045	.108	1.0

ies of C. .017 and .019, obtained for cast iron are probably the: the iron was soft and of fine quality; known as power less power to cut; and, as Prof. Smith remarks a lower to takes less horse-power.

metals and forms of tools vary, otherwise the amount of per hour per horse-power would be practically constant, the speeds decreasing but slightly the faster work done.

count these variations, the weight of metal removed per by a certain constant, is equal to the power necessary to do

according to the above tests, is as follows:

	Cast Iron.	Wrought Iron.	Steel.
.....	.030	.032	.047
.....	.023	.025	.042
.....	.024		
.....	.026	.030	.044

necessary to run the lathe empty will vary from about 16 to 3 ould be ascertained and added to the useful horse-power, to power expended.

ed by Machine-tools. (R. E. Dinsmore, from the *Elec.*

2 3/16" x 180 ft. at 100 revs., carrying 26 pulleys to 36", and running 20 bile machine belts.....	1.32 H.P.
upright back-geared drill-press with table, 28" 3/4" hole in cast iron, with a feed of 1 in. per	0.78 H.P.
drill grinder No. 2, carrying 2" x 6" wheels at 3200	0.29 H.P.
30" x 38", table 6 ft., planing cast iron, cut 1/4" 6 sq. in. per minute, at 9 reversals.....	1.06 H.P.
line 2 1/2" stroke, cutting steel die, 6" stroke, 1/4" at rate of 1.7 square inch per minute.....	0.37 H.P.
17" swing, turning steel shaft 2 3/8" diam., cut 3/16 7.92 inch per minute.....	0.43 H.P.
11" swing, boring cast-iron hole 5" diam., cut 3/16 0.3" per minute.....	0.23 H.P.
0, 2, monogram blower at 1800 revs. per minute,	0.8 H.P.
28" x 28" x 14 ft. bed, stroke 8", cutting steel, r minute.....	3.2 H.P.

the next page compiled from various sources, principally researches, by Prof. J. J. Flather (*Am. Mach.*, April 12, 1894), is a guide in estimating the power required to run a given must be understood that these values, although determined the measurements for the individual machines designated, ly representative, as the power required to drive a machine ent largely on its particular design and construction. The ie work to be done may also affect the power required to a machine to be used exclusively for brass work may be 0% to 15% higher than if it were to be used for iron work of the power required will be proportionately greater.

is to be transmitted to the machines by means of shafting lis, an additional amount, varying from 30% to 50% of the total by the machines, will be necessary to overcome the friction

ver required to drive Shafting.—Samuel Webber, of Power" gives among numerous tables of power required machinery, a table of results of tests of shafting. A line of 22 ft. long, weighing 4098 lbs., with pulleys weighing 5321 lb. 7 lbs., supported on 47 bearings, 216 revolutions per min. P. to drive it. This gives a coefficient of friction of 4 its the coefficient ranged from 3.34% to 11.4%, aver

Horse-power Required to Drive Machinery.

Name of Machine.	Horse-power Required.	
	Total Work.	Remarks.
Small screw-cutting lathe 13½" swing, B. G.	0.41	0.18
Screw-cutting lathe 17½", B. G.	0.467	0.20
Screw-cutting lathe 20" (Fitchburg), B. G.	0.47	0.20
Screw-cutting lathe 26", B. G.	0.462	0.20
Lathe, 80" face plate, will swing 108", T. G.	0.53	0.25
Large facing lathe, will swing 68", T. G.	0.91	0.45
Wheel lathe 60" swing.		0.25
Small shaper (stroke 4', traverse 11").	0.16	0.09
Small shaper, Richards (9½" × 23").	0.21	0.07
Shaper (15" stroke, Gould & Eberhardt).	0.03	0.01
Large shaper, Richards (29" × 91").	1.14	0.50
Crank planer capacity 23" × 27" × 28½" (stroke).	0.24	0.12
Planer capacity 36" × 36" × 11 feet.	0.84	0.4
Large planer capacity 76" × 76" × 57 feet.	1.47	0.7
Small drill press.	0.62	0.3
Upright slot drilling mach. (will drill 2½" diam.).	0.41	0.12
Medium drill press.	3.33	0.8
Large drill press.	1.21	0.6
Radial drill 6 feet swing.	0.53	0.4
Radial drill 8½ feet swing.	0.67	0.3
Radial drill press.	1.08	0.5
Slotter (8" stroke).	0.28	0.10
Slotter (2½" stroke).	0.44	0.20
Slotter (15" stroke).	0.03	0.01
Universal milling mach. (Brown & Sharpe No. 1).	0.28	0.10
Milling machine (13" cutter head, 12 cutters).	0.66	0.20
Small head traversing milling machine (cutter-head 11" diameter, 16 cutters).	0.18	0.07
Gear cutter will cut 20" diameter.	0.28	0.10
Horizontal boring machine for iron, 23½" swing.	0.68	0.20
Hydraulic shearing machine.	1.52	0.7
Large plate shears—knives 28" long, 3" stroke.	7.12	3.5
Large punch press, over reach 28", 3" stroke, 1½" stock can be punched.	4.41	2.2
Small punch and shear comb'd, 7½" knives, 1½" str.	0.79	0.4
Circular saw for hot iron (30½" diameter of saw).	4.12	2.0
Plate-bending rolls, diam. of rolls 13", length 9½ ft.	2.70	1.3
Wood planer 13½" (rotary knives, 9 hor'l & vert.	4.21	2.1
Wood planer 24" (rotary knives).	3.03	1.5
Wood planer 17½" (rotary knives).	4.63	2.3
Wood planer 28" (rotary knives).	5.10	2.5
Wood planer 28" (Daniel's pattern).	3.20	1.6
Wood planer and matcher capacity 14½ × 4½".	0.91	0.4
Circular saw for wood (23" diameter of saw).	3.27	1.6
Circular saw for wood (35" diameter of saw).	5.64	2.8
Band saw for wood (14" band wheel).	0.66	0.3
Wood-mortising and boring machine.	0.49	0.2
Hor'l wood-boring and mortising machine, drill 4" diam., mortise 8½ deep × 11½" long.	3.68	1.8
Tenon and mortising machine.	2.11	1.0
Tenon and mortising machine.	2.73	1.3
Tenon and mortising machine.	2.25	1.1
Edge molder and shaper. (Vertical spindle).	2.00	1.0
Wood-molding mach. way, 1½ × 2½. Hor spindle.	2.43	1.2
Grindstone for tools, 31" diam., 6" face velocity 680 ft. per minute.	1.12	0.5
Grindstone for stock, 42" × 12", Vel 1000 ft per min.	3.11	1.5
Emery wheel 11½" diameter, 1½" Saw grinder.	0.72	0.3

Back gears. † Without back gears. ‡ For cutters.
B. G., back-geared. T. G., triple-geared.

cold saw to cutting iron or steel in the turn of a lathe, in which the piece to be cut is made to revolve faster than the saw. By this means only a small surface is presented at a time to the circumference of the saw, the same size as the cold saw above described, and it moves at about 25,000 feet per minute. The heat generated against the small surface of the bar rotated against the periphery of the saw causes the particles of iron or steel in the bar to actually weld as it falls into a solid mass. This disk will cut iron, or steel. It will cut a bar of steel 1½ inch diameter in 10 minutes, including the time of setting it in the machine, or 200 turns per minute.

Cutting Stone with Wire.—A plan of cutting stone with wire cord has been tried in Europe. While representing the agent, M. Paulin Gay, of Marseilles, has succeeded in cutting stone by this means, and as continuously as formerly with the diamond drill, with both of which appliances his system—the "wire cord"—has considerable analogy. An engine in France cuts wire cord (varying from five to seven thirty-second inch in diameter according to the work), composed of three mild-steel wires of 15 to 17 feet per second.

The Sand-blast.—In the sand-blast, invented by John H. Paine, of Philadelphia, and first exhibited at the American Exhibition in 1876, common sand, powdered quartz, emery, or other material is blown by a jet of air or steam on glass, metal, or other brittle substance, by which means the latter is abraded. To protect those portions of the surface which are not to be abraded it is only necessary to cover them with a substance such as lead, rubber, leather, paper, wax, or rubber. (See App. Cyc. Mech.; also U. S. report of Vienna Exh. 1876.)

A "jet of sand" impelled by steam of moderate pressure, in a blast of an ordinary fan, depolishes glass in a few minutes; and metals are given the so-called "sand-blast" finish with rapidity. With a jet issuing from under 300 lb. pressure it will cut through a piece of corundum 1½ inches thick in 10 minutes.

The sand-blast has been applied to the cleaning of

The same weight of small forgings and stampings can be scaled in 20 to 30 minutes.—*Iron Age*, March 8, 1894.

EMERY-WHEELS AND GRINDSTONES.

Selection of Emery-wheels.—A pamphlet entitled "Emery-wheels, their Selection and Use," published by the Brown & Sharpe Mfg. Co., after calling attention to the fact that too much should not be expected of a wheel, and commenting upon the importance of selecting the proper wheel for the work to be done, says:

Wheels are numbered from coarse to fine; that is, a wheel made of No. 100 is coarser than one made of No. 100. Within certain limits, and things being equal, a coarse wheel is less liable to change the temperature of the work and less liable to glaze than a fine wheel. As a rule, the harder the stock the coarser the wheel required to produce a given finish.

For example, coarser wheels are required to produce a given surface upon hardened steel than upon soft steel, while finer wheels are required to produce this surface upon brass or copper than upon either steel or soft steel.

Wheels are graded from soft to hard, and the grade is denoted by the letter of the alphabet, A denoting the softest grade. A wheel is soft or hard chiefly on account of the amount and character of the material composed in its manufacture with emery or corundum. But other characteristics being equal, a wheel that is composed of fine emery is more compact and harder than one made of coarser emery. For instance, a wheel of No. 60 emery, grade B, will be harder than one of No. 60 emery, same grade.

The softness of a wheel is generally its most important characteristic. A wheel is less apt to cause a change of temperature in the work, or to become glazed, than a harder one. It is best for grinding hardened steel, iron, brass, copper, and rubber, while a harder or more compact wheel is better for grinding soft steel and wrought iron. As a rule, other things being equal, the harder the stock the softer the wheel required to produce a given finish.

Generally speaking, a wheel should be softer as the surface in contact with the work is increased. For example, a wheel 1 1/16-inch face should be softer than one 1/4-inch face. If a wheel is hard and heats or chatters, it often can be made somewhat more effective by turning off a part of its grinding surface; but it should be clearly understood that while this will sometimes prevent a hard wheel from heating or chattering the work, such a wheel will not prove as economical as one of the full width and proper grade, for it should be borne in mind that the grade should always bear the proper relation to the width. (See the pamphlet referred to for other information. See also lecture by T. Dunkin Parrot, Pres't of The Tanite Co., "Emery-wheels," Jour. Frank Inst., March, 1890.)

Speed of Emery-wheels.—The following speeds are recommended for different makers:

Revolutions per minute.				Diameter of wheel, inches.	Revolutions per minute.			
Waltham E. W. Co.	The Tanite Co.	Grant Corundum Wheel Co.	Norton E. W. Co.		Waltham E. W. Co.	The Tanite Co.	Grant Corundum Wheel Co.	Norton E. W. Co.
19,000				10	1,950	2,160	2,200	2,300
12,500	14,400		12,000	12	1,600	1,800	1,800	1,850
9,500	10,800		10,000	14	1,400	1,570	1,600	1,600
7,500	8,640		8,500	16	1,200	1,350	1,400	1,400
6,400	7,200	7,400	7,400	18	1,050	1,222	1,250	1,250
4,800	5,400	5,400	5,450	20	950	1,080	1,100	1,100
3,800	4,320	4,400	4,400	22	875	1,000	1,000	1,000
3,200	3,600	3,600	3,600	24	800	917	925	925
2,700	3,040	3,200	3,150	26	750		800	825
2,400	2,700	2,700	2,750	30	675	733	500	735
2,150	2,400	2,400	2,450	36	550	611	400	540

advise the regular speed of 5500 feet per minute." (Detroit Free Press.)

Experience has demonstrated that there is no advantage in re-

solid emery-wheels at a higher rate than 5500 feet per minute speed." (Springfield E. W. Mfg. Co.)

"Although there is no exactly defined limit at which a wheel to render it effective, experience has demonstrated that, taking safety, durability, and liability to heat, 5500 feet per minute at all gives the best results. All first-class wheels have the number necessary to give this rate marked on their labels, and a column in the price-list gives a corresponding rate. Above this speed are unsafe. If run much below it they wear away rapidly in proportion to what they accomplish." (Northampton E. W. Co.)

Grades of Emery.—The numbers representing the grade run from 8 to 120, and the degree of smoothness of surface they be compared to that left by files as follows:

8 and 10	represent the cut of a wood rasp.	
16	" 20	" " " " a coarse rough file.
24	" 30	" " " " an ordinary rough file.
36	" 40	" " " " a bastard file.
46	" 60	" " " " a second cut file.
70	" 80	" " " " a smooth "
90	" 100	" " " " a superfine "
120 F and FF	" " " "	" " " " a dead-smooth file.

Speed of Polishing-wheels.

Wood covered with leather, about.....	7000 ft. per min.
" " " a hair brush, about.....	2500 "
" " " 1½" to 8" diam., hair 1" to 1¼" long, ab.....	4500 "
Walrus-hide wheels, about.....	8000 ft. per min.
Rag-wheels, 4 to 8 in. diameter, about.....	7000 "

Safe Speeds for Grindstones and Emery-wheels. Hiscox (*Iron Age*, April 7, 1892), by an application of the tangential force in fly-wheels (see Fly-wheels), obtains the figures for grindstones and emery-wheels which are given in the tables; the formulas are:

Stress per sq. in. of section of a grindstone = $(.7071D \times N) / D^2$

" " " " " an emery-wheel = $(.7071D \times N) / D^2$

D = diameter in feet, N = revolutions per minute.
He takes the weight of sandstone at .678 lb. per cubic inch, an emery-wheel at 0.1 lb. per cubic inch; Ohio stone weighs about 1.68 lb. per cubic inch. The Ohio stone which is at the periphery of 2500 to 3000 ft. per min., which latter speed exceeded. The Huron stone can be trusted up to 4000 ft. per min. clamped between flanges and not excessively wedged in, as from the speed of grindstones as a cause of bursting, probably by of accidents have really been caused by wedging them on the side wedging to true them. The holes being square, the excessive wedges to true the stones starts cracks in the corners that run out until the centrifugal strain becomes greater than the tensile remaining solid stone. Hence the necessity of great caution in wedging, as well as the holding of large quick-running stones between flanges and leather washers.

Strains in Grindstones.

LIMIT OF VELOCITY AND APPROXIMATE ACTUAL STRAIN PER SQUARE SECTIONAL AREA FOR GRINDSTONES OF MEDIUM TENSILE STRENGTH.

Diameter.	Revolutions per minute.					
	100	150	200	250	300	350
feet.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
2	1.58	3.57	6.35	9.93	14.30	18.46
2½	2.47	5.57	9.88	15.49	22.29	28.34
3	3.57	8.04	14.36	22.34	32.16	40.74
3½	4.86	10.93	19.44	30.36	43.74	55.74
4	6.35	14.30	25.36	39.93	57.46	73.46
4½	8.04	18.46	32.16	50.74	73.46	93.46
5	9.93	22.34	39.93	60.74	87.46	111.46
6	14.30	32.16	57.46	87.46	125.46	160.74
8	19.44	43.74	73.46	111.46	160.74	205.46

Approximate breaking stress of the stone in the bottom flange.

figures at the bottom of columns designate the limit of velocity (in fms per minute), at the head of the columns for stones of the diam-
the first column opposite the designating figure.

general rule of safety for any size grindstone that has a compact and grain is to limit the peripheral velocity to 47 feet per second.

There is a large variation in the listed speeds of emery-wheels by different makers—4000 as a minimum and 5000 maximum feet per minute, while some claim a maximum speed of 10,000 feet per minute as the safe speed for best emery-wheels. Rim wheels and iron centre wheels are special—these require the maker's guarantee and assignment of speed.

Strains in Emery-wheels.

STRAIN PER SQUARE INCH OF SECTION IN EMERY-WHEELS AT THE VELOCITIES AT HEAD OF COLUMNS FOR SIZES IN FIRST COLUMN.

Revolutions per minute

900	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800	2000	2200	2400	2600
							22.67	27.49	32.64	38.31
		22.67	32.65	44.45	58.05	73.47	51.13	61.90	73.62	86.40
		35.47	51.08	69.51	90.81	114.94	90.71	109.76	130.02	153.30
18.40	32.72	51.12	73.62	100.21	130.84	165.65	141.90	171.71		
24.80	43.60	68.70	99.21	134.65	175.60					
31.57	57.65	90.24	129.31	177.80						
38.41	73.62	115.03	160.65				Diam	Revs. per min.		
45.28	90.23	141.22								
52.18	108.41	171.23					in.	2600	3000	
59.12	130.82									
66.10	152.85						4	44.43	51.12	
73.14							6	100.21	115.03	
80.24							8	177.80		

Mr. Rose (Modern Machine-shop Practice) says: The average speed of lathes in workshops may be given as follows:

Circumferential Speed of Stone.

For grinding machinists' tools, about 200 feet per minute.
" " carpenters' " " 600 " " "

speeds of stones for file-grinding, and other similar rapid grinding is given in the "Grinders' List."

ft.	8	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3
per min.	135	144	154	165	180	195	216	240	270	308	360

The following table, from the *Mechanical World*, is for the diameter of the pulley and the number of revolutions they should run per minute (not to be exceeded), with the diameter of change of shift-pulleys required, varying from 1 to 6 inches in diameter for each change of 1 inch in the diameter of the stone.

meter Stone.	Revolutions per minute.	Shift of Pulleys, in inches.		
		2½	2¼	2
in.				
0	135	40	36	32
6	144	37½	33½	30
6	154	35	31½	28
6	162	32½	29½	26
6	170	30	27	24
6	196	27½	24½	22
6	216	25	22½	20
6	240	22½	20½	18
6	270	20	18	16
6	308	17½	15½	14
0	800	15	13½	12
	2	3	4	

Columns 3, 4, and 5 are given to show that if we start an 8 foot diameter stone, say, a countershaft pulley driving a 40-inch pulley on the grindstone, and the stone makes the right number (135) of revolutions per minute, the reduction in the diameter of the pulley on the grinding stone spindle. If the stone has been reduced 6 inches in diameter, will require to be reduced $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, or to shift from 40 inches to 37½ inches, and so on similarly for columns 4 and 5. Any other suitable dimensions of stone may be used for the stone when eight feet in diameter, but the same inches in each shift named, in order to be correct, will have to be proportional to the numbers of revolutions the stone should run, as given in column 2 of the table.

Varieties of Grindstones.

(Joshua Rose.)

FOR GRINDING MACHINISTS' TOOLS.

Name of Stone.	Kind of Grit.	Texture of Stone.	Color of Stone.
Nova Scotia,	All kinds, from finest to coarsest	All kinds, from hardest to softest	Blue or gray
Bay Chaleur (New Brunswick),			Uniformly blue
Liverpool or Melling.			Reddish
	Medium to fine	Soft, with sharp grit	

FOR WOOD-WORKING TOOLS.

Wickersley.....	Medium to fine	Very soft	Grayish yellow
Liverpool or Melling.	Medium to fine	Soft, with sharp grit	Reddish
Bay Chaleur (New Brunswick),	Medium to finest	Soft and sharp	Uniformly blue
Huron, Michigan ...	Fine	Soft and sharp	Uniformly light

FOR GRINDING BROAD SURFACES, AS SAWS OR IRON PLATE.

Newcastle.....	Coarse to medium	The hard ones	Yellow
Independence.....	Coarse	Hard to medium	Grayish white
Massillon	Coarse	Hard to medium	Yellowish white

TAP DRILLS.

Taps for Machine-screws. (The Pratt & Whitney Co.)

Approx. Diameter, fractions of an inch.	Wire Gauge.	No. of Threads to inch.	Approx. Diameter, fractions of an inch.	Wire Gauge.	No. of Threads to inch.
	No. 1	60, 72		No. 13	20, 24
	2	48, 56, 64		14	16, 18, 20, 24
	3	40, 48, 56		15	16, 20, 24
7/64	4	32, 36, 40	17/64	16	16, 18, 20, 24
	5	30, 32, 36, 40	9/32	18	16, 18, 20
9/64	6	30, 32, 36, 40		19	16, 18, 20
	7	24, 30, 32		20	16, 18, 20
5/32	8	24, 30, 32, 36, 40	5/16	22	16, 18
	9	24, 28, 30, 32		24	14, 16, 18
3/16	10	20, 22, 24, 30, 32	3/8	26	16
	11	22, 24		28	14
7/32	12	20, 22, 24		30	14

The Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co. gives the following table of the different sizes of drills that should be used when a full thread is required. The sizes given are practically correct.

(The Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co.)

Diam. of Tap.	No. Threads to Inch.	Drill for V Thread.	Drill for U. S. S. Thread.	Diam. of Tap.	No. Threads to Inch.	Drill for V Thread.	Drill for U. S. S. Thread.
1/4	15	5/32	11/64	1 1/4	8	29/32	15/16
5/16	16	3/16	13/64	1 5/32	8	15/16	81/32
11/32	16	7/32	15/64	1 7/32	8	31/32	1 1/32
3/8	16	1/4	17/64	1 9/32	8	1 1/32	1 1/16
13/32	14	9/32	9/32	1 11/32	7	1 3/32	1 1/16
7/16	14	19/64	21/64	1 5/16	7	1 1/16	1 1/16
15/32	14	25/64	11/32	1 11/32	7	1 3/32	1 1/16
1 1/8	12	3/8	25/64	1 13/32	6	1 1/8	1 5/32
1 1/4	12	13/32	27/64	1 7/16	6	1 5/32	1 5/32
1 1/2	12	7/16	29/64	1 15/32	6	1 7/16	1 5/32
1 3/4	12	15/32	31/64	1 17/32	6	1 9/32	1 5/32
1 7/8	10	17/32	17/32	1 9/16	6	1 11/32	1 5/32
2	10	19/32	19/32	1 5/8	5	1 13/32	1 5/32
2 1/8	10	21/32	21/32	1 11/16	5	1 15/32	1 5/32
2 1/4	10	23/32	23/32	1 13/16	5	1 17/32	1 5/32
2 3/8	10	25/32	25/32	1 15/16	5	1 19/32	1 5/32
2 1/2	9	27/32	27/32	1 17/32	5	1 21/32	1 5/32
2 3/4	9	29/32	29/32	1 19/32	5	1 23/32	1 5/32
3	8	31/32	31/32	1 21/32	5	1 25/32	1 5/32
3 1/8	8	33/32	33/32	1 23/32	4 1/2	1 27/32	1 5/32
3 1/4	8	35/32	35/32	1 25/32	4 3/8	1 29/32	1 5/32
3 3/8	8	37/32	37/32	1 27/32	4 1/4	1 31/32	1 5/32
3 1/2	8	39/32	39/32	1 29/32	4 1/8	1 33/32	1 5/32
3 3/4	8	41/32	41/32	1 31/32	4 1/4	1 35/32	1 5/32
4	8	43/32	43/32	1 33/32	4 1/8	1 37/32	1 5/32
4 1/8	8	45/32	45/32	1 35/32	4 1/4	1 39/32	1 5/32
4 1/4	8	47/32	47/32	1 37/32	4 1/8	1 41/32	1 5/32
4 3/8	8	49/32	49/32	1 39/32	4 1/4	1 43/32	1 5/32
4 1/2	8	51/32	51/32	1 41/32	4 1/8	1 45/32	1 5/32
4 3/4	8	53/32	53/32	1 43/32	4 1/4	1 47/32	1 5/32
5	8	55/32	55/32	1 45/32	4 1/8	1 49/32	1 5/32
5 1/8	8	57/32	57/32	1 47/32	4 1/4	1 51/32	1 5/32
5 1/4	8	59/32	59/32	1 49/32	4 1/8	1 53/32	1 5/32
5 3/8	8	61/32	61/32	1 51/32	4 1/4	1 55/32	1 5/32
5 1/2	8	63/32	63/32	1 53/32	4 1/8	1 57/32	1 5/32
5 3/4	8	65/32	65/32	1 55/32	4 1/4	1 59/32	1 5/32
6	8	67/32	67/32	1 57/32	4 1/8	1 61/32	1 5/32
6 1/8	8	69/32	69/32	1 59/32	4 1/4	1 63/32	1 5/32
6 1/4	8	71/32	71/32	1 61/32	4 1/8	1 65/32	1 5/32
6 3/8	8	73/32	73/32	1 63/32	4 1/4	1 67/32	1 5/32
6 1/2	8	75/32	75/32	1 65/32	4 1/8	1 69/32	1 5/32
6 3/4	8	77/32	77/32	1 67/32	4 1/4	1 71/32	1 5/32
7	8	79/32	79/32	1 69/32	4 1/8	1 73/32	1 5/32
7 1/8	8	81/32	81/32	1 71/32	4 1/4	1 75/32	1 5/32
7 1/4	8	83/32	83/32	1 73/32	4 1/8	1 77/32	1 5/32
7 3/8	8	85/32	85/32	1 75/32	4 1/4	1 79/32	1 5/32
7 1/2	8	87/32	87/32	1 77/32	4 1/8	1 81/32	1 5/32
7 3/4	8	89/32	89/32	1 79/32	4 1/4	1 83/32	1 5/32
8	8	91/32	91/32	1 81/32	4 1/8	1 85/32	1 5/32
8 1/8	8	93/32	93/32	1 83/32	4 1/4	1 87/32	1 5/32
8 1/4	8	95/32	95/32	1 85/32	4 1/8	1 89/32	1 5/32
8 3/8	8	97/32	97/32	1 87/32	4 1/4	1 91/32	1 5/32
8 1/2	8	99/32	99/32	1 89/32	4 1/8	1 93/32	1 5/32
8 3/4	8	101/32	101/32	1 91/32	4 1/4	1 95/32	1 5/32
9	8	103/32	103/32	1 93/32	4 1/8	1 97/32	1 5/32
9 1/8	8	105/32	105/32	1 95/32	4 1/4	1 99/32	1 5/32
9 1/4	8	107/32	107/32	1 97/32	4 1/8	1 101/32	1 5/32
9 3/8	8	109/32	109/32	1 99/32	4 1/4	1 103/32	1 5/32
9 1/2	8	111/32	111/32	1 101/32	4 1/8	1 105/32	1 5/32
9 3/4	8	113/32	113/32	1 103/32	4 1/4	1 107/32	1 5/32
10	8	115/32	115/32	1 105/32	4 1/8	1 109/32	1 5/32
10 1/8	8	117/32	117/32	1 107/32	4 1/4	1 111/32	1 5/32
10 1/4	8	119/32	119/32	1 109/32	4 1/8	1 113/32	1 5/32
10 3/8	8	121/32	121/32	1 111/32	4 1/4	1 115/32	1 5/32
10 1/2	8	123/32	123/32	1 113/32	4 1/8	1 117/32	1 5/32
10 3/4	8	125/32	125/32	1 115/32	4 1/4	1 119/32	1 5/32
11	8	127/32	127/32	1 117/32	4 1/8	1 121/32	1 5/32
11 1/8	8	129/32	129/32	1 119/32	4 1/4	1 123/32	1 5/32
11 1/4	8	131/32	131/32	1 121/32	4 1/8	1 125/32	1 5/32
11 3/8	8	133/32	133/32	1 123/32	4 1/4	1 127/32	1 5/32
11 1/2	8	135/32	135/32	1 125/32	4 1/8	1 129/32	1 5/32
11 3/4	8	137/32	137/32	1 127/32	4 1/4	1 131/32	1 5/32
12	8	139/32	139/32	1 129/32	4 1/8	1 133/32	1 5/32
12 1/8	8	141/32	141/32	1 131/32	4 1/4	1 135/32	1 5/32
12 1/4	8	143/32	143/32	1 133/32	4 1/8	1 137/32	1 5/32
12 3/8	8	145/32	145/32	1 135/32	4 1/4	1 139/32	1 5/32
12 1/2	8	147/32	147/32	1 137/32	4 1/8	1 141/32	1 5/32
12 3/4	8	149/32	149/32	1 139/32	4 1/4	1 143/32	1 5/32
13	8	151/32	151/32	1 141/32	4 1/8	1 145/32	1 5/32
13 1/8	8	153/32	153/32	1 143/32	4 1/4	1 147/32	1 5/32
13 1/4	8	155/32	155/32	1 145/32	4 1/8	1 149/32	1 5/32
13 3/8	8	157/32	157/32	1 147/32	4 1/4	1 151/32	1 5/32
13 1/2	8	159/32	159/32	1 149/32	4 1/8	1 153/32	1 5/32
13 3/4	8	161/32	161/32	1 151/32	4 1/4	1 155/32	1 5/32
14	8	163/32	163/32	1 153/32	4 1/8	1 157/32	1 5/32
14 1/8	8	165/32	165/32	1 155/32	4 1/4	1 159/32	1 5/32
14 1/4	8	167/32	167/32	1 157/32	4 1/8	1 161/32	1 5/32
14 3/8	8	169/32	169/32	1 159/32	4 1/4	1 163/32	1 5/32
14 1/2	8	171/32	171/32	1 161/32	4 1/8	1 165/32	1 5/32
14 3/4	8	173/32	173/32	1 163/32	4 1/4	1 167/32	1 5/32
15	8	175/32	175/32	1 165/32	4 1/8	1 169/32	1 5/32
15 1/8	8	177/32	177/32	1 167/32	4 1/4	1 171/32	1 5/32
15 1/4	8	179/32	179/32	1 169/32	4 1/8	1 173/32	1 5/32
15 3/8	8	181/32	181/32	1 171/32	4 1/4	1 175/32	1 5/32
15 1/2	8	183/32	183/32	1 173/32	4 1/8	1 177/32	1 5/32
15 3/4	8	185/32	185/32	1 175/32	4 1/4	1 179/32	1 5/32
16	8	187/32	187/32	1 177/32	4 1/8	1 181/32	1 5/32
16 1/8	8	189/32	189/32	1 179/32	4 1/4	1 183/32	1 5/32
16 1/4	8	191/32	191/32	1 181/32	4 1/8	1 185/32	1 5/32
16 3/8	8	193/32	193/32	1 183/32	4 1/4	1 187/32	1 5/32
16 1/2	8	195/32	195/32	1 185/32	4 1/8	1 189/32	1 5/32
16 3/4	8	197/32	197/32	1 187/32	4 1/4	1 191/32	1 5/32
17	8	199/32	199/32	1 189/32	4 1/8	1 193/32	1 5/32
17 1/8	8	201/32	201/32	1 191/32	4 1/4	1 195/32	1 5/32
17 1/4	8	203/32	203/32	1 193/32	4 1/8	1 197/32	1 5/32
17 3/8	8	205/32	205/32	1 195/32	4 1/4	1 199/32	1 5/32
17 1/2	8	207/32	207/32	1 197/32	4 1/8	1 201/32	1 5/32
17 3/4	8	209/32	209/32	1 199/32	4 1/4	1 203/32	1 5/32
18	8	211/32	211/32	1 201/32	4 1/8	1 205/32	1 5/32
18 1/8	8	213/32	213/32	1 203/32	4 1/4	1 207/32	1 5/32
18 1/4	8	215/32	215/32	1 205/32	4 1/8	1 209/32	1 5/32
18 3/8	8	217/32	217/32	1 207/32	4 1/4	1 211/32	1 5/32
18 1/2	8	219/32	219/32	1 209/32	4 1/8	1 213/32	1 5/32
18 3/4	8	221/32	221/32	1 211/32	4 1/4	1 215/32	1 5/32
19	8	223/32	223/32	1 213/32	4 1/8	1 217/32	1 5/32
19 1/8	8	225/32	225/32	1 215/32	4 1/4	1 219/32	1 5/32
19 1/4	8	227/32	227/32	1 217/32	4 1/8	1 221/32	1 5/32
19 3/8	8	229/32	229/32	1 219/32	4 1/4	1 223/32	1 5/32
19 1/2	8	231/32	231/32	1 221/32	4 1/8	1 225/32	1 5/32
19 3/4	8	233/32	233/32	1 223/32	4 1/4	1 227/32	1 5/32
20	8	235/32	235/32	1 225/32	4 1/8	1 229/32	1 5/32
20 1/8	8	237/32	237/32	1 227/32	4 1/4	1 231/32	1 5/32
20 1/4	8	239/32	239/32	1 229/32	4 1/8	1 233/32	1 5/32
20 3/8	8	241/32	241/32	1 231/32	4 1/4	1 235/32	1 5/32
20 1/2	8	243/32	243/32	1 233/32	4 1/8	1 237/32	1 5/32
20 3/4	8	245/32	245/32	1 235/32	4 1/4	1 239/32	1 5/32
21	8	247/32	247/32	1 237/32	4 1/8	1 241/32	1 5/32
21 1/8	8	249/32	249/32	1 239/32	4 1/4	1 243/32	1 5/32
21 1/4	8	251/32	251/32	1 241/32	4 1/8	1 245/32	1 5/32
21 3/8	8	253/32	253/32	1 243/32	4 1/4	1 247/32	1 5/32
21 1/2	8	255/32	255/32	1 245/32	4 1/8	1 249/32	1 5/32
21 3/4	8	257/32	257/32	1 247/32	4 1/4	1 251/32	1 5/32
22	8	259/32	259/32	1 249/32	4 1/8	1 253/32	1 5/32
22 1/8	8	261/32	261/32	1 251/32	4 1/4	1 255/32	1 5/32
22 1/4	8	263/32	263/32	1 253/32	4 1/8	1 257/32	1 5/32
22 3/8	8	265/32	265/32	1 255/32	4 1/4	1 259/32	1 5/32
22 1/2	8	267/32	267/32	1 257/32	4 1/8	1 261/32	1 5/32
2							

to inches across the hole of 5.25, give 63,920 lbs., and 10.6% elonga-

for punches for use in metal of punch. This form is of great- rked is less than two thirds the

wing-press. Oberlin Smith methods of finding the size of d consists simply in a series of proper one is found. This is for the cutting portions of the di- her work is done. The second id then, knowing the weight of the diameter of a piece having sight. The third method is by $\frac{1}{2} + 4dh$ for sharp-cornered cup, of cup, h = height of cup. For 1, say radius of corner less than $\frac{1}{2} + 4dh$ - r , about; r being the assumption that the thickness ing operation.

of the Drop-press. R. H. copper cylinders was prepared, ected to the action of pressure of fall. Comparison specimens me amount, and measure of n, and of the amount of work rop. Comparing one with the ie hammer was 5% of the work elency. That is to say, the qual to that due the weight of

ht of drop \propto fall \propto efficiency
compression,
e mean area opposed to crush-

our. Frank. Inst., March, 1874. gh iron blocks $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches thick, only $1\frac{1}{16}$ inch thick, and its the hole. Therefore, 6% of the into the block itself, increasing

KING FITS.

by Hydraulic Pressure. larger than the hole into which pressure of 30 to 35 tons. (See-

e driving wheel, when the pin- ould be pressed in with a pres- the wheel fit. When the hole is t of shrinking the tire on the has been bored, or if the hole is e to be increased to 9 tons for n. Machinist.) an Railway Master Mechanics' rinkage allowances for tires of ly heated by gas-flames, slipped ol. The centres are turned to ies are bored smaller by the 1:

4	50	56	62	66
7	.053	.060	.066	.070

r 1/80 inch per foot, or 1/1000. A modulus of elasticity of steel at

inner screw 27 in., the punch would advance 1.21 in. Experiments were made: a punch an $11\frac{1}{2}$ -in. hole in iron $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. thick, the end of a lever arm of $17\frac{1}{2}$ in. The leverage would mean force applied at the end of the lever to punch, if there was no friction, would be force required to punch the iron, assuming a pressure of 30,000 lbs. per sq. in., would be $30,000 \times 11\frac{1}{2} \times \pi \times \frac{1}{4} = 27,000 \times 598,500 =$ new only used as a punch the mean force at the end of the lever would be 82 lbs. The leverage in this case was $17\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{1}{2} = 197.5$ referred to the punch, including friction, $900 \times 197.5 = 177,750 \div 27,000 = 6.58$. The screws were oil-treated with lard-oil and plumage.

Thread.—A. M. Powell (*Am. Mach.*, Jan 24, 1892) proposes to replace the square form of thread, for ease in making fits, and provision for "take dimensions" are the same as those of square thread, but the sides of the thread, instead of being perpendicular to the axis of the screw, are inclined $14\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ to such perpendicular. The sides of a thread are inclined 29° to each other. The dimensions of the thread are the following: Depth of thread = width of space at bottom = width of thread = width of space at top = $.6293 \times$ number of threads to the inch.

TABLES OF MACHINES IN A SERIES OF SIZES.

(From *Indicator*, April, 1892.)

Designed by Coleman Sellers while at William Sellers & Co. The series consists of the parts of machines, based upon the design of the machine and a small one to any series of machines, used in getting up the proportion-book and arrangement from which any machine can be constructed, the largest and smallest of the series.

Construction Formula.—Take difference between the largest and the smallest machines that are in the construction. Take also the difference between the largest and smallest machines selected. Divide the former, and the result obtained will be a constant, the nominal capacity of the intermediate machines divided by a constant "increment," will give the nominal capacity of the machine.

To find the "increment." Multiply the nominal capacity of the largest machine by the factor obtained, and subtract the nominal capacity of the smallest machine from the result.

Example: The nominal capacity of a part of a 72-in. machine is 3 in., and the nominal capacity of a part of a 14-in. machine is $1\frac{1}{4}$, or 1.875 in.; then $72 - 14 = 58$, $3 - 1.875 = 1.125$, $1.125 \div 58 = .019375$ is the "factor," $1.875 - 1.575 = .3$ is the "increment" to be added to the nominal capacity; then the formula will read: $x =$

$.375$, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ the size of one of the selected parts. $aD + c = x$, in which D = nominal capacity in the smallest machine, a is the factor, and x = the nominal capacity of the machine.

KEYS.

Keying. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 299.)—E. W. Moore. The key is $\frac{1}{8}$ diam. of shaft, depth = $1/8$ diam. of shaft.

Keys: Keys of square section, side = $\frac{1}{4}$ diam. of shaft, in even sixteenths of an inch, depth = $\frac{1}{4}$ diam. of hole; depth of side = $\frac{1}{8}$ diam. of shaft.

A key for 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. shafts, $5/16$ in. wide, $1/8$ in. deep, and so on.

Large end of splice, $4/5$ width of 1

Unwin (Elements of Machine Design) gives: Width = $\frac{1}{4}d + \frac{1}{16}$ in. Thickness = $\frac{1}{4}d + \frac{1}{16}$ in. in which d = diam. of shaft in inches. When wheels or pulleys transmitting only a small amount of power are keyed on large shafts, he says, these dimensions are excessive. In that case, if H.P. = horse power transmitted by the wheel or pulley, N = revs. per min., P = force acting at the circumference, in lbs., and R = radius of pulley in inches, take

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{100 \text{ H.P.}}{N}} \quad \text{or} \quad \sqrt[3]{\frac{PR}{630}}.$$

Prof. Coleman Sellers (*Stevens Indicator*, April, 1892) gives the following. The size of keys, both for shafting and for machine tools, are the proportions adopted by William Sellers & Co., and rigidly adhered to during a period of nearly forty years. Their practice in making keys and fitting them is, that the keys shall always bind tight sidewise, but not top and bottom; that is, not necessarily touch either at the bottom of the key-seat in the shaft or touch the top of the slot cut in the gear-wheel that is fastened to the shaft, but in practice keys used in this manner depend upon the fit of the wheel upon the shaft being a forcing fit, or a fit that is so tight as to require screw-pressure to put the wheel in place upon the shaft.

Size of Keys for Shafting.

Diameter of Shaft, in.		Size of Key, in.
1 1/4	1 7/16	5/16 x 3/8
1 1/2	2 3/16	7/16 x 1/2
2 1/2	3 1/2	1 1/8 x 3/4
3 1/2	4 7/16	1 1/2 x 7/8
4 1/2	5 1/2	1 3/4 x 1
5 1/2	6 1/2	2 x 1 1/8
6 1/2	7 1/2	2 1/8 x 1 1/4
7 1/2	8 1/2	2 1/4 x 1 1/2
8 1/2	9 1/2	2 3/8 x 1 3/4
9 1/2	10 1/2	2 1/2 x 2
10 1/2	11 1/2	2 3/4 x 2 1/8
11 1/2	12 1/2	3 x 2 1/4
12 1/2	13 1/2	3 1/8 x 2 3/4
13 1/2	14 1/2	3 1/4 x 3
14 1/2	15 1/2	3 3/8 x 3 1/8
15 1/2	16 1/2	3 1/2 x 3 1/4
16 1/2	17 1/2	3 3/4 x 3 1/2
17 1/2	18 1/2	4 x 3 3/8
18 1/2	19 1/2	4 1/8 x 3 1/2
19 1/2	20 1/2	4 1/4 x 3 3/4
20 1/2	21 1/2	4 1/2 x 4
21 1/2	22 1/2	4 3/8 x 4 1/8
22 1/2	23 1/2	4 1/2 x 4 1/4
23 1/2	24 1/2	4 3/4 x 4 1/2
24 1/2	25 1/2	5 x 4 3/8
25 1/2	26 1/2	5 1/8 x 4 1/2
26 1/2	27 1/2	5 1/4 x 4 3/4
27 1/2	28 1/2	5 1/2 x 5
28 1/2	29 1/2	5 3/8 x 5 1/8
29 1/2	30 1/2	5 1/2 x 5 1/4
30 1/2	31 1/2	5 3/4 x 5 1/2
31 1/2	32 1/2	6 x 5 3/8
32 1/2	33 1/2	6 1/8 x 5 1/2
33 1/2	34 1/2	6 1/4 x 5 3/4
34 1/2	35 1/2	6 1/2 x 6
35 1/2	36 1/2	6 3/8 x 6 1/8
36 1/2	37 1/2	6 1/2 x 6 1/4
37 1/2	38 1/2	6 3/4 x 6 1/2
38 1/2	39 1/2	7 x 6 3/8
39 1/2	40 1/2	7 1/8 x 6 1/2
40 1/2	41 1/2	7 1/4 x 6 3/4
41 1/2	42 1/2	7 1/2 x 7
42 1/2	43 1/2	7 3/8 x 7 1/8
43 1/2	44 1/2	7 1/2 x 7 1/4
44 1/2	45 1/2	7 3/4 x 7 1/2
45 1/2	46 1/2	8 x 7 3/8
46 1/2	47 1/2	8 1/8 x 7 1/2
47 1/2	48 1/2	8 1/4 x 7 3/4
48 1/2	49 1/2	8 1/2 x 8
49 1/2	50 1/2	8 3/8 x 8 1/8
50 1/2	51 1/2	8 1/2 x 8 1/4
51 1/2	52 1/2	8 3/4 x 8 1/2
52 1/2	53 1/2	9 x 8 3/8
53 1/2	54 1/2	9 1/8 x 8 1/2
54 1/2	55 1/2	9 1/4 x 8 3/4
55 1/2	56 1/2	9 1/2 x 9
56 1/2	57 1/2	9 3/8 x 9 1/8
57 1/2	58 1/2	9 1/2 x 9 1/4
58 1/2	59 1/2	9 3/4 x 9 1/2
59 1/2	60 1/2	10 x 9 3/8
60 1/2	61 1/2	10 1/8 x 9 1/2
61 1/2	62 1/2	10 1/4 x 9 3/4
62 1/2	63 1/2	10 1/2 x 10
63 1/2	64 1/2	10 3/8 x 10 1/8
64 1/2	65 1/2	10 1/2 x 10 1/4
65 1/2	66 1/2	10 3/4 x 10 1/2
66 1/2	67 1/2	11 x 10 3/8
67 1/2	68 1/2	11 1/8 x 10 1/2
68 1/2	69 1/2	11 1/4 x 10 3/4
69 1/2	70 1/2	11 1/2 x 11
70 1/2	71 1/2	11 3/8 x 11 1/8
71 1/2	72 1/2	11 1/2 x 11 1/4
72 1/2	73 1/2	11 3/4 x 11 1/2
73 1/2	74 1/2	12 x 11 3/8
74 1/2	75 1/2	12 1/8 x 11 1/2
75 1/2	76 1/2	12 1/4 x 11 3/4
76 1/2	77 1/2	12 1/2 x 12
77 1/2	78 1/2	12 3/8 x 12 1/8
78 1/2	79 1/2	12 1/2 x 12 1/4
79 1/2	80 1/2	12 3/4 x 12 1/2
80 1/2	81 1/2	13 x 12 3/8
81 1/2	82 1/2	13 1/8 x 12 1/2
82 1/2	83 1/2	13 1/4 x 12 3/4
83 1/2	84 1/2	13 1/2 x 13
84 1/2	85 1/2	13 3/8 x 13 1/8
85 1/2	86 1/2	13 1/2 x 13 1/4
86 1/2	87 1/2	13 3/4 x 13 1/2
87 1/2	88 1/2	14 x 13 3/8
88 1/2	89 1/2	14 1/8 x 13 1/2
89 1/2	90 1/2	14 1/4 x 13 3/4
90 1/2	91 1/2	14 1/2 x 14
91 1/2	92 1/2	14 3/8 x 14 1/8
92 1/2	93 1/2	14 1/2 x 14 1/4
93 1/2	94 1/2	14 3/4 x 14 1/2
94 1/2	95 1/2	15 x 14 3/8
95 1/2	96 1/2	15 1/8 x 14 1/2
96 1/2	97 1/2	15 1/4 x 14 3/4
97 1/2	98 1/2	15 1/2 x 15
98 1/2	99 1/2	15 3/8 x 15 1/8
99 1/2	100 1/2	15 1/2 x 15 1/4
100 1/2	101 1/2	15 3/4 x 15 1/2
101 1/2	102 1/2	16 x 15 3/8
102 1/2	103 1/2	16 1/8 x 15 1/2
103 1/2	104 1/2	16 1/4 x 15 3/4
104 1/2	105 1/2	16 1/2 x 16
105 1/2	106 1/2	16 3/8 x 16 1/8
106 1/2	107 1/2	16 1/2 x 16 1/4
107 1/2	108 1/2	16 3/4 x 16 1/2
108 1/2	109 1/2	17 x 16 3/8
109 1/2	110 1/2	17 1/8 x 16 1/2
110 1/2	111 1/2	17 1/4 x 16 3/4
111 1/2	112 1/2	17 1/2 x 17
112 1/2	113 1/2	17 3/8 x 17 1/8
113 1/2	114 1/2	17 1/2 x 17 1/4
114 1/2	115 1/2	17 3/4 x 17 1/2
115 1/2	116 1/2	18 x 17 3/8
116 1/2	117 1/2	18 1/8 x 17 1/2
117 1/2	118 1/2	18 1/4 x 17 3/4
118 1/2	119 1/2	18 1/2 x 18
119 1/2	120 1/2	18 3/8 x 18 1/8
120 1/2	121 1/2	18 1/2 x 18 1/4
121 1/2	122 1/2	18 3/4 x 18 1/2
122 1/2	123 1/2	19 x 18 3/8
123 1/2	124 1/2	19 1/8 x 18 1/2
124 1/2	125 1/2	19 1/4 x 18 3/4
125 1/2	126 1/2	19 1/2 x 19
126 1/2	127 1/2	19 3/8 x 19 1/8
127 1/2	128 1/2	19 1/2 x 19 1/4
128 1/2	129 1/2	19 3/4 x 19 1/2
129 1/2	130 1/2	20 x 19 3/8
130 1/2	131 1/2	20 1/8 x 19 1/2
131 1/2	132 1/2	20 1/4 x 19 3/4
132 1/2	133 1/2	20 1/2 x 20
133 1/2	134 1/2	20 3/8 x 20 1/8
134 1/2	135 1/2	20 1/2 x 20 1/4
135 1/2	136 1/2	20 3/4 x 20 1/2
136 1/2	137 1/2	21 x 20 3/8
137 1/2	138 1/2	21 1/8 x 20 1/2
138 1/2	139 1/2	21 1/4 x 20 3/4
139 1/2	140 1/2	21 1/2 x 21
140 1/2	141 1/2	21 3/8 x 21 1/8
141 1/2	142 1/2	21 1/2 x 21 1/4
142 1/2	143 1/2	21 3/4 x 21 1/2
143 1/2	144 1/2	22 x 21 3/8
144 1/2	145 1/2	22 1/8 x 21 1/2
145 1/2	146 1/2	22 1/4 x 21 3/4
146 1/2	147 1/2	22 1/2 x 22
147 1/2	148 1/2	22 3/8 x 22 1/8
148 1/2	149 1/2	22 1/2 x 22 1/4
149 1/2	150 1/2	22 3/4 x 22 1/2
150 1/2	151 1/2	23 x 22 3/8
151 1/2	152 1/2	23 1/8 x 22 1/2
152 1/2	153 1/2	23 1/4 x 22 3/4
153 1/2	154 1/2	23 1/2 x 23
154 1/2	155 1/2	23 3/8 x 23 1/8
155 1/2	156 1/2	23 1/2 x 23 1/4
156 1/2	157 1/2	23 3/4 x 23 1/2
157 1/2	158 1/2	24 x 23 3/8
158 1/2	159 1/2	24 1/8 x 23 1/2
159 1/2	160 1/2	24 1/4 x 23 3/4
160 1/2	161 1/2	24 1/2 x 24
161 1/2	162 1/2	24 3/8 x 24 1/8
162 1/2	163 1/2	24 1/2 x 24 1/4
163 1/2	164 1/2	24 3/4 x 24 1/2
164 1/2	165 1/2	25 x 24 3/8
165 1/2	166 1/2	25 1/8 x 24 1/2
166 1/2	167 1/2	25 1/4 x 24 3/4
167 1/2	168 1/2	25 1/2 x 25
168 1/2	169 1/2	25 3/8 x 25 1/8
169 1/2	170 1/2	25 1/2 x 25 1/4
170 1/2	171 1/2	25 3/4 x 25 1/2
171 1/2	172 1/2	26 x 25 3/8
172 1/2	173 1/2	26 1/8 x 25 1/2
173 1/2	174 1/2	26 1/4 x 25 3/4
174 1/2	175 1/2	26 1/2 x 26
175 1/2	176 1/2	26 3/8 x 26 1/8
176 1/2	177 1/2	26 1/2 x 26 1/4
177 1/2	178 1/2	26 3/4 x 26 1/2
178 1/2	179 1/2	27 x 26 3/8
179 1/2	180 1/2	27 1/8 x 26 1/2
180 1/2	181 1/2	27 1/4 x 26 3/4
181 1/2	182 1/2	27 1/2 x 27
182 1/2	183 1/2	27 3/8 x 27 1/8
183 1/2	184 1/2	27 1/2 x 27 1/4
184 1/2	185 1/2	27 3/4 x 27 1/2
185 1/2	186 1/2	28 x 27 3/8
186 1/2	187 1/2	28 1/8 x 27 1/2
187 1/2	188 1/2	28 1/4 x 27 3/4
188 1/2	189 1/2	28 1/2 x 28
189 1/2	190 1/2	28 3/8 x 28 1/8
190 1/2	191 1/2	28 1/2 x 28 1/4
191 1/2	192 1/2	28 3/4 x 28 1/2
192 1/2	193 1/2	29 x 28 3/8
193 1/2	194 1/2	29 1/8 x 28 1/2
194 1/2	195 1/2	29 1/4 x 28 3/4
195 1/2	196 1/2	29 1/2 x 29
196 1/2	197 1/2	29 3/8 x 29 1/8
197 1/2	198 1/2	29 1/2 x 29 1/4
198 1/2	199 1/2	29 3/4 x 29 1/2
199 1/2	200 1/2	30 x 29 3/8

Length of key-seat for coupling = $1\frac{1}{2}$ x nominal diameter of shaft.

Size of Keys for Machine Tools.

Diam. of Shaft, in.	Size of Key, in. sq.	Diam. of Shaft, in.	Size of Key, sq. in.
1 1/2 and under	1/8	4 to 5 7/16	13/16
1 to 1 3/16	3/16	5 1/2 to 6 15/16	15/16
1 1/4 to 1 7/16	1/4	7 to 8 15/16	1 1/16
1 1/2 to 1 11/16	5/16	9 to 10 15/16	1 1/8
1 3/4 to 2 3/16	7/16	11 to 12 15/16	1 3/8
2 1/4 to 2 11/16	9/16	13 to 14 15/16	1 7/8
2 3/4 to 3 15/16	1 1/16		

John Richards, in an article in *Cassier's Magazine*, writes as follows: There are two kinds or system of keys, both proper and necessary, but widely different in nature. 1. The common fastening key, usually made in width one-fourth of the shaft's diameter, and the depth five eighths to one third the width. These keys are tapered and fit on all sides, or, as it is commonly described, "bear all over." They perform the double function in most cases of driving or transmitting and fastening the keyed-on member against movement endwise on the shaft. Such keys, when properly made, die as a strut, diagonally from corner to corner.

2. The other kind or class of keys are not tapered and fit on their sides only, a slight clearance being left on the back to insure against wedge action or radial strain. These keys drive by shearing strain.

For fixed work where there is no sliding movement such keys are commonly made of square section, the sides only being planed, so the depth is more than the width by so much as is cut away in finishing or fitting.

For sliding bearings, as in the case of drilling-machine spindles, the depth should be increased, and in cases where there is heavy strain there should be two keys or feathers instead of one.

The following tables are taken from proportions adopted in practical use. Flat keys, as in the first table, are employed for fixed work when the parts are to be held not only against torsional strain, but also against movement endwise; and in case of heavy strain the strut principle being the strongest and most secure against movement when there is strain each way, as in the case of engine cranks and first movers generally. The tapered

are, straining the work out of truth, the care-
ing, and destroying the evidence of good or bad.
When a wheel or other part is fastened with a
there is no means of knowing whether the work is
reason such keys are not employed by machine-
ers of accurate work of any kind, indeed, cannot
strain, and also the difficulty of inspecting com-

TABLES OF FLAT KEYS, IN INCHES.

1 1/4	1 1/2	1 3/4	2	2 1/4	3	3 1/4	4	5	6	7	8
5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	5/8	3/4	7/8	1	1 1/8	1 3/8	1 1/2	1 5/8
3/16	1/4	9/32	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	11/16	13/16	7/8	1

TABLES OF SQUARE KEYS, IN INCHES.

1 1/4	1 1/2	1 3/4	2	2 1/4	3	3 1/4	4
7/32	9/32	11/32	13/32	15/32	17/32	9/16	11/16
1/4	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	3/4

TABLES OF SLIDING FEATHER-KEYS, IN INCHES.

1 3/4	2	2 1/4	2 1/2	3	3 1/4	4	4 1/2
5/16	5/16	3/8	3/8	1/2	9/16	9/16	5/8
7/16	7/16	1/2	1/2	5/8	3/4	3/4	7/8

Following table of dimensions to the *Am. Machin-*
heavy work and very short hubs we put in two
t. With special long hubs, where we cannot use
should be thicker than the standard.

Hub, diam., in.	Thick- ness, in.	Diameter of Shafts, inches.	Width, inches.	Thick- ness, in.
16	3/16	3 7/16 to 3 11/16	3/8	3/8
16	1/4	3 15/16 to 4 3/16	1	11/16
	5/16	4 7/16 to 4 11/16	1 1/8	3/4
	3/8	4 1/2 to 5 1/8	1 1/4	15/16
	1/2	5 1/8 to 6 1/8	1 1/2	1
	9/16	6 1/8 to 7 1/8	1 3/4	1 1/4

For shafts, say 14 to 16", 1/16" thicker; keys longer than
hub thicker; and so on. Special short hubs to have

Woodruff system of keying, see circular of the
Modern Mechanism, page 455.

TESTS OF KEYS AND SET-SCREWS.

Holding-power of Set-screws in Pulleys.
M. E., 2, 330.)—These tests were made by using a
pulley by two set-screws with the shaft keyed to the
required at the rim of the pulley to cause it to slip
being multiplied by the number 8.037 (obtained by
the pulley one-half the diameter of the wire rope,
twice the radius of the shaft, since there were two
times) gives the holding-power of the set-screws.
of wrought-iron, 3/4 of an inch in diameter, and ten
shaft used was of steel and rather hard the set-
screws made a deep impression upon it. They were
marked respectively A, B, C, and D.

A, ends perfectly flat, 9/16-in. diameter,	1412 to 2294 lbs.;	average 3064.
B, radius of rounded ends about $\frac{1}{8}$ inch,	2747 " 3070 "	" 2912.
C, " " " " $\frac{1}{4}$ " 1902 " 3070 "	" " "	2573.
D ends cup-shaped and case-hardened,	1902 " 2958 "	" 2450.

REMARKS.—A. The set-screws were not entirely normal to the shaft; hence they bore less in the earlier trials, before they had become flattened by wear.

B. The ends of these set-screws, after the first two trials, were found to be flattened, the flattened area having a diameter of about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch.

C. The ends were found, after the first two trials, to be flattened, as in B. D. The first test held well because the edges were sharp, then the holding-power fell off till they had become flattened in a manner similar to B, when the holding-power increased again.

Tests of the Holding-power of Keys. (Lanza.)—The test was applied as in the tests of set-screws, the shaft being firmly keyed to the holders. The load required at the rim of the pulley to shear the keys was determined, and this, multiplied by a suitable constant, determined in a similar way to that used in the case of set-screws, gives us the shearing strength per square inch of the keys.

The keys tested were of eight kinds, denoted, respectively, by the letters A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H, and the results were as follows: A, B, D and F, each 4 tests; E, 3 tests; C, G, and H, each 2 tests.

A, Norway iron, $2\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 15\frac{3}{4}''$,	40,184 to 47,760 lbs.;	average, 42,728.
B, refined iron, $2\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 15\frac{3}{4}''$,	30,482 " 39,254;	" 35,069.
C, tool steel, $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 15\frac{3}{4}''$,	91,314 & 100,056.	" "
D, machinery steel, $2\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 15\frac{3}{4}''$,	61,630 to 70,186;	" 65,877.
E, Norway iron, $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 7\frac{1}{16}''$,	33,690 " 37,222;	" 35,066.
F, cast-iron, $2\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 15\frac{3}{4}''$,	30,378 " 36,944;	" 33,034.
G, cast-iron, $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 7\frac{1}{16}''$,	37,222 & 38,700.	" "
H, cast-iron, $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 7\frac{1}{16}''$,	29,814 & 38,978.	" "

In A and B some crushing took place before shearing. In E, the keys being only 7/16 in. deep, tipped slightly in the key-way. In H, in the first test, there was a defect in the key-way of the pulley.

DYNAMOMETERS.

Dynamometers are instruments used for measuring power. They are of several classes, as: 1. Traction dynamometers, used for determining the power required to pull a car or other vehicle, or a plough or harrow. 2. Brake or absorption dynamometers, in which the power of a rotating shaft or wheel is absorbed or converted into heat by the friction of a brake, and. 3. Transmission dynamometers, in which the power in a rotating shaft is measured during its transmission through a belt or other connection to another shaft, without being absorbed.

Traction Dynamometers generally contain two principal parts: (1) A spring or series of springs, through which the pull is exerted, the extension of the spring measuring the amount of the pulling force; and (2) a paper-covered drum, rotated either at a uniform speed by clock work, or at a speed proportional to the speed of the traction, through gearing, on which the extension of the spring is registered by a pencil. From the average height of the diagram drawn by the pencil above the zero-line the average pulling force in pounds is obtained, and this multiplied by the distance traversed, in feet, gives the work done, in foot-pounds. The product divided by the time in minutes and by 33,000 gives the horse-power.

The Prony brake is the typical form of absorption dynamometer. (See Fig. 167, from *Flather on Dynamometers and the Measurement of Power*.)

Primarily this consists of a lever connected to a revolving shaft or pulley in such a manner that the friction induced between the surfaces in contact will tend to rotate the arm in the direction in which the shaft revolves. The rotation is counterbalanced by weights *P*, hung in the scale pan at the end of the lever. In order to measure the power for a given number of revolutions of pulley, we add weights to the scale-pan and screw up on bolts, until the friction induced balances the weights and the lever is arrested.

revolutions of shaft per minute remain

generally omitted—the friction being mean-
to be thrown over the pulley. Ropes or cords

scale-pan, as in Fig. 167, the friction may be

this
being
the

the
shaft.
over
ough
the
eam
into
the
the

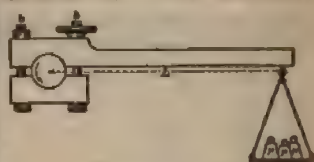


FIG. 167.

the action of gravity; a waste-pipe with its
rough that it acts as a scoop, and removes
haists of a flexible strap to which are fitted
ing-surface; the ends of the strap are con-
np, by means of which any desired tension

shaft is determined from the following:

power absorbed, per minute;

or weight in pounds, acting on lever-arm

feet from centre of shaft;

feet per minute at distance L , if arm were

the speed of the shaft;

per minute;

ave H.P. = $2\pi LNP + 83,000$.

P

00. $33 + 2\pi$ is practically 5 ft. 8 in., a value

gth of arm.

nal, the resulting friction will show great
t of insufficient lubrication—the jaws be-
thus producing shocks and sudden vibra-

-tree, beech, poplar, or maple are all to be
r brake-blocks. The rubbing-surface should
crease.

-dynamometer. (G. I. Alden, Trans.
100 and xiii, 429.)—This dynamometer is a
n quite moderate sizes of absorbing large
and complete regulation. A smooth cast-
ing shaft. This is enclosed in a cast-iron
ring at their circumference, which is free
terior of each of the sides of the shell is
between itself and the side a water-tight
on the city pipes is admitted into each of
per plate against the central disk. The
ed with oil. To the outer shell is fixed a
endency of the shell to rotate with the
the plates against the central disk. Four
were used in testing the experimental
y (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 429). Each was
t of 10,500 foot-pounds with a wate

ith the copper plates on either
aving its outer radius equal to
ches. The apparent coefficient
was $3\frac{1}{2}\%$.

W. W. Beaumont (Proc Inst. C. E. 1880) has deduced a formula by means of which the relative capacity of brakes can be compared, judging from the amount of horse-power ascertained by their use.

If W = width of rubbing surface on brake-wheel in inches; V = vel. of point on circum. of wheel in feet per minute; K = coefficient; then

$$K = WV \div \text{H.P.}$$

Capacity of Friction-brakes.—Prof. Flather obtains the values of K given in the last column of the subjoined table:

Horse-power.	R. P. M.	Brake-pulley.		Length of Arm.	Design of Brake.	Value of K .
		Face, in inches.	Diameter, in feet.			
21	150	7	5	83"	Royal Ag. Soc., compensating.....	783
19	148.5	7	5	31.38"	McLaren, compensating	838
20	146	7	5	32.19"	water-cooled and comp.....	802
40	180	10.5	5	32"	Garrett, " " " ".....	741
78	150	10.5	5	32"	" " " " " ".....	740
150	150	10	9	"	Schoenheyder, water-cooled.....	822
24	142	12	6	32.31"	Bulk	1385
180	100	24	5	120.1"	Gately & Kletsch, water cooled.....	129
475	76.2	24	7	121"	Webber, water-cooled.....	817
125	200	24	4	63"	Westinghouse, water-cooled.....	435
250	250	"	"	"	" " " ".....	817
40	322	"	"	"	" " " ".....	817
125	200	13	4	273"	" " " ".....	817

The above calculations for eleven brakes give values of K varying from 81.7 to 1385 for actual horse-powers tested, the average being $K = 635$.

Instead of assuming an average coefficient, Prof. Flather proposes the following:

Water-cooled brake, non-compensating, $K = 400$; $W = 400 \text{ H.P.} \div V$.

Water-cooled brake, compensating, $K = 750$; $W = 750 \text{ H.P.} \div V$.

Non-cooling brake, with or without compensating device, $K = 900$; $W = 900 \text{ H.P.} \div V$.

Transmission Dynamometers are of various forms, as the Batchelder dynamometer, in which the power is transmitted through a "train-arm" of bevel gearing, with its modifications, as the one described by the author in Trans. A. I. M. E., viii. 177, and the one described by Samuel Webber in Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 514; belt dynamometers, as the Tatham; the Van Winkle dynamometer, in which the power is transmitted from a revolving shaft to another in line with it, the two almost touching through the medium of coiled springs fastened to arms or disks keyed to the shafts; the Brackett and the Webb cradle dynamometers, used for measuring the power required to run dynamo-electric machines. Descriptions of the four last named are given in Flather on Dynamometers.

Much information on various forms of dynamometers will be found in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vii. to xv., inclusive, indexed under Dynamometers.

REFRIGERATING MACHINES.

thorough discussion of the thermodynamic theory of fluids used in the production of cold was published by *des Mines*, and translated in *Van Nostrand's Magazine*, revised and additions made in the light of recent experiments. Jacobus, and Riesenberger, was reprinted in *Science Series*, No. 46. The work is largely mathematical, as much information of immediate practical value, matter given below is taken. Other references are to Chap. V., and numerous papers by Professors Reichenow and Linde in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vols. x. to xiv.; article on Refrigerating-machines; also *Eng'g*, June 1, 1887; June 15, 1888; July 31, Aug. 28, 1889; Sept. 1 and July 8, 1892. For properties of Ammonia and others by Professors Wood and Jacobus, *Trans. A. S.*

describing refrigerating-machines, see *Am. Mach.*, 1887, and *M'k. Record*, Oct. 7, 1892; also catalogues of J. H. Wayneboro, Pa.; De La Vergne Refrigerating-machines and others.

Refrigerating-machine.—Apparatus designed and upon the following series of operations: first, compress the gas by means of some external force, then relieve it of its volume; next, cause this compressed gas or vapor to produce mechanical work, and thus lower its temperature of heat at this stage by the gas, in resuming its original state, restores the refrigerating effect of the apparatus.

It is a heat-engine reversed. The difference between heat-motors and freezing-machines it results from the mechanical theory of heat to determine the first, apply equally to the second.

It is upon the difference between the extremes of temperature.

The efficiency of a refrigerating-machine depends upon the ratio of heat eliminated and the work expended in compressing the gas, and the nature of the body employed.

When the freezing-machine possesses the greatest efficiency, the temperature is small, and when the final temperature is the same, there is no theoretical advantage in employing a vapor in order to produce cold.

The intermediate body would be determined by practical considerations, the physical characteristics of the body, such as the ease of manipulating it, the extreme pressures required.

The advantage that it is everywhere obtainable, and that at higher pressures, independent of the temperature of the body, to produce a given useful effect the apparatus must be of less size than that required by liquefiable vapors.

The pressure is determined by the temperature of the condenser, the volatile liquid; this pressure is often very high. The time of a saturated vapor is made under constant pressure remains constant. The addition or subtraction of heat, or change of volume, is represented by an increase or decrease of density of liquid mixed with the vapor.

When vapors, even if saturated, are no longer in contact with the liquid, they receive an addition of heat either through the walls of the cylinder, or from some external source of heat, and expand in the same way as permanent gases, and

the property, that refrigerating-machines using different bodies are differing according to the method of operation.

and depending upon the state of the gas, whether it remains saturated, or is superheated during a part of the cycle of working.

The temperature of the condenser is determined by local conditions. The interior will exceed by 9° to 18° the temperature of the water found at the exterior. This latter will vary from about 52° F., the temperature of water from considerable depth below the surface, to about 72° F., the temperature of surface-water in hot climates. The volatile liquid used in the machine ought not at this temperature to have a tension so great as which can be readily managed by the apparatus.

On the other hand, if the tension of the gas at the minimum temperature is too low, it becomes necessary to give to the compressor certain dimensions, in order that the weight of vapor compressed in a stroke of the piston shall be sufficient to produce a notably useful effect.

These two conditions, to which may be added others, such as the depending upon the greater or less facility of obtaining the liquid, the dangers incurred in its use, either from its inflammability or its corrosiveness, and finally upon its action upon the metals, limit the choice to a number of substances.

The gases or vapors generally available are: sulphuric ether, carbonic oxide, ammonia, methylic ether, and carbonic acid.

The following table, derived from Regnault, shows the tensions of vapors of these substances at different temperatures between -104° and 104° .

Pressures and Boiling-points of Liquids available for Use in Refrigerating-machines.

Temp. of Ebullition.	Tension of Vapor, in lbs. per sq. in., above Zero				
Deg. Fahr.	Sul- phuric Ether.	Sulphur Dioxide.	Ammonia.	Methylic Ether.	Carbonic Acid.
-40	10.22
-31	17.33
-22	5.56	16.95	11.15
-13	7.23	21.51	13.85	251.0
-4	1.80	9.27	27.04	17.06	292.0
5	1.70	11.70	33.67	20.44	340.1
14	2.19	14.75	41.58	25.37	393.4
23	2.79	18.31	50.91	30.41	453.1
32	3.55	22.54	61.85	36.94	520.4
41	4.45	27.48	74.55	43.18	594.8
50	5.54	33.28	89.21	50.84	676.3
59	6.84	39.93	105.90	59.56	766.8
68	8.38	47.62	124.22	69.55	864.6
77	10.19	56.39	143.64	80.29	971.7
86	12.31	66.37	170.83	92.41	1085.6
95	14.76	77.64	197.83	1207.2
104	17.59	90.32	227.76	1346.4

The table shows that the use of ether does not readily lead to the production of low temperatures, because its pressure becomes then very great. Ammonia, on the contrary, is well adapted to the production of low temperatures.

Methylic ether yields low temperatures without attaining too great pressures at the temperature of the condenser. Sulphur dioxide yields temperatures of -14° to -5° , while its pressure is only 3 to 4 lbs. at the ordinary temperature of the condenser. These latter substances lend themselves conveniently for the production of cold by mechanical force.

The "Pictet fluid" is a mixture of 97% sulphur dioxide and 3% alcohol. At atmospheric pressure it affords a temperature 16° below zero.

It has been used as a refrigerant in use but to a limited extent, because of its corrosiveness of compressor that it requires, and the

recommendation for service on shipboard, where

erated with a surplus of liquid present during is prevented. This practice is known as

ing the application of methyl ether or gas in practical refrigerating service. The is the cumbrousness of the compressor

It is agreed that the term "ice-melting" in an insulated bath of brine, on the as- represents one pound of ice, this being the heat required to melt a pound of ice at

ture. expressed in pounds or tons of "ice-melt" at the refrigerating-machine would make but that the cold produced is equivalent to

it 32° to water of the same temperature. er frozen is generally about 70° F. when sub-

of a machine; second, the ice is chilled from 2; third, there is a dissipation of cold, from

and the manipulation of the ice-cans: therefore, multiplied by its latent heat of fusion,

ly about three fourths of the cold produced r fluid per I.H.P. of the engine driving the

re is considerable fuel consumed to operate condensing-water and feed-pumps, and to

steam from which the ice is frozen. This n leakage and drip water, amounts to about

he main steam-engine. Hence the pounds distilled water is just about half the equivalent produced in the brine per indicated horse-

on natural water by means of the "plate used with distilled water, is saved by avoid-

expensively in a compound engine. India, are said to have produced about 6

rel consumed. because the density of the vapor of ether,

re, requires that the compressing-cylinder in for sulphur dioxide, and 17 times larger

but 1.2 times greater capacity of compression, more cumbersome than ether machines,

pared. In using air the expansion must take instead of through a simple expansion-cock

es. The work done in the expansion-cylinder-pressor.

machines.—"Cold" vs. "Dry" Systems

"system or "humid" system some of the piston cylinder is liquid, so that the heat de-

ed by the liquid and the temperature of the be boiling-point due to the condenser-pres-

quired about the cylinder. in all ammonia entering the compressor is

comes by compression several hundred de- dent due to the condenser-pressure. A water-

o permit the cylinder to be properly lubri-

of Ammonia Compression- and assuming no Water to be En-

nia-gas in the Condenser. (Denton XIII.)—It is assumed in the calculation for imparts 10,000 B.T.U. to the boiler. The

ice is 144 thermal units (*Phil.* 2' use 140. (Prof. Wood, Trans. A

Condensing-water.

Ice-melting Capacity.

Refrigerating Effect
in Heat Units.Work of Compression
with Friction, or Indicated Steam-power.Work of Compression
without Friction.

Ratio of Refrigerating Effect to Heat Expended.

Refrigerating Effect in Heat Units.

Heat Carried away from Condenser.

Temperature at End of Compression.

Absolute Pressure in Condenser.

Temp. Due to Pressure of Vapor in Condenser.

Temp. Due to Pressure of Vapor in Condenser.	Absolute Pressure in Condenser.	Temperature at End of Compression.	Heat Carried away from Condenser.	Refrigerating Effect in Heat Units.	Ratio of Refrigerating Effect to Heat Expended.	Work of Compression without Friction.	Work of Compression with Friction, or Indicated Steam-power.	Per Ft.-lb. of Work Expended, without Friction.	Per Ft.-lb. of Work Expended, including Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. Including Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. Without Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. With Friction.	Per Found of Coal Without Friction.	Per Found of Coal With Friction.	Tons.	Displacement.	Per cu. ft. of Piston Displacement.	Range of Temp. during 300°	Displacement, as a Fraction of Piston Capacity.	Per Minute per Ton of Ice-melting Capacity in 24 hours.	Gals. Gale.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)
59	106.0	154.0	71.81	68.47	7.01	6.450	7.410	.00644	.00657	16.900	137.0	110.3	45.8	39.6	.00253	.2872	.1900	.80	(19)		
60	125.1	170.0	72.05	69.31	6.40	7.530	8.600	.00657	.00671	14.250	115.2	100.2	38.4	33.4	.00259	.2862	.1920	.82	(18)		
61	140.6	205.1	72.28	69.13	5.49	8.630	9.900	.00711	.00738	12.250	99.0	88.1	33.0	28.7	.00275	.2860	.1950	.84	(17)		
62	170.8	255.4	72.40	69.03	4.78	9.680	11.100	.00746	.00788	10.600	86.2	75.0	28.7	25.0	.00281	.2858	.1980	.86	(16)		
63	197.8	285.4	72.61	68.70	4.22	10.750	12.900	.00746	.00805	9.100	70.0	66.1	25.3	22.0	.00296	.2854	.2010	.88	(15)		
64	227.0	280.3	72.71	67.45	3.70	11.830	15.500	.00835	.00923	8.300	67.7	58.9	22.5	19.6	.00292	.2910	.2040	.90	(14)		

REFRIGERATING EFFECT OF 1 CU. FT. OF AMMONIA EXPANDED THROUGH A SIMPLE COCK TO 16.95 LBS. ABSOLUTE PRESSURE AND THE CORRESPONDING TEMPERATURE OF - 23° F.

Temp. Due to Pressure of Vapor in Condenser.	Absolute Pressure in Condenser.	Temperature at End of Compression.	Heat Carried away from Condenser.	Refrigerating Effect in Heat Units.	Ratio of Refrigerating Effect to Heat Expended.	Work of Compression without Friction.	Work of Compression with Friction, or Indicated Steam-power.	Per Ft.-lb. of Work Expended, without Friction.	Per Ft.-lb. of Work Expended, including Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. Including Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. Without Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. With Friction.	Per Found of Coal Without Friction.	Per Found of Coal With Friction.	Tons.	Displacement.	Per cu. ft. of Piston Displacement.	Range of Temp. during 300°	Displacement, as a Fraction of Piston Capacity.	Per Minute per Ton of Ice-melting Capacity in 24 hours.	Gals. Gale.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)
59	106.0	224.2	40.50	32.31	3.95	5.080	6.530	.00380	.00404	9.980	80.7	70.2	26.9	23.4	.00116	.1051	.1390	.97	(18)		
60	125.1	252.2	40.50	32.31	3.95	6.530	7.280	.00410	.00444	8.730	71.0	61.8	23.7	20.6	.00116	.1050	.1420	.99	(17)		
61	140.6	280.2	40.70	31.69	3.62	6.660	8.000	.00465	.00506	7.890	63.3	55.1	21.1	18.4	.00111	.1038	.1470	1.02	(16)		
62	170.8	308.3	40.80	31.05	3.15	7.610	8.750	.00465	.00538	7.080	56.8	40.4	18.0	16.5	.00106	.1036	.1500	1.04	(15)		
63	197.8	316.2	41.07	30.41	2.85	8.540	9.480	.00269	.00321	6.300	51.4	44.7	17.1	14.9	.00105	.1043	.1540	1.07	(14)		
64	227.0	304.0	41.29	30.75	2.50	8.870	10.200	.00315	.00392	5.780	40.6	40.0	15.5	13.5	.00105	.1049	.1570	1.09	(13)		

[illegible]

ICE-MAKING OR REFRIGERATION MACHINES.

The following is a comparison of the theoretical and actual results of the various compressing machines with their condenser at 32° F. and the evaporator at 10° F. or lower, leaving a pressure of 1 lb. per square inch in the cylinder and 15 lb. in the condenser. And 2.0 = 1 horse power in a table having two single-acting compressors 17 inches diam. = 1 H.P.

No. of Test.	Temp. in Degrees F. Corresponding to Pressure of Vapor		Ice-making Capacity per H.P. per hour, assuming 1 ton per unit per Horse-power			
	Condenser.	Evaporator.	Theoretical, Friction included.	Actual.	Percent of Theoretical.	Percent of Actual.
Schleier	72.3	36.6	50.4	46.6	92.4	
	74.5	14.3	37.9	34.3	90.5	
	68.2	0.5	59.4	52.6	88.5	
	68.5	-11.8	32.3	26.1	80.8	
Newton	94.2	35.0	27.4	24.2	88.3	
	68.7	- 3.2	21.6	17.5	80.6	
	64.0	-10.8	15.3	13.5	88.2	

Refrigerating Machines using Vapor of Water.

In these machines, sometimes called vacuum machines, water, at ordinary temperatures, is injected into, or placed in contact with, a body in a high or strong vacuum is maintained. A portion of the water vaporizes, the heat to cause the vaporization being supplied from the water so vaporized, so that the latter is chilled or frozen to ice. If brine is used instead of pure water, its temperature may be reduced below the freezing point of water. The water vapor is compressed from, say, a pressure of 1 lb. per square inch to one and one half pounds, and directed to a condenser. It is then condensed and removed by means of an air pump. The principle of action of such a machine is the same as that of volatile-vapor machines.

A theoretical calculation for ice-making, assuming a lower temperature of 32° F., a pressure in the condenser of 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per square inch, and a consumption of 3 lbs. per I.H.P. per hour, gives an ice-making effect of 1.5 lbs. per pound of coal, neglecting friction. Ammonia for ice-making refrigeration gives 40.9 lbs. The volume of the compressing cylinder is about 7 times the theoretical volume for an ammonia machine for these conditions.

Relative Efficiency of a Refrigerating Machine. The efficiency of a refrigerating machine is sometimes expressed in the quotient of the quantity of heat received by the ammonia from the brine, that is, the quantity of useful work done, divided by the heat equivalent of the mechanical work done in the compressor. Thus in column 6 of the table of page 608 of the 75 ton machine (page 608), the heat given by the brine to the ammonia per minute is 14,776 B.T.U. The horse power of the ammonia compressor is 65.7, and its heat equivalent = $65.7 \times 33,000 \div 778 = 2788$ B.T.U. $14,776 \div 2788 = 5.304$, efficiency. The apparent paradox that the efficiency is greater than unity, which is impossible in any machine, is thus explained. The working fluid, as ammonia, receives heat from the brine, and rejects heat into the condenser. (If the compressor is jacketed, a portion of the heat is rejected into the jacket-water.) The heat rejected into the condenser is greater than that received from the brine; the difference (plus or minus a small amount radiated to or from the atmosphere) is heat received by the compressor from the compressor. The work to be done by the compressor to reject the heat is the heat equivalent of the refrigeration of the brine, but only that necessary to supply the difference between the heat rejected by the ammonia to the condenser and that received from the brine. If cooling water could be had in any quantity available, the brine might transfer its heat directly into the cooling water, and there would be no need of ammonia or of a compressor.

The temperature at various points observed in the tests, which range from 10° F. to 100° F. in the steam cylinder.

not available, the brine rejects its heat into the water, and the compressor is required to heat the ammonia so that it may reject heat into the cooling water.

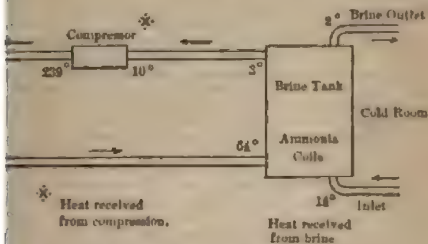
The refrigerating plant referred to the amount of fuel

$$\frac{\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pounds circulated per hour} \\ \times \text{specific heat} \times \text{range} \\ \text{of temperature} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of brine or other circulating fluid.}}{142.2 \times \text{pounds of fuel used per hour.}}$$

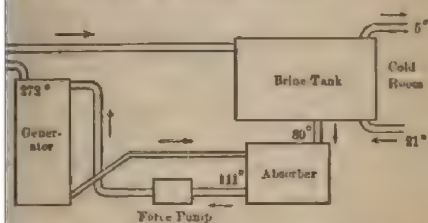
Efficiency is expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 24 \times \text{pounds} \\ \times \text{specific heat} \\ \times \text{range of temp.} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of brine circulated per hour.}}{142.2 \times 2000}$$

A heat-engine and a refrigerating-machine is as follows: receives heat from the boiler, converts a part of it into work in the cylinder, and throws away the difference into the cold-room. In a compression refrigerating machine the ammonia in a compression cylinder, receives an additional amount of work done in the compression cylinder, and rejects the heat to the condenser. The efficiency of the steam engine is the work received from the boiler. The efficiency of the refrigerating machine is the work received from the brine-tank or cold-room + heat rejected from the compression-cylinder. In the ammonia



OF AMMONIA COMPRESSION MACHINE.



OF AMMONIA ABSORPTION MACHINE.

The ammonia receives heat from the brine-tank or boiler or generator, and rejects the same to the cooling water supplied to the absorber, or from the brine + heat received from the boiler.

$$\frac{\Delta L}{Q'} = u, \text{ and } \frac{Q'}{Q} = \frac{T_c - T}{uT}.$$

It follows that the expenditure of heat Q' necessary for the production of the quantity of cold Q in a compression machine will be the smaller the difference of temperature $T_c - T$.

Metering the Ammonia.—For a complete test of an ammonia refrigerating-machine it is advisable to measure the quantity of ammonia circulated, as was done in the test of the 75 ton machine described by Denton (Trans. A. S. M. E., xli 326.)

PROPERTIES OF SULPHUR DIOXIDE AND AMMONIA GAS.

Ledoux's Table for Saturated Sulphur-dioxide

Heat-units expressed in B.T.U. per pound of sulphur dioxide

Temperature of Evaporation in deg. F.	Absolute Pressure in lbs. per sq. in. $P + 14\frac{1}{2}$	Total Heat reckoned from 32° F. A	Heat of Liquid reckoned from 32° F. q	Latent Heat of Evaporation r	Heat Equivalent of External Work $\Delta P u$	Internal Latent Heat p	Increase of Volume during Evaporation.
Deg. F.	Lbs.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	Cu. ft.
-22	5.54	157.43	-19.56	176.99	18.709	169.30	18.17
-13	7.23	158.64	-16.30	174.95	13.83	161.13	10.47
-4	9.37	159.64	-13.05	172.69	14.05	158.64	8.12
4	11.76	161.03	-9.79	170.82	14.28	156.55	6.50
14	14.74	162.20	-6.53	168.74	14.46	154.27	5.25
23	18.31	163.86	-3.27	166.63	14.66	151.97	4.20
28	22.53	164.51	0.00	164.51	14.84	149.68	3.51
41	27.48	165.55	3.27	162.28	15.01	147.37	2.98
50	33.35	166.78	6.55	160.23	15.17	145.06	2.45
59	39.93	167.90	9.83	158.07	15.32	142.75	2.07
68	47.61	168.99	13.11	155.88	15.46	140.43	1.75
77	54.33	170.09	16.39	153.70	15.60	138.11	1.49
86	60.36	171.17	19.69	151.49	15.71	135.78	1.27
95	67.64	172.24	22.98	149.26	15.82	133.45	1.09
104	90.51	173.30	26.28	147.02	15.91	131.11	.91

Density of Liquid Ammonia. (D'André, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 641.)

At temperature C.....	-10	-5	0	5	10	15
F.....	+14	23	32	41	50	59
Density.....	.6492	.6429	.6364	.6298	.6230	.6160

These may be expressed very nearly by

$$\delta = 0.6364 - 0.0014t^{\circ} \text{ Centigrade};$$

$$\delta = 0.6502 - 0.000777T^{\circ} \text{ Fahr.}$$

Latent Heat of Evaporation of Ammonia. (Wood, A. S. M. E., x. 611.)

$h_e = 555.5 - 0.6137T - 0.000219T^2$ (in B.T.U., Fahr.)
 Ledoux found $h_e = 583.33 - 0.5499T - 0.0001173T^2$.

For experimental values at different temperatures determined by Denton, see Trans. A. S. M. E., xli. 356. For calculated values vol. x. 646.

Density of Ammonia Gas.—Theoretical, 0.5894; experimental, 0.596. Regnault (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 633).

Specific Heat of Liquid Ammonia. (Wood, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 615.) The specific heat is nearly constant at different temperatures, about equal to that of water, or unity. From 0° to 100° F., it is

$$c = 1.006 - 0.012T, \text{ nearly.}$$

In a later paper by Prof. Wood (Trans. A. S. M. E., xli. 126) the general value, viz., $c = 1.12136 + 0.000438T$.

achines) it will be possible to obtain for the
ance exhibiting small discrepancies only.
intended to be used for comparison with
ines will therefore have to embrace at least

per hour.....	
refrigerator.....	
refrigerator ..	Q_1
Fahr.)	
.....	
.....	Q_2
erator.....	
hour ...	
user.....	
enser.....	Q_1
enser.....	
g the condenser....	

COMPRESSION-MACHINE.

Compressor :

Indicated work..... L_c
Temperature of gases at inlet..
Temperature of gases at exit..

Steam-engine :

Feed-water per hour.....
Temperature of feed-water....
Absolute steam-pressure before
steam-engine.....
Indicated work of steam-engine

L_e
Condensing water per hour....
Temperature of d_a
Total sum of losses by radiation
and convection... .. $\pm Q_3$

Heat Balance :

$$Q_1 + \Delta L_c = Q_2 \pm Q_3.$$

cy and for comparison of various tests, the
pared with the theoretical maximum of eff-
corresponding to the temperature range.

As temperatures (T' and T_c) at which the
motor and imparted to the condenser, it is cor-
of the brine leaving the refrigerator and that
condenser, because it is in principle impos-
essure higher than would correspond to the
reduce the condenser pressure below that
perature of the cooling water.
maximum theoretical efficiency of a com-
pressed by the formula

$$\eta = \frac{T}{T_c - T'}$$

abstracted (cold produced);
t of the mechanical work expended;
ork, and $\Delta = 1 + 778$;
ure of heat abstraction (refrigerator);
" " rejection (condenser).
equivalent of the mechanical work Δf
must be imparted to the motor to Q_1

$$\frac{AL}{Q'} = u, \text{ and } \frac{Q'}{Q} = \frac{T_c - T}{uT}.$$

It follows that the expenditure of heat Q' necessary for the production of the quantity of cold Q in a compression machine will be the smaller the difference of temperature $T_c - T$.

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Heat-units expressed in B.T.U. per pound of sulphur dioxide.

Temperature of Evaporation in deg. F.	Absolute Pressure in lbs. per sq. in. $p + 14\frac{1}{2}$	Total Heat reckoned from 32° F. A	Heat of Liquid reckoned from 32° F. Q	Latent Heat of Evaporation r	Heat Equivalent of External Work. A/P_0	Internal Latent Heat. p	Increase of Volume during Evaporation. $\frac{v}{v_0}$	Density of Gas
Deg. F.	Lbs.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	(Cu. ft.)	
-22	5.56	157.49	-10.56	176.90	18.50	168.30	13.17	
-18	7.23	154.64	-16.30	174.95	18.83	166.12	10.47	
-4	9.27	150.84	-18.06	172.80	14.05	158.75	6.12	
6	11.76	101.03	- 9.79	170.82	14.26	156.56	6.20	
14	14.74	102.30	- 6.63	168.73	14.46	154.27	5.26	
23	18.31	163.86	- 3.27	166.63	14.66	151.97	4.29	
32	22.53	164.51	0.00	164.51	14.84	149.67	3.54	
41	27.48	165.05	3.27	162.38	15.01	147.37	2.93	
50	33.25	166.78	6.55	160.23	15.17	145.06	2.45	
59	39.93	167.90	9.83	158.07	15.33	142.75	2.07	
68	47.61	169.90	13.11	155.89	15.46	140.43	1.73	
77	56.30	170.09	16.39	153.70	15.59	138.11	1.49	
86	66.36	171.17	19.69	151.49	15.71	135.78	1.27	
95	77.64	172.24	22.98	149.26	15.82	133.45	1.09	
104	90.31	173.30	26.28	147.02	15.91	131.11	.91	

Density of Liquid Ammonia. (D'Andréff, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 611.)

At temperature C.....	-10	-5	0	5	10	15
" " " " F.....	+14	23	32	41	50	59
Density.....	.6492	.6420	.6364	.6306	.6251	.6190

These may be expressed very nearly by

$$\delta = 0.6364 - 0.00114^{\circ} \text{ Centigrade};$$

$$\delta = 0.6502 - 0.000777^{\circ} \text{ Fahr.}$$

Latent Heat of Evaporation of Ammonia. (Wool, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 611.)

$$h_e = 535.5 - 0.613T - 0.000219T^2 \text{ (in B.T.U. Fahr.)}$$

$$\text{Ledoux found } h_e = 583.33 - 0.5499T - 0.000173T^2.$$

For experimental values at different temperatures determined by Denton, see Trans. A. S. M. E., xii 326. For calculation values vol. x. 640.

Density of Ammonia Gas.—Theoretical. 0.5894, experimental. 0.596. Regnault (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 623).

Specific Heat of Liquid Ammonia. (Wool, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 615.) The specific heat is nearly constant at different temperatures about equal to that of water, or unity. From 0° to 100° F., it is

$$c = 1.006 - 0.0012T, \text{ nearly.}$$

For ammonia gas, see By Prof. Wool (Trans. A. S. M. E., xii 136) he gives $c = 0.4735 + 0.00488T$.

Condensing Pressure, lbs.	Suction-pressure, lbs.	Pounds of Ice-melting Effect with Engines—						B.T.U. per lb. of Steam with Engines—		
		Non-condensing.		Non-compound Condensing.		Compound Condensing.		Non-condensing.	Condensing.	Compound Condensing.
		Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.	Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.	Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.			
150	25	34	2.90	30	3.61	37.5	4.51	369	111	640
150	25	14	1.69	17.5	2.11	21.5	2.58	240	300	366
105	22	33.5	4.16	43	5.18	54	6.50	531	725	923
105	22	22	2.85	25.5	3.31	34.5	4.16	376	470	591

The non-condensing engine is assumed to require 25 lbs. of steam per horse-power per hour, the non-compound condensing 30 lbs., and the compound 37.5 lbs., and the boiler efficiency is assumed at 8.3 lbs. of water per lb. of coal under working conditions. The following conclusions were derived from the investigation:

The capacity of the machine is proportional, almost entirely, to the amount of ammonia circulated. This weight depends on the suction-pressure and the displacement of the compressor-pumps. The practical suction-pressures range from 7 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which a temperature of 0° F. can be produced, to 28 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which the temperatures of refrigeration are confined to about 28° F. At the lower pressure only about one half as much weight of ammonia can be circulated as at the upper pressure, the proportion being about in accordance with the ratios of the absolute pressures, 22 and 42 lbs. respectively. For each foot of piston-displacement per minute a capacity of about one sixth ton of "refrigerating effect" per 24 hours can be produced at the lower pressure, and of about one third of a ton at the upper pressure. No other factors practically affect the capacity of a machine, provided the cooling-surface in the brine-tank or other space to be cooled is equal to about 100 ft. per ton of capacity at 28 lbs. back pressure. For example, a difference of 100% in the rate of circulation of brine, while producing a proportional difference in the range of temperature of the latter, made no practical change in capacity.

The brine-tank was 10½ × 13 × 17½ ft., and contained 8000 lineal feet of pipe as cooling-surface. The condensing-tank was 12 × 10 × 10 ft., and lined 5000 lineal feet of 1-in. pipe as cooling-surface.

The economy in coal-consumption depends mainly upon both the suction-pressures and condensing pressures. Maximum economy, with a given engine, where water must be bought at average city prices, is secured at 28 lbs. suction-pressure and about 150 lbs. condensing-pressure. Under these conditions, for a non-condensing steam-engine, consuming coal at a rate of 3 lbs. per hour per I.H.P. of steam-cylinders, 24 lbs. of refrigerating effect are obtained per lb. of coal consumed. For the same engine pressure, and with 7 lbs. suction-pressure, which affords temperatures of 0° F., the possible economy falls to about 14 lbs. of "refrigerating effect" per lb. of coal consumed. The condensing-pressure is determined by the amount of condensing-water supplied to liquefy the ammonia in the receiver. If the latter is about 1 gallon per minute per ton of refrigerating effect per 24 hours, a condensing-pressure of 150 lbs. results, if the initial temperature of the water is about 58° F. Twenty-five per cent less water causes condensing-pressure to increase to 120 lbs. The work of compression is thereby increased about 20%, and the resulting "economy" is reduced to about 18 lbs. of "ice effect" per lb. of coal at 28 lbs. suction-pressure and 7 lbs. If, on the other hand, the supply of water is made 3 gallons per minute, the condensing-pressure may be confined to about 105 lbs. The work of compression is thereby reduced about 25%, and a proportional increase in economy results. Minor alterations of economy depend on the initial temperature of the condensing-water and variations of latent heat, but these are confined within about 5% of the gross result, the main element of control being the work of compression, as affected by the back pressure and condensing-pressure, or both. If the steam-engine supplying the motive power to the condenser to secure a vacuum, an increase of economy of 5% is obtained over the above figures, making the lbs. of "ice effect" per lb.

Ice-melting Effect with Engines—				B.T.U. per lb. of Steam with Engines—		
Non-compound Condensing.		Compound Condensing.		Non-condensing.	Condensing.	Compound Condensing.
Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.	Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.			
30	3.61	37.5	4.51	393	513	610
37.5	2.11	21.5	2.55	240	300	366
43	5.18	54	6.50	501	725	923
47.5	3.31	34.5	4.16	376	470	591

ine is assumed to require 35 lbs. of steam per non-compound condensing 30 lbs., and the condenser efficiency is assumed at 8.3 lbs. of water per additions. The following conclusions were derived

machine is proportional, almost entirely, to the rated. This weight depends on the suction-ment of the compressor-pumps. The practical rom 7 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which a n produced, to 28 lbs. above the atmosphere, with efrigeration are confined to about 2° F. At the one half as much weight of ammonia can be circ-essure, the proportion being about in accordance te pressures, 22 and 42 lbs. respectively. For each cement per minute a capacity of about one sixth effect " per 24 hours can be produced at the lower s third of a ton at the upper pressure. No other the capacity of a machine, provided the cooling- or other space to be cooled is equal to about y at 28 lbs. back pressure. For example, a differ-circulation of brine, while producing a propor-e of temperature of the latter, made no practical

$6 \times 13 \times 1\frac{1}{2}$ ft., and contained 5000 lineal feet of a. The condensing-tank was $12 \times 10 \times 10$ ft., and 21-in. pipe as cooling surface.

consumption depends mainly upon both the suc-tion pressures. Maximum economy, with a given ter must be bought at average city prices, is pressure and about 150 lbs. condensing pressure. For a non-condensing steam-engine, consuming coal 52 per 1 H.P. of steam-cylinders, 24 lbs. of ice-ained per lb. of coal consumed. For the same with 7 lbs. suction pressure, which affords tem-ible economy falls to about 14 lbs. of " refrigerant-nsomed. The condensing pressure is determi-ling water supplied to liquefy the ammonia in the about 1 gallon per minute per ton of refrigerating being pressure of 120 lbs. results, if the initial tem-oot 36° F. Twenty-five per cent less water raises e increase to 120 lbs. The work of compression is 22, and the resulting " economy " is reduced to 17 per lb. of coal at 28 lbs. suction pressure and her limit, the supply of water is made 2 gallons e pressure may be reduced to about 90 lbs. The ebs reduced about 25, and a proportional decrease e alterations of economy depend on the initial ing-water and variations of the heat, but these ss of the given result, the main element of econ-ermin, as affected by the back pressure and e If the steam engine supplying the machine ume vacuum, an increase of economy of eures, making the lbs. of " ice effect. 10

Performance of a 75-ton Refrigerating-machine

	Maximum Capacity and Economy at 28 lbs. Back Pressure.	Maximum Capacity and Economy at Zero, Brine, and 8 lbs. Back Pressure.	Maximum Capacity and Economy for Zero Brine, 13 lbs. Back Pressure.
Av. high ammonia press. above atmos.	151 lbs.	152 lbs.	147 lbs.
Av. back ammonia press. above atmos.	28 "	8.2 "	13 "
Av. temperature brine inlet	36.76°	6.27°	14.29°
Av. temperature brine outlet	28.86°	2.08°	2.29°
Av. range of temperature	7.9°	4.21°	12.00°
Lbs. of brine circulated per minute	2281	2173	943
Av. temp. condensing water at inlet	44.88°	56.65°	46.40°
Av. temp. condensing water at outlet	61.66°	85.4°	85.40°
Av. range of temperature	39.01°	28.75°	39.56°
Lbs. water circulated p. min. thro' condenser	442	315	257
Lbs. water per min. through jackets	25	41	40
Range of temperature in jackets	24.0°	16.2°	10.4°
Lbs. ammonia circulated per min.	*28.17	14.68	16.67
Probable temperature of liquid ammonia, entrance to brine-tank	*71.3°	*68°	*63.7°
Temp. of amm. corresp. to av. back press.	+14°	-6°	-6°
Av. temperature of gas leaving brine-tanks	31.2°	14.7°	8.0°
Temperature of gas entering compressor	*30°	25°	10.13
Av. temperature of gas leaving compressor	213°	263°	339°
Av. temp. of gas entering condenser	200°	218°	309°
Temperature due to condensing pressure	84.5°	84.0°	82.5°
Heat given ammonia:			
By brine, B.T.U. per minute	14776	7786	8824
By compressor, B.T.U. per minute	2786	2920	2518
By atmosphere, B.T.U. per minute	140	147	167
Total heat rec'd. by amm., B.T.U. per min.	17702	7953	11409
Heat taken from ammonia:			
By condenser, B.T.U. per min.	17342	9056	9910
By jackets, B.T.U. per min.	608	712	656
By atmosphere, B.T.U. per min.	182	338	220
Total heat rec'd. by amm., B.T.U. per min.	18032	10106	10816
Diff. of heat rec'd. and rej., B.T.U. per min.	340	453	407
Wk. of compression removed by jackets	225	313	295
Av. revolutions per min.	58.09	57.7	57.88
Mean eff. press. steam-cyl., lbs. per sq. in.	32.5	27.17	27.83
Mean eff. press. amm.-cyl., lbs. per sq. in.	65.9	53.3	59.46
Av. H.P. steam-cylinder	86.00	71.7	78.6
Av. H.P. ammonia-cylinder	65.7	54.7	59.87
Friction in per cent of steam H.P.	23.0	24.0	20.0
Total cooling water, gallons per min. per ton per 24 hours	*0.75	1.185	0.79
Total ice-melting capacity per 24 hours	74.8	86.43	44.84
Lbs. ice-refrigerating eff. per lb. coal at 3 lbs. per H.P. per hour	24.1	14.1	17.27
Cost coal per ton of ice-refrigerating effect at \$4 per ton	\$0.166	\$0.283	\$0.231
Cost water per ton of ice-refrigerating effect at \$1 per 1000 cu. ft.	\$0.128	\$0.200	\$0.190
Total cost of 1 ton of ice-refrigerating eff.	\$0.294	\$0.483	\$0.46°

Figures marked thus (*) are obtained by calculation; all other figures are obtained from experimental data; temperatures are in Fahrenheit except

the ice-melting capacity ranges from 46.29 of coal, according as the suction pressure is above the atmosphere, this pressure being the same as the economy of compression-machines, realizing from 72 to 85% of theoretically perfect per cents appear to occur with the higher greater loss from cylinder-heating (a phenomenon condensation in steam-engines), as the the gas in the compression-cylinder is

a-machine, operating on the "dry system," effect realized ranges from 69.5% to 62.0% the American machine. The latter's higher before, to more perfect displacement.

ity " in the American machine is 24.16 lbs. suction-pressures used in American practice red in beer storage cellars using the direct-as most nearly corresponding to American tests are those in line 5, which give an "ice-

al ice, the conditions of practice are those 26. In the former the condensing pressure cooling water than is common in American ity is therefore greater in the German machine against 17.55 and 14.52 for the American

Pictet Machines.—No records are available elting capacity " of machines using pure use in American machines, but in Europe uid," a mixture of about 9% of sulphur

The presence of the carbonic acid affords a less lower than is obtained with pure sulphure. The latent heat of this mixture has sumed to be equal to that of pure sulphur

additions, line 17, we have 26.24 lbs. "ice-making conditions, line 13, the "ice-melting figures are practically as economical cent of theoretical effect realized ranging low temperatures, -15° Fahr., lines 14 and as 42.5.

ompression-machines employing volatile difference between the theoretical and the the ammonia, by the warm cylinder walls, apressor, thereby expanding it, so that to a greater number of revolutions must be than corresponds to the density of the e brine-tank.

ption-machine used in storage-ware-New York and Brooklyn Bridge. (King's, id consisted of a solution of chloride of calcium was found to be 82%.

as for 24 hours was found by taking the circulating through the pipes by the average in the ingoing and outgoing currents, as the specific heat of the brine (82%) and its final product, applying all allowances for amount to 6,218,816 heat units as the equal to the melting of 43,565 lbs. of ice in

of the coal used in 24 hours was 27,000,000 of the apparatus was 2%. This is equivalent 1 per lb. of coal having a heating value of

machine in New Haven, Conn. b, gave an ice-melting effect of economy equivalent to 3 lbs. of steam-engine. The ammonia above the atmosphere.

V in a ton of 2240 lbs. For fresh water the divisor is 35.95. The U. S. register tonnage will equal the displacement when the entire internal cubic capacity bears to the displacement the ratio of 100 to 35.

The displacement or gross tonnage is sometimes approximately estimated as follows: Let L denote the length in feet of the boat, B its extreme breadth in feet, and D the mean draught in feet; the product of these three dimensions will give the volume of a parallelepipedon in cubic feet. Putting V for this volume, we have $V = L \times B \times D$.

The volume of displacement may then be expressed as a percentage of the volume V , known as the "block coefficient." This percentage varies for different classes of ships. In racing yachts with very deep keels it varies from 22 to 33; in modern merchantmen from 55 to 75; for ordinary small boats probably 50 will give a fair estimate. The volume of displacement in cubic feet divided by 35 gives the displacement in tons.

Coefficient of Fineness.—A term used to express the relation between the displacement of a ship and the volume of a rectangular prism or box whose lineal dimensions are the length, breadth, and draught of the ship.

$$\text{Coefficient of fineness} = \frac{D \times 35}{L \times B \times W}; D \text{ being the displacement in tons}$$

of 35 cubic feet of sea-water to the ton, L the length between perpendiculars, B the extreme breadth of beam, and W the mean draught of water, all in feet.

Coefficient of Water-lines.—An expression of the relation of the displacement to the volume of the prism whose section equals the midship section of the ship, and length equal to the length of the ship.

$$\text{Coefficient of water-lines} = \frac{D \times 35}{\text{area of immersed water section} \times L}$$

Seaton gives the following values:

	Coefficient of Fineness.	Coefficient of Water-lines.
Finely-shaped ships.....	0.55	0.63
Fairly-shaped ships.....	0.61	0.67
Ordinary merchant steamers for speeds of 10 to 11 knots.....	0.65	0.72
Cargo steamers, 9 to 10 knots.....	0.70	0.76
Modern cargo steamers of large size.....	0.78	0.83

Resistance of Ships.—The resistance of a ship passing through water may vary from a number of causes, as speed, form of body, displacement, midship dimensions, character of wetted surface, fineness of lines, etc. The resistance of the water is twofold: 1st. That due to the displacement of the water at the bow and its replacement at the stern, with the consequent formation of waves. 2d. The friction between the wetted surface of the ship and the water, known as skin resistance. A common approximate formula for resistance of vessels is

$$\text{Resistance} = \text{speed}^2 \times \sqrt[3]{\text{displacement}^2} \times \text{a constant, or } R = S^2 D^{\frac{2}{3}} \times C$$

If D = displacement in pounds, S = speed in feet per minute, R = resistance in foot-pounds per minute, $R = C S^2 D^{\frac{2}{3}}$. The work done in overcoming the resistance through a distance equal to S is $R \times S = C S^3 D^{\frac{2}{3}}$; and if E is the efficiency of the propeller and machinery combined, the indicated

$$\text{horse-power I.H.P.} = \frac{C S^3 D^{\frac{2}{3}}}{E \times 33,000}$$

If S = speed in knots, D = displacement in tons, and C a constant which includes all the constants for form of vessel, efficiency of mechanism, etc.

$$\text{I.H.P.} = \frac{S^3 D^{\frac{2}{3}}}{C}$$

The wetted surface varies as the cube root of the square of the displacement; thus, let L be the length of edge of a cube just immersed, whose displacement is D and wetted surface W . Then $D = L^3$ or $L = \sqrt[3]{D}$, and

$$W = 5 \times L^2 = 5 \times (\sqrt[3]{D})^2. \text{ That is, } W \text{ varies as } D^{\frac{2}{3}}.$$

Boilers	1 to 1.2
Condensers to distilled water	26 to 1
Boilers per pound of coal	5.085
Compressor-engines	444
From cans	2 2

WATER IN PER CENTS OF TOTAL AMOUNT.

Boilers	60.1
Condensers	19.7
Water engines	7.6
Water	6.5
Waste at boilers	5.6
Waste	0.5

The purity of the ice are thus described:—The condenser is the accumulation of the steam and engines, together with an amount of water from the boilers. This last quantity is an amount of water necessary to supply the condenser is violently reheated, and then a coil surface cooler. It then passes through it runs through three charcoal-filters and containing 24 feet of charcoal. It next to which there is an electrical attachment for tests are also made for salt daily. From which are carefully covered so that the impurities.

ENGINEERING.

Dimensions and Obtaining Tonnage.—American & Foreign Shipping. American vessels the dimensions to be measured as follows:—The depth of stem to the after side of stern-post per deck of all vessels, except those having a hurricane deck, extending right fore and aft, in which the depth of deck immediately below the hurricane

deck, extending forward, or receding stems, or rake, is the distance of the fore side of stem from the dead water line measured at middle line.

For vessels with a stern-post in screw-steampers, the depth is taken over the widest frame at its widest part; and for sailing vessels, over the widest frame at its widest part.

For vessels with a hurricane deck, the depth is taken at the dead-flat frame and at middle line, from the top of floor-plate to the upper edge of the hurricane deck, except those having a continuous deck fore and aft, and not intended for the purpose of the depth is to be the distance from top of hurricane deck-beam and the top of the hurricane deck.

For vessels with a hurricane deck, extending right fore and aft, the depth is to be the distance from the top of hurricane deck-beam to the top of deck-beam of deck immediately below the hurricane deck.

Tonnage.—Multiply together the length, breadth, and depth; divide the last product by 100;
$$L \times B \times D \div 100 = \text{tonnage.}$$

Tonnage Law.—May 6, 1864, provides that "every vessel shall be her entire internal cubic capacity." This measurement includes all the space within the hull, whether or not it is used for cargo, and whether it is above or below the water-line, in which it displaces. For sea-going vessels, the measurement is to be taken at the least depth of the hull, in which it displaces.

The measurement is to be taken at the least depth of the hull, in which it displaces. For sea-going vessels, the measurement is to be taken at the least depth of the hull, in which it displaces. For sea-going vessels, the measurement is to be taken at the least depth of the hull, in which it displaces.

quantity in the parenthesis, which is known as the "coefficient of augmentation." The last term of the coefficient may be neglected in calculating the resistance of ships as too small to be practically important. In applying the formula, the mean of the squares of the sines of the angles of maximum obliquity of the water-lines is to be taken for $\sin^2 \theta$, and the rule will then read thus:

To obtain the resistance of a ship of good form, in pounds, multiply the length in feet by the mean immersed girth and by the coefficient of augmentation, and then take the product of this "augmented surface," as Rankine termed it, by the square of the speed in knots, and by the proper constant coefficient selected from the following:

For clean painted vessels, iron hulls.....	$A = .01$
For clean coppered vessels.....	$A = .009$ to $.008$
For moderately rough iron vessels.....	$A = .011$ +

The net, or effective, horse power demanded will be quite closely obtained by multiplying the resistance calculated, as above, by the speed in knots and dividing by 326. The gross, or indicated, power is obtained by multiplying the last quantity by the reciprocal of the efficiency of the machinery and propeller, which usually should be about 0.6. Rankine uses as a divisor in this case 200 to 280.

The form of the vessel, even when designed by skilful and experienced naval architects, will often vary to such an extent as to cause the above constant coefficients to vary somewhat; and the range of variation with good forms is found to be from 0.8 to 1.5 the figures given.

For well shaped iron vessels, an approximate formula for the horse-power required is $H.P. = \frac{S^3}{20,000}$ in which S is the "augmented surface." The expression $\frac{S^3}{H.P.}$ has been called by Rankine the *coefficient of propulsion*. In the Hudson River steamer "Mary Powell," according to Thurston, this coefficient was as high as 23,500.

The expression $\frac{H.P.}{S^3}$ has been called the *locomotive performance*. (See Rankine's Treatise on Shipbuilding, 1864; Thurston's Manual of the Steam-engine, part ii. p. 16; also paper by F. T. Bowles, U.S.N., Proc. U. S. Naval Institute, 1883.)

Rankine's method for calculating the resistance is said by Seaton to give more accurate and reliable results than those obtained by the older rules, but it is criticised as being difficult and inconvenient of application.

Dr. Kirk's Method.—This method is generally used on the Clyde. The general idea proposed by Dr. Kirk is to reduce all ships to so definite and simple a form that they may be easily compared; and the magnitude of certain features of this form shall determine the suitability of the ship for speed, etc.

The form consists of a middle body, which is a rectangular parallelepiped, and fore body and after body, prisms having isosceles triangles for bases, as shown in Fig. 168.

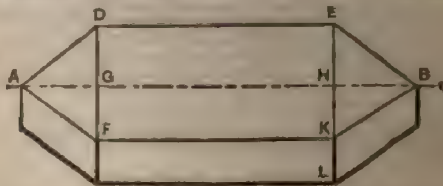


FIG. 168.

This is called a block model, and is such that its length is equal to that of the ship, the depth is equal to the mean draught, the capacity equal to the displacement volume, and its area of section equal to the area of the

mersed midship section. The dimensions of the block model may be obtained as follows:

Let $AG = HB =$ length of fore- or after-body $= F$;
 $GH =$ length of middle body $= M$;
 $KL =$ mean draught $= H$;
 $SK = \frac{\text{area of immersed midship section}}{KL} = B.$

Volume of block = $(F + M) \times B \times H$:

Midship section = $B \times H$;

Displacement in tons = volume in cubic ft. \div 35.

$$AH = AG + GH = F + M = \text{displacement} \times 35 + (B \times F)$$

The wetted surface of the block is nearly equal to that of the ship of the same length, beam and draught; usually 2% to 5% greater. In exceedingly fine hollow-line ships it may be 8% greater.

Area of bottom of block = $(F + M) \times B$:

Area of sides = $2M \times H$.

$$\text{Area of sides of ends} = 4 \sqrt{F^2 + \left(\frac{B}{2}\right)^2} \times H_1$$

Tangent of half angle of entrance = $\frac{1/2 B}{F} = \frac{B}{2F}$.

From this, by a table of natural tangents, the angle of entrance may be obtained:

	Angle of Entrance of the Block Model.	Fore-body in parts of length.
Ocean-going steamers, 13 knots and upward.	18° to 15°	.3 to .36
" " 12 to 13 knots.	21 to 18	.26 to .3
" cargo steamers, 10 to 12 knots..	30 to 22	.22 to .26

E. R. Mumford's Method of Calculating Wetted Surfaces

is given in a paper by Archibald Denny, *Eng'g*, Sept. 21, 1894. The following formula, which gives closely accurate results for medium draughts, tons, and fluenseness:

$$S = (L \times D \times 1.5) + (L \times B \times C).$$

which S = wetted surface in square feet:

L = length between perpendiculars in feet:

D = middle draught in feet;

B = beam in feet;

C = block coefficient.

The formula may also be expressed in the form $S = L(1.7P + BC)$.

In the case of twin-screw ships having projecting shaft-casings, or in the case of a ship having a deep keel or bilge keels, an addition must be made to such projections. The formula gives results which are in general much more accurate than those obtained by Kink's method. It underestimates the surface when the beam, draught, or block coefficients are excessive, but the error is small except in the case of abnormal forms, such as stern-wheel steamers having very excessive beams (nearly one fourth the length) and very full block coefficients. The formula gives a surface about 6% too small for such forms.

To Find the Indicated Horse-power from the Wetted Surface.—In ordinary cases the horse power per 100 feet of wetted surface may be found by assuming that the rate for a speed of 10 knots is 5, and that the quantity varies as the cube of the speed. For example: To find the number of I.H.P. necessary to drive a ship at a speed of 16 knots, having a wetted skin of block model of 16,200 square feet:

The rate per 100 feet = $(15 - 10)^3 \times 5 = 16.875$.

Then L.H.P. required = $16.875 \times 102 = 2734.$

the block model may be obtained

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Wetted surface} &= P; \\ &= M; \\ &= H; \\ \text{Ship section} &= A.\end{aligned}$$

$$\propto B \times H.$$

$$\text{Area in cubic ft.} = \pi A.$$

$$\text{Displacement} = 35 + (B \times H).$$

is nearly equal to that of the ship of the usually 25 to 34 greater. Is exceedingly greater.

$$\text{Vol.} = (P + M) \times B;$$

$$= \sqrt{P^2 + \left(\frac{B}{2}\right)^2} \times H;$$

$$\text{Vol. of entrance} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{B}{F} = \frac{B}{2F}.$$

Angents, the angle of entrance may be

	Angle of Entrance of the Block Model.	Fore-body in parts of length.
Upward.	18° to 15°	.3 to .36
.....	21 to 18	.36 to .3
.....	30 to 22	.32 to .28

of Calculating Wetted Surfaces
any, *Eng'g*, Sept. 21, 1894. The following
accurate results for medium draughts,

$$1.7) + (L \times B \times C),$$

are feet;

particulars in feet;

in the form $S = L(1.7D + BC)$.
giving projecting shaft-entrings, or in the
ridge keels, an addition must be made
gives results which are in general much
by Kirk's method. It underestimates
or block coefficients are excessive, but
of abnormal forms, such as stern-wheel
and (nearly one fourth the length) and
the formula gives a surface about 62 too

horse-power from the Wetted
cases the horse power per 100 feet of
assuming that the rate for a speed of 10
is as the cube of the speed. For ex-
cessary to drive a ship at a speed
model of 16,280 square feet;

$$\begin{aligned}&= (15 \times 10^3 \times 5) = 15,000, \\ &= 15,000 \times 162 = 2,730,000.\end{aligned}$$

When the ship is exceptionally well-proportioned, the bottom quite clean, and the efficiency of the machinery high, as low a rate as 4 I.H.P. per 100 feet of wetted skin of block model may be allowed.

The gross indicated horse-power includes the power necessary to overcome the friction and other resistance of the engine itself and the shafting, and also the power lost in the propeller. In other words, I.H.P. is no measure of the resistance of the ship, and can only be relied on as a means of deciding the size of engines for speed, so long as the efficiency of the engine and propeller is known definitely, or so long as similar engines and propellers are employed in ships to be compared. The former is difficult to obtain, and it is nearly impossible in practice to know how much of the power shown in the cylinders is employed usefully in overcoming the resistance of the ship. The following example is given to show the variation in the efficiency of propellers:

	Knots.	I.H.P.
H.M.S. "Amazon," with a 4-bladed screw, gave,	12.064	with 1940
H.M.S. "Amazon," with a 2-bladed screw, increased pitch, and less revolutions per minute,	12.396	" 1668
H.M.S. "Iris," with a 4-bladed screw,	16.577	" 7504
H.M.S. "Iris," with 2-bladed screw, increased pitch, less revolutions per knot,	18.587	" 7554

Relative Horse-power Required for Different Speeds of Vessels. (Horse-power for 10 knots = 1.)—The horse-power is taken usually to vary as the cube of the speed, but in different vessels and at different speeds it may vary from the 2.8 power to the 3.5 power, depending upon the lines of the vessel and upon the efficiency of the engines, the propeller, etc.

Speed, knots.	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
H.P. $\propto S^2$	0.769	1.330	2.305	3.729	5.585	7.929	10.760	14.064	17.776	21.888	26.400	31.320	36.648	42.376
H.P. $\propto S^{2.8}$	0.701	1.227	2.124	3.533	5.398	7.744	10.584	13.920	17.752	22.080	26.904	32.224	38.048	44.376
H.P. $\propto S^3$	0.640	2.160	5.120	8.000	12.167	17.714	25.832	36.800	50.000	65.536	83.520	104.000	128.000	156.250
H.P. $\propto S^{3.2}$	0.584	2.005	5.011	8.000	12.167	17.714	25.832	36.800	50.000	65.536	83.520	104.000	128.000	156.250
H.P. $\propto S^{3.4}$	0.533	1.905	4.901	8.000	12.167	17.714	25.832	36.800	50.000	65.536	83.520	104.000	128.000	156.250
H.P. $\propto S^{3.5}$	0.486	1.835	4.751	8.000	12.167	17.714	25.832	36.800	50.000	65.536	83.520	104.000	128.000	156.250
H.P. $\propto S^{3.6}$	0.444	1.766	4.681	8.000	12.167	17.714	25.832	36.800	50.000	65.536	83.520	104.000	128.000	156.250
H.P. $\propto S^{3.8}$	0.405	1.677	4.581	8.000	12.167	17.714	25.832	36.800	50.000	65.536	83.520	104.000	128.000	156.250

EXAMPLE IN USE OF THE TABLE.—A certain vessel makes 14 knots speed with 587 I.H.P. and 16 knots with 900 I.H.P. What I.H.P. will be required at 18 knots, the rate of increase of horse-power with increase of speed remaining constant? The first step is to find the rate of increase, thus: $14^2 : 16^2 :: 587 : 900$.

$$x \log 16 - x \log 14 = \log 900 - \log 587;$$

$$x(0.204120 - 0.140126) = 2.954243 - 2.769038,$$

whence x (the exponent of S in formula $H.P. \propto S^x$) = 3.2.

From the table, for S^2 and 16 knots, the I.H.P. is 4.5 times the I.H.P. at 10 knots, \therefore H.P. at 10 knots = $900 \div 4.5 = 200$.

From the table, for S^3 and 18 knots, the I.H.P. is 6.559 times the I.H.P. at 10 knots; \therefore H.P. at 18 knots = $200 \times 6.559 = 1312$ H.P.

Resistance per Horse-power for Different Speeds. (One horse-power = 33,000 lbs. resistance overcome through 1 ft. in 1 min.)—The resistances per horse-power for various speeds are as follows: For a speed of 1 knot, or 6080 feet per hour = $101\frac{1}{2}$ ft. per min., $33,000 \div 101\frac{1}{2} = 325.638$ lbs. per horse-power; and for any other speed 325.638 lbs. divided by the speed in knots; or for

1 knot	325.66 lbs.	6 knots	54.28 lbs.	11 knots	29.61 lbs.	16 knots	20.35 lbs.
2 knots	162.83 "	7 "	46.52 "	12 "	27.14 "	17 "	19.16 "
3 "	108.55 "	8 "	40.71 "	13 "	25.05 "	18 "	18.00 "
4 "	81.41 "	9 "	36.18 "	14 "	23.35 "	19 "	16.84 "
5 "	65.13 "	10 "	32.57 "	15 "	21.71 "	20 "	15.68 "

of Steam-vessels of Various Sizes.
(after the Marine Engineering.)

	S.S. "Torpedo."	P.S. "John Penn."	S.S. "Africa."	P.S. "Mary Powell"	S.S. "Harrar."	R.M.P.S. "Connaught."
.....	00' 0"	171' 9"	184' 0"	286' 0"	230' 0"	377' 0"
.....	10' 0"	18' 9"	21' 0"	34' 3"	29' 0"	35' 0"
.....	2' 0"	6' 9 1/2"	8' 10"	6' 0"	13' 6"	13' 0"
.....	23.73	280	370	800	1500	1800
.....	24	90	148	200	340	390
.....	903	3793	3754	8222	10,075	15,789
.....	45' 0"	72' 00"	42' 6"	143' 0"	79' 6"	129' 0"
.....	12° 40'	11° 30'	23° 50'	13° 21'	17° 0'	11° 26'
.....	0.481	0.576	0.608	0.489	0.671	0.605
.....	22.01	15.3	10.74	17.20	10.04	17.8
.....	460	798	871	1490	503	4751
.....	50.9	21.04	9.28	18.12	5.00	20.00
.....	4.78	5.87	7.97	3.58	4.90	5.82
.....	223	192	172.8	293.7	266	182
.....	5561	445	493	683	610	399
	H.M.S. "Active."	H.M.S. "Irish."	H.M.S. "Irish."	S.S. "Garonne."	H.M.S. "Hecla."	R.M.S.S. "Britannic."
.....	270' 0"	300' 0"	300' 0"	370' 0"	392' 0"	450' 0"
.....	42' 0"	46' 0"	46' 0"	41' 0"	39' 0"	45' 2"
.....	18' 10"	18' 2"	18' 2"	18' 11"	21' 4"	23' 7"
.....	3057	3290	3.90	4635	5707	8200
.....	682	700	700	656	738	926
.....	10,008	18,168	18,168	22,633	26,235	32,578
.....	101' 0"	135' 6"	135' 6"	123' 0"	118' 0"	139' 0"
.....	18° 44'	16° 16'	16° 16'	16° 4'	16° 30'	17° 16'
.....	0.620	0.548	0.548	0.668	0.698	0.714
.....	14,366	18,578	15,746	13,80	12,054	15,045
.....	4015	7711	3954	2500	1758	4000
.....	25.08	42.46	21.78	11.04	6.7	15.04
.....	7.49	6.034	5.58	4.20	3.93	4.42
.....	175.8	189.7	218.2	292	2	
.....	527.3	581.4	690.5	689		

Results of Progressive Speed Trials in Typical Vessels

(Eng'g, April 15, 1882, p. 463.)

		Torpedo-boat.	Torpedo-gunner, "Sharp-shooter" Class.	"Medusa," 34-cl. Cruiser.	"Terpsichore," 24-cl. Cruiser.	"Belgian," 14-cl. Cruiser.	"Albatross," 14-cl. Cruiser.
Length (in feet).....		135	230	265	300	300	300
Breadth " ".....		14	27	41	43	60	60
Draught (mean) on trial.....		6' 1"	6' 3"	16' 6"	16' 2"	23' 9"	23' 9"
Displacement (tons).....		103	735	2800	3990	7320	7320
I.H.P.—10 knots.....		110	450	700	800	1000	1000
" 14 ".....		260	1100	2100	2400	3000	3000
" 18 ".....		870	2500	6100	6900	7700	7700
" 20 ".....		1190	3500	10000	9000	11000	11000
Speed	Ratio of speed ¹						
10	1.						
14	2.744	Ratio of H.P. =	1	1	1	1	1
18	5.832	" " =	2.36	2.44	3	3	3
20	8.	" " =	7.91	5.56	9.14	7.5	7.5
		" " =	10.27	7.78	14.14	11.25	11
Admiralty coeff.							
$C = \frac{D^5 \times S^3}{I.H.P.}$							
	10 knots.	200	181	254	279	280	280
	14 "	232	202	259	255	347	347
	18 "	147	190	181	217	235	235
	20 "	150	186	159	198	276	276

The figures for I.H.P. are "round." The "Medusa's" figures are from trial on Stokes Bay, and show the retarding effect of waves. The figures for the other ships for 20 knots are estimated for deep water.

More accurate methods than those above given for estimating horse-power required for any proposed ship are: 1. Estimations from the results of trials of "similar" vessels driven at "correct" speeds; "similar" vessels being those that have the same ratio of breadth and to draught, and the same coefficient of fineness, corresponding speeds those which are proportional to the square of the lengths of the respective vessels. Froude found that the resistance of such vessels varied almost exactly as wetted surface \times (speed)².

2. The method employed by the British Admiralty and by shipbuilders, viz., ascertaining the resistance of a model of the ship, 20 ft. long, in a tank, and calculating the power from the results.

Speed on Canals.—A great loss of speed occurs when a vessel passes from open water into a more or less restricted channel. The speed of vessels in the Suez Canal in 1882 was only 5/8 statute mile per hour.

Estimated Displacement, Horse-power, etc.—The next page, calculated by the author, will be found convenient for making approximate estimates.

The figures in 7th column are calculated by the formula $H.P. = \frac{D^5 \times S^3}{C}$, in which $c = 200$ for vessels under 200 ft. long when $C = .55$; when $C = .55$; $c = 300$ for vessels 200 to 400 ft. long when $C = .65$; $c = 400$ for vessels 400 to 600 ft. long when $C = .65$; $c = 500$ for vessels over 600 ft. long when $C = .65$; $c = 600$ when $C = .55$.

The figures in the 8th column are based on 5 H.P. per 100 sq. ft. surface.

The diameters of screw in the 9th column are from formula $D = 2.71 \sqrt[3]{\frac{H.P.}{R}}$, and in the 10th column from formula $D = 2.71 \sqrt[3]{\frac{H.P.}{R}}$.

To find the diameter of screw for any other speed than 10 knots, being 100 per minute, multiply the diameter given in the 9th column of the cube of the given speed $\div 10$. For any other revolution than 100, divide by the revolutions and multiply by 100.

To find the relative horse-power for any other speed, multiply the power given in the table by the cube of the relative figure from table on p. 1008.

ent, Horse-power, etc., of Steam-
s of Various Sizes.

Wetted Surface in Sq. Ft. (By Lap 1 1/2 in.)	Estimated Horse- power at 10 knots.		Diam. of Bore for 10 knots equal and 100 revs. per minute.	
	Calc. from Dis- placement.	Calc. from Wetted Surface.	If Pist. = 1 1/2 Diam.	If Pist. = 1 1/4 Diam.
48	4.3	2.4	4.4	3.8
64	5.2	3.2	4.6	4.0
80	6.0	4.0	5.1	4.2
100	8.0	4.8	5.7	4.3
130	10.3	6.0	5.3	4.1
160	12.5	7.2	5.5	4.5
180	13.6	7.6	5.4	4.4
200	14.5	8.4	5.9	4.7
220	15.1	11.8	5.7	5.2
240	16.2	11.2	6.3	5.4
260	17.3	11.8	6.4	5.8
280	18.4	12.9	7.1	5.7
300	19.5	13.1	7.0	6.2
320	20.6	13.9	7.6	6.1
340	21.7	14.1	7.5	6.6
360	22.8	15.1	8.1	6.5
380	23.9	15.2	7.9	7.0
400	24.9	16.4	8.5	6.8
420	26.0	17.4	9.2	7.3
440	27.1	18.3	9.9	6.9
460	28.2	19.2	8.4	7.8
480	29.3	20.1	8.9	7.8
500	30.4	21.0	9.6	7.2
520	31.5	21.9	8.8	7.6
540	32.6	22.8	9.4	8.9
560	33.7	23.7	10.1	7.4
580	34.8	24.6	9.2	8.0
600	35.9	25.5	10.5	8.5
620	37.0	26.4	9.6	7.8
640	38.1	27.3	10.1	8.3
660	39.2	28.2	10.8	8.8
680	40.3	29.1	10.1	8.2
700	41.4	30.0	10.6	8.7
720	42.5	30.9	11.3	9.2
740	43.6	31.8	10.1	8.2
760	44.7	32.7	10.8	8.8
780	45.8	33.6	11.6	9.6
800	46.9	34.5	10.9	8.9
820	48.0	35.4	11.9	9.7
840	49.1	36.3	12.8	10.5
860	50.2	37.2	11.7	9.6
880	51.3	38.1	12.6	10.4
900	52.4	39.0	13.6	11.1
920	53.5	40.0	12.5	10.2
940	54.6	40.9	13.5	11.0
960	55.7	41.8	14.4	11.8
980	56.8	42.7	13.3	10.8
1000	57.9	43.6	14.2	11.6
1020	59.0	44.5	15.2	12.4
1040	60.1	45.4	13.7	11.2
1060	61.2	46.3	14.5	11.9
1080	62.3	47.2	15.4	12.6
1100	63.4	48.1	14.2	11.6
1120	64.5	49.0	15.1	12.4
1140	65.6	49.9	15.9	13.2
1160	66.7	50.8	14.7	12.0
1180	67.8	51.7	15.5	12.8
1200	68.9	52.6	16.4	13.6
1220	70.0	53.5	15.1	12.4
1240	71.1	54.4	15.9	13.2
1260	72.2	55.3	16.8	14.0
1280	73.3	56.2	15.5	12.8
1300	74.4	57.1	16.4	13.6
1320	75.5	58.0	17.3	14.4
1340	76.6	58.9	16.1	13.2
1360	77.7	59.8	17.0	14.0
1380	78.8	60.7	17.9	14.8
1400	79.9	61.6	18.8	15.6
1420	81.0	62.5	17.6	14.4
1440	82.1	63.4	18.5	15.2
1460	83.2	64.3	19.4	16.0
1480	84.3	65.2	18.2	14.8
1500	85.4	66.1	19.1	15.6
1520	86.5	67.0	20.0	16.4
1540	87.6	67.9	18.8	15.2
1560	88.7	68.8	19.7	16.0
1580	89.8	69.7	20.6	16.8
1600	90.9	70.6	21.5	17.6
1620	92.0	71.5	20.3	16.4
1640	93.1	72.4	21.2	17.2
1660	94.2	73.3	22.1	18.0
1680	95.3	74.2	21.0	16.8
1700	96.4	75.1	21.9	17.6
1720	97.5	76.0	22.8	18.4
1740	98.6	76.9	23.7	19.2
1760	99.7	77.8	24.6	20.0
1780	100.8	78.7	25.5	20.8
1800	101.9	79.6	26.4	21.6
1820	103.0	80.5	27.3	22.4
1840	104.1	81.4	28.2	23.2
1860	105.2	82.3	29.1	24.0
1880	106.3	83.2	30.0	24.8
1900	107.4	84.1	30.9	25.6
1920	108.5	85.0	31.8	26.4
1940	109.6	85.9	32.7	27.2
1960	110.7	86.8	33.6	28.0
1980	111.8	87.7	34.5	28.8
2000	112.9	88.6	35.4	29.6
2020	114.0	89.5	36.3	30.4
2040	115.1	90.4	37.2	31.2
2060	116.2	91.3	38.1	32.0
2080	117.3	92.2	39.0	32.8
2100	118.4	93.1	40.0	33.6
2120	119.5	94.0	40.9	34.4
2140	120.6	94.9	41.8	35.2
2160	121.7	95.8	42.7	36.0
2180	122.8	96.7	43.6	36.8
2200	123.9	97.6	44.5	37.6
2220	125.0	98.5	45.4	38.4
2240	126.1	99.4	46.3	39.2
2260	127.2	100.3	47.2	40.0
2280	128.3	101.2	48.1	40.8
2300	129.4	102.1	49.0	41.6
2320	130.5	103.0	50.0	42.4
2340	131.6	103.9	50.9	43.2
2360	132.7	104.8	51.8	44.0
2380	133.8	105.7	52.7	44.8
2400	134.9	106.6	53.6	45.6
2420	136.0	107.5	54.5	46.4
2440	137.1	108.4	55.4	47.2
2460	138.2	109.3	56.3	48.0
2480	139.3	110.2	57.2	48.8
2500	140.4	111.1	58.1	49.6
2520	141.5	112.0	59.0	50.4
2540	142.6	112.9	60.0	51.2
2560	143.7	113.8	60.9	52.0
2580	144.8	114.7	61.8	52.8
2600	145.9	115.6	62.7	53.6
2620	147.0	116.5	63.6	54.4
2640	148.1	117.4	64.5	55.2
2660	149.2	118.3	65.4	56.0
2680	150.3	119.2	66.3	56.8
2700	151.4	120.1	67.2	57.6
2720	152.5	121.0	68.1	58.4
2740	153.6	121.9	69.0	59.2
2760	154.7	122.8	70.0	60.0
2780	155.8	123.7	70.9	60.8
2800	156.9	124.6	71.8	61.6
2820	158.0	125.5	72.7	62.4
2840	159.1	126.4	73.6	63.2
2860	160.2	127.3	74.5	64.0
2880	161.3	128.2	75.4	64.8
2900	162.4	129.1	76.3	65.6
2920	163.5	130.0	77.2	66.4
2940	164.6	130.9	78.1	67.2
2960	165.7	131.8	79.0	68.0
2980	166.8	132.7	80.0	68.8
3000	167.9	133.6	80.9	69.6

THE SCREW-PROPELLER.

The "pitch" of a propeller is the distance which any point in a blade, describing a helix, will travel in the direction of the axis during one revolution, the point being assumed to move around the axis. The pitch of a propeller with a uniform pitch is equal to the distance a propeller will advance during one revolution, provided there is no slip. In a case of this kind, the term "pitch" is analogous to the term "pitch of the thread" of an ordinary single-threaded screw.

Let P = pitch of screw in feet, R = number of revolutions per second, V = velocity of stream from the propeller = $P \times R$, v = velocity of the ship in feet per second, $V - v$ = slip, A = area in square feet of section of stream from the screw, approximately the area of a circle of the same diameter, $A \times V$ = volume of water projected astern from the ship in cubic feet per second. Taking the weight of a cubic foot of sea-water at 64 lbs., and the force of gravity at 32, we have from the common formula for force of acceleration, viz.: $F = M \frac{v_1}{t} = \frac{W}{g} \frac{v_1}{t}$, or $F = \frac{W}{g} v_1$, when $t = 1$ second, v_1 being the acceleration.

$$\text{Thrust of screw in pounds} = \frac{64AV}{32}(V - v) = 2AV(V - v).$$

Rankine (Rules, Tables, and Data, p. 275) gives the following: To calculate the thrust of a propelling instrument (jet, paddle, or screw) in pounds, multiply together the transverse sectional area, in square feet, of the stream driven astern by the propeller; the speed of the stream relatively to the ship in knots; the real slip, or part of that speed which is impressed on that stream by the propeller, also in knots; and the constant 5.66 for sea-water, or 5.5 for fresh water. If S = speed of the screw in knots, s = speed of ship in knots, A = area of the stream in square feet (of sea-water),

$$\text{Thrust in pounds} = A \times S(S - s) \times 5.66.$$

The real slip is the velocity (relative to water at rest) of the water projected sternward; the apparent slip is the difference between the speed of the ship and the speed of the screw; i.e., the product of the pitch of the screw by the number of revolutions.

This apparent slip is sometimes negative, due to the working of the screw in disturbed water which has a forward velocity, following the ship. Negative apparent slip is an indication that the propeller is not suited to the ship.

The apparent slip should generally be about 8% to 10% at full speed in well-formed vessels with moderately fine lines; in bluff cargo boats it rarely exceeds 5%.

The effective area of a screw is the sectional area of the stream of water laid hold of by the propeller, and is generally, if not always, greater than the actual area, in a ratio which in good ordinary examples is 1.2 or thereabouts, and is sometimes as high as 1.4; a fact probably due to the stiffness of the water, which communicates motion laterally amongst its particles (Rankine's Shipbuilding, p. 89.)

Prof. D. S. Jacobus, Trans. A. S. M. E., xl. 1025, found the ratio of the effective to the actual disk area of the screws of different vessels to be as follows:

Tug-boat, with ordinary true-pitch screw	1.0
" " screw having blades projecting backward	1.0
Ferryboat "Bergen," with or- at speed of 12.09 stat. miles per hour	1.2
" " ordinary true-pitch screw " " " " " "	1.4
Steamer "Homer Ramsdell," with ordinary true-pitch screw	1.2

Size of Screw.—Seaton says: The size of a screw depends on so many things that it is very difficult to lay down any rule for guidance, and must always be left to the experience of the designer, to allow for all the circumstances of each particular case. The following rules are given for ordinary cases. (Seaton and Rounthwaite's Pocket-book):

$$P = \text{pitch of propeller in feet} = \frac{10133S}{R(100 - x)}, \text{ in which } S = \text{speed in knots}$$

$$R = \text{revolutions per minute, and } x = \text{percentage of apparent slip.}$$

$$\text{For a slip of 10\%, pitch} = \frac{112.68}{R}.$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{\left(\frac{P \times R}{100}\right)^3}}, K \text{ being a coefficient given}$$

$$\text{If } K = 20, D = 20000 \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{(P \times R)^3}}$$

$$\text{is } C \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}, \text{ in which } C \text{ is a coefficient}$$

given in Seaton's Marine Engineering, is 737 for ordinary vessels, and 660 for slow-motors.

$$= \sqrt{\frac{d^3}{nb}} \times k, \text{ in which } d = \text{diameter of tail-}$$

blades. b = breadth of blade in inches where parallel to the shaft axis; $k = 4$ for cast iron, 1.5 for high-class bronze.

cast iron $.04D + .4$ in.; cast steel $.08D + .4$ in.; high-class bronze $.02D + .3$ in., where D = diameter

eller Coefficients.

Number of Screws.	Number of Blades per Screw.	Values of K.	Values of C.	Usual Mate- rial of Blades.
One	4	17 -17.5	19 -17.5	Cast iron
"	4	18 -19	17 -15.5	" "
"	4	19.5-20.5	15 -13	C. I. or S.
Twin	4	20.5-21.5	14.5-12.5	" "
One	4	21 -22	12.5-11	G. M. or B.
Twin	3	22 -23	10.5-9	" "
"	4	21 -22.5	11.5-10.5	" "
"	3	22 -23.5	8.5-7	" "
One	3	25	7-6	B. or F. S.

Cast iron; B., bronze; S., steel; F. S., forged steel.

$$\sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{(P \times R)^3}} \text{ and } P = \frac{737^3}{R} \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{D^3}}, \text{ if } P = D$$

$$\sqrt[3]{400 \times \text{I.H.P.}} = 3.31 \sqrt[3]{\text{I.H.P.}}$$

$$\text{in } D = \sqrt[3]{145.8 \times \text{I.H.P.}} = 2.71 \sqrt[3]{\text{I.H.P.}}$$

figures for diameter of screw in the table on p. 1. They may be used as rough approximations for any given horse-power, for a speed of 30 minutes.

Revolutions per minute, multiply the figures in the given number of revolutions. For any speed the I.H.P. varies approximately as the cube of the screw as the 5th root of the I.H.P., for 10 knots by the 5th root of the cube of one multiply by the following factors:

■ 9 11 12 13 14

.875 .939 1.050 1.116 1.170 1.224

Speed:	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
$\sqrt{s+10}$	1.375	1.428	1.470	1.515	1.561	1.606	1.648	1.691	1.733	1.774	1.815

For more accurate determinations of diameter and pitch of screw, formulae and coefficients given by Seaton, quoted above, should be used.

Efficiency of the Propeller.—According to Rankine, if the slip of the water be s , its weight W , the resistance R , and the speed of the ship

$$R = \frac{Ws}{g}; \quad Rv = \frac{Wsv}{g},$$

This impelling action must, to secure maximum efficiency of propeller, be effected by an instrument which takes hold of the fluid without shock or disturbance of the surrounding mass, and, by a steady acceleration, gives the required final velocity of discharge. The velocity of the propeller overcoming the resistance R would then be

$$\frac{v + (v + s)}{2} = v + \frac{s}{2};$$

and the work performed would be

$$R\left(v + \frac{s}{2}\right) = \frac{Wvs}{g} + \frac{Ws^2}{2g},$$

the first of the last two terms being useful, the second the minimum work; the latter being the wasted energy of the water thrown backward. The efficiency is

$$E = v + \left(v + \frac{s}{2}\right);$$

and this is the limit attainable with a perfect propelling instrument, when the limit is approached the more nearly as the conditions above prescribed are the more nearly fulfilled. The efficiency of the propelling instrument is probably rarely much above 0.60, and never above 0.80.

In designing the screw-propeller, as was shown by Dr. Froude, the angle for the surface is that of 45° with the plane of the disk; but as parts of the blade cannot be given the same angle, it should, where practicable, be so proportioned that the "pitch-angle at the centre of effect" should be made 45° . The maximum possible efficiency is then, according to Froude, 77%.

In order that the water should be taken on without shock and discharge with maximum backward velocity, the screw must have an axially increasing pitch.

The true screw is by far the more usual form of propeller, in all steam both merchant and naval. (Thurston, *Manual of the Steam-engine*, part p. 176.)

The combined efficiency of screw, shaft, engine, etc., is generally not at 50%. In some cases it may reach 60% or 65%. Rankine takes the effect H.P. to equal the I.H.P. + 1.63.

Pitch-ratio and Slip for Screws of Standard Form.

Pitch-ratio.	Real Slip of Screw.	Pitch-ratio.	Real Slip of Screw.
.8	15.55	1.7	21.3
.9	16.22	1.8	21.8
1.0	16.88	1.9	22.4
1.1	17.55	2.0	23.0
1.2	18.2	2.1	23.5
1.3	18.8	2.2	24.0
1.4	19.5	2.3	24.6
1.5	20.1	2.4	25.2
1.6	20.5	2.5	25.8

此碑在市中，今已不存。

of the old is that and is what may
be with a view of my good life and
home. The old is a good one, a good
in the world, the language for a good
life in the world.

...the
... ..
... ..
... ..

It is a great pleasure to have you here today.

GENERAL INDEX OF SUBJECTS

used for high-speed vehicles but when the
 it or even more may be advantageous

an ellipse having a major axis equal to

tees should increase from forward to aft, they remain when the slides are narrow. There should be a finger on the width of

Screw shaft produce vibration, and with
g outwards, if the shafts are inclined at
ends from the receivers.

screw-propellers. — F. C. Marshall, Proc. Inst. Institution of Naval Architects, 1886; of Naval Architects 1887; and S. W. Bar-
vol. cii.

be deduced from experiments on model screws practically equal in size throughout and in surface-ratio, so that great latitude in the form of the propeller. Another inducement to experiments is not a direct guide to propeller for a particular ship, they support the use of screws fitted to vessels, and are likely to be the best dimensions of screws if results are known. Thus a great addition of trial upon the ship itself, which is a very erroneous view respecting the (L. J. July, 1891)

ODLE-WHEEL.

Radial Floats. (Senon's Marine En-
gineer of a radial wheel is usually taken from
it is difficult to say what is absolutely
on the form of float, the amount of dip,
the wheel. The slip of a radial wheel is
on the size of float.

$$e_{\text{front}} = \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{D} \times C.$$

feet, and C is a multiplier, varying from light steamers.

ly about $\frac{1}{4}$ its length, and its thickness of floats varies directly with the diameter for every foot of diameter.

of the radial wheel, see Thurston, Manual

reels. (Seaton.)—The diam^{rs}
The amount of silk varies
are small or the reel-top

is as high as 35 per cent; a well-designed wheel on a well-formed hull will not exceed 15 per cent under ordinary circumstances.

If K is the speed of the ship in knots, S the percentage of slip, and R the revolutions per minute,

$$\text{Diameter of wheel at centres} = \frac{K(100 + S)}{3.14 \times R}.$$

The diameter, however, must be such as will suit the structure of the ship, so that a modification may be necessary on this account, the revolutions altered to suit it.

The diameter will also depend on the amount of "dip" or immersion of the float.

When a ship is working always in smooth water the immersion of the edge should not exceed $\frac{1}{10}$ the breadth of the float; and for general service at sea an immersion of $\frac{1}{10}$ the breadth of the float is sufficient. If a ship is intended to carry cargo, the immersion when light need not be more than 2 or 3 inches, and should not be more than the breadth of float when in deepest draught; indeed, the efficiency of the wheel falls off rapidly with the immersion of the wheel.

$$\text{Area of one float} = \frac{1 \cdot \text{H.P.}}{D} \times C.$$

C is a multiplier, varying from 0.3 to 0.35; D is the diameter of the wheel at the float centres, in feet.

- The number of floats = $\frac{1}{10}(D + 2)$.
- The breadth of the float = $0.35 \times$ the length.
- The thickness of floats = 1.12 the breadth.
- Diameter of gudgeons = thickness of float.

Seaton and Rounthwaite's Pocket-book gives:

$$\text{Number of floats} = \frac{60}{\sqrt{R}}.$$

where R is number of revolutions per minute.

$$\text{Area of one float (in square feet)} = \frac{1 \cdot \text{H.P.} \times 33000 \times E}{N \times (D \times R)^2},$$

where N = number of floats in one wheel.

For vessels plying always in smooth water $K = 1200$. For steamers $K = 1400$. For tugs and such craft as require to stop frequently in a tide-way $K = 1600$.

It will be quite accurate enough if the last four figures of $(D \times R)^2$ be taken as ciphers.

For illustrated description of the feathering paddle wheel see Marine Engineering, or Seaton and Rounthwaite's Pocket-book. The diameter of a feathering-wheel is about one half that of a radial wheel of the same efficiency. (Thurston.)

Efficiency of Paddle-wheels.—Computations by Prof. Rankine of the efficiency of propulsion by paddle-wheels give for light craft, with ratio of velocity of the vessel, v , to velocity of the paddle, V , or $\frac{v}{V} = \frac{3}{4}$, with a dip = $\frac{1}{10}$ the radius of the wheel, a slip of 25 per cent, an efficiency of .714; and for ocean steamers the same slip and ratio of $\frac{v}{V}$, and a dip = $\frac{1}{10}$ radius, an efficiency of .671.

JET-PROPULSION.

Numerous experiments have been made in driving a vessel by the reaction of a jet of water pumped through an orifice in the stern. They have all resulted in commercial failure. Two jet-propelled vessels, the "Waterwitch," 1100 tons, and the "Squirt," a small tug, were built by the British Government. The former was intended to give an efficiency of apparatus of only 18 per cent. The latter gave an efficiency of apparatus of 17 knots attained by a sister-ship having a screw propeller. The mathematical theory of the efficiency of jet-propulsion was given in *The Engineer*, Jan. 11, 1885, and has since been applied to the design of water operated on by a jet-propeller.

use both of the theory and of the results of earlier the opinions of many naval engineers, more than 400 in New York upon two experimental boats, the *Evolution*, in which the jet was made of very small July $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch diameter, and with a pressure of 2500 had been predicted, the vessel was a total failure. (In *Mechanics*, March, 1891.)

propeller is similar to that of the screw-propeller. in square feet, V its velocity with reference to the d , v = the velocity of the ship in reference to the the jet (see Screw-propeller, ante) is $2AV(V - v)$, the jet is $2AV(V - v)v$, and the work wasted on the the jet is $\frac{1}{2} \times 2AV(V - v)^2$. The efficiency is

$\frac{2v}{V + v}$. This expression equals unity when

velocity of the jet with reference to the earth, or thrust of the propeller is also 0. The greater the with v , the less the efficiency. For $V = 30v$, as was for," the efficiency of the jet would be less than 10 be further reduced by the friction of the pumping ater in pipes.

propulsion may be summed up in Rankine's words: best, other things being equal, which drives astern r at the lowest velocity."

able to devise any system of hydraulic or jet propul- favorably, under these conditions, with the screw

1. - If a jet of water issues horizontally from a ves- side of the vessel opposite the orifice is equal to the water the section of which is the area of the orifice, the head.

a jet-propulsion is the reaction of the stream issuing it is the same whether the jet is discharged under or against a solid wall. For proof, see account of Jr., given by Prof. J. Burkitt Webb, Trans. A. S. M.

PRACTICE IN MARINE ENGINES.

, Blochyn den on Marine Engineering during the past decade, Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1891.)

stage-expansion engine has become the rule, and the en increased to 160 lbs. and even as high as 200 lbs. per age-expansion engines of various forms have also been

It has become the rule in all vessels for naval service, common in both passenger and cargo vessels. By this considerably to augment the power obtained from a ong as it is kept within certain limits it need result in , but when pushed too far the increase is sometimes able cost

mony of forced draught, an examination of the ap- 8) will show that while the mean consumption of coal king under natural draught is 1.573 lbs. per indicated

It is only 1.390 lbs. in those fitted with forced draught, n economy of 12%. Part of this economy, however, other heat-saving appliances with which the latter

aterial for boilers, iron is now a thing of the past, ble that it will continue yet awhile to be the material a can be procured at 132 square feet superficial area For purely boiler work a punching-mach' re-engine work.

res of steam have also caused attention e led to the adoption of various artifices ed spiral flues, with the object of gi e without abnormally increasing th e-plate is viewed by many engine

added to each pound of the feed-water would be 1005 units against 1123 units expenditure of only 89.45 of the heat as the expenditure of heat in relation to equivalent to a heat economy of 3.6% from the low-pressure receiver, the

Fitted with Twin Screws.

Beam.	Cylinders, two sets in all.		Boiler-pressure per sq. in.	Indicated Horse-power
	Diameters.	Stro.		
Feet	Inches	In.	Lbs.	I.H.P.
68½	45, 71, 113	60	150	20,000
58	43, 69, 110	60	180	18,000
57½	40, 67, 106	66	160	11,500
55½	41, 66, 101	66	160	12,500
50	32, 51, 82	54	160	10,125
48	34, 54, 85	51	160	10,000
40	34½, 57½, 92	60	150	11,000

of Working of Marine Engines, 1881, and 1891.

Coal.	1872.	1881.	1891.
	52.4	77.4	158.5
er, sq. ft.	4.410	3.917	3.275
	55.67	59.76	63.75
	376	407	529
r, lbs.	2.110	1.838	1.522

ge - expansion Engines in Nine to Indicated Horse-power and %.

Relative Weight of Machinery.					Type of Machinery.
Indicated Horse-power.		Engine-room per cu. ft. of Cylinder capacity.	Boiler-room per 100 sq. ft. of Heating surface.		
no.	Boiler-room.			Total	
6	lbs.	lbs.	tons.	tons.	Mercantile
	220	446	1.30	3.75	
	251	510	1.46	4.10	
	108	405	1.23	3.33	
	203	373	1.24	3.30	
	162	329	1.41	3.44	
	202	348	1.87	3.37	
	109	195	1.21		
5	116	194	1.11		
	102	165	0.82		

**ed Horse - power, and Cylinder -
stage - expansion Engines in Nine**

Horse	Revolutions per minute.	Boiler- pressure per sq. in.	Indicated Horse-power.	Cylinder- capacity.	Heating-sur- face.	
					Total.	Per I.H.P.
sq. ft.	revs.	lbs.	I.H.P.	cu. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.
2	64.5	160	6751	522	17,640	2.62
6	67.8	160	5525	436	15,107	2.73
12	83	160	1150	109	8,373	2.78
14	90	150	510	30	1,403	2.75
16	88	160	9625	508	20,193	2.10
17	113	150	1194	55	3,200	2.68
18	191	145	1265	56.3	2,227	1.76
19	182.5	110	2105	66.2	3,928	1.87
20	145	150	9400	319	15,882	1.62

CTION OF BUILDINGS.*

ing Laws of the City of New York, 1868.)

en, Stores, Factories, and Stables.—
en walls, not less than 12 in. to height of 40 ft.;
less than 16 in. to 40 ft., and 12 in. thence to top;
" " 20 " 25 " 16 " "
" " 24 " 20 ft.; 20 in. to 60 ft., and 16 in.

less than 28 in. to 25 ft.; 24 in. to 50 ft.; 20 in.

additional 25 ft. in height, or part thereof, next
e increased 4 inches in thickness, the upper 100
e as specified for a wall of that weight.

part, the bearing-walls shall be 4 inches thicker
ry 12½ feet or fraction thereof that said walls

loors, Roofs, and Supports.

Floors calculated to bear
safely per sq. ft., in addition
to their own weight.

it, apartment-house or hotel, not

less than	70 lbs.
ilding, not less than	100 "
ehouse, etc., not less than	120 "
ess than	150 "
	50 "

icient strength to bear safely the weight to be
n to the weight of the materials of which the

—The strength of all columns and posts shall
ordon's formulae, and the crushing weights in
if section, for the following-named materials,
ents in said formulae, namely: Cast iron, 80,000;

forbid any extended treatment of this subject.
upon it will be found in Trautwine's Civil Engi-
adder's Architect's and Builder's Pocket book.
Hous the following works of reference: "Notes
vols, Rivingtons, publishers, Boston; "Building
Clark & R. Osgood & Co., Boston; "The
" by R. G. Hatfield; "Graphical Analysis of
Greene; "The Fire Protection of Mills," L.
Drainage and Water Service," by Jam
le and Estimator's Price book," and "I
by Fred T. Hodgson; "Foundations in
ilding," by E. Dobson, Weale's Series, 1

wrought or rolled iron, 40,000; rolled steel, 48,000; white pine and 8,500; pitch or Georgia pine, 5,000; American oak, 6,000. The bearing of wooden beams and girders shall be computed according to the in which the constants for transverse strains for central load shall follows, namely: Hemlock, 400; white pine, 450; spruce, 470; pitch pine, 550; American oak, 550; and for wooden beams and girders under uniformly distributed load the constants will be doubled. The safety shall be as one to four for all beams, girders, and other parts to a transverse strain; as one to four for all posts, columns, and vertical supports when of wrought iron or rolled steel; as one to five for other materials, subject to a compressive strain; as one to six for rods, tie-beams, and other pieces subject to a tensile strain. The natural earth shall be deemed to safely sustain a load of four to superficial foot, or as otherwise determined by the superintendent of the building, and the width of footing-courses shall be at least sufficient to the requirement. In computing the width of walls, a cubic foot of earth shall be deemed to weigh 115 lbs. Sandstone, white marble, and other kinds of building-stone shall be deemed to weigh 150 lbs. per cubic foot. The safe-bearing load to apply to good brickwork shall be taken as 1,000 lbs. per superficial foot when good lime mortar is used, 1,250 lbs. per superficial foot when good lime and cement mortar mixed is used, and 1,500 lbs. per superficial foot when good cement mortar is used.

Fire-proof Buildings.—Iron and Steel Columns.—All iron, wrought-iron, or rolled-steel columns shall be made true and straight at both ends, and shall rest on iron or steel bed plates, and be secured by steel cap-plates, which shall also be made true. All iron or steel columns, beams, headers, and tail-beams shall be suitably framed and connected together, and the iron girders, columns, beams, trusses, and all other parts of all floors and roofs shall be strapped, bolted, anchored, and connected together, and to the walls, in a strong and substantial manner. Where beams are framed into headers, the angle irons, which are bolted to the ends of the beams, shall have at least two bolts for all beams over 7 inches in depth, and three bolts for all beams 12 inches and over in depth, and these bolts shall be not less than $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in diameter. Each one of such angle-iron knees, or to girders, shall have the same number of bolts as stated for the beams. The angle-iron in no case shall be less in thickness than the header to which it is bolted, and the width of angle in no case shall be more than one third the depth of beam, excepting that an angle-iron knee shall be $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, nor required to be more than 6 inches wide. All iron or rolled-steel beams 8 inches deep and under shall have a bearing to their depth, if resting on a wall; 9 to 12 inch beams shall have a bearing of 10 inches, and all beams more than 12 inches in depth shall have a bearing of not less than 12 inches if resting on a wall. Where beams are supported, and are properly tied to the same, no greater bearing is required than one third of the depth of the beams. Iron or steel beams shall be so arranged as to spacing and length of beams that they supported by them, together with the weights of the materials in the construction of the said floors, shall not cause a deflection of the beams of more than 1.30 of an inch per linear foot of span; and they shall be joined together at intervals of not more than eight times the depth of the beams.

Under the ends of all iron or steel beams, where they rest on stone or cast iron template shall be built into the walls. Such caps shall be 8 inches wide in 12 inch walls, and in all walls of greater thickness the template shall be 12 inches wide; and such templates, if of stone or brick, shall in any case less than 34 inches in thickness, and no template shall be less than 12 inches long.

No cast iron post or column shall be used in any building of a thickness of shaft than three quarters of an inch, nor shall it be supported length of more than twenty times its least lateral diameter. No wrought iron or rolled steel column shall have an length of more than thirty times its least lateral dimension, or shall its metal be less than one fourth of an inch in thickness.

Lintels, Bearings and Supports.—All iron or steel lintels, bearings, and supports shall be made true and straight, and shall be of a strength proportionate to the weight to be imposed. They shall be of a length of more than twenty times its least lateral diameter, and shall be 12 inches at each end, if resting on a wall, but if not resting on a wall, they shall have a bearing of at least 6 inches on each side of the wall to be supported.

Girders and Rivets.—Rolled iron or steel

girders used as lintels or as girders, shall be so proportioned that the loads shall produce strains in tension or compression of less than 12,000 lbs. for iron, nor more than $\frac{1}{8}$ of the gross section of each of such bolts or plates of more than 6000 lbs. per square inch, if of iron, nor more than 7000 lbs. per square inch, if of steel. The bolts shall be not less than $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in diameter, and shall be not less than $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter, inches apart in any case. They shall be so placed that the loads shall not exceed 9000 lbs. per square inch by the thickness of the plates through the girders. The strains shall be proportioned upon the bolts so that the strains are resisted entirely by the bolts. The shearing strains are resisted entirely by the bolts. The bolts shall be estimated as flange area, nor shall the angle-iron which lies against the flange of gravity of the flange areas will resist the girder.

New York contain a great amount of details, and penalties are provided for violation of Buildings, etc., Chapter 25, published by Baker, Voorhies & Co., New

LOAD ON FLOORS.

Maximum load per square foot of floor space crowded. Considerable variation is shown by authorities, as the following table

	Weight of Crowd, lbs. per sq. ft.
Store and Storey	41
Office	70
Warehouse	84
Day bridges according to	
Palmer	110
Palmer	120
at Melbourne	120
On Stresses, "p. 317"	145 1
by crowding a number of persons pre-	147.4
the men being tightly packed so as to	
occur on the stairways and platforms	

OF FLOORS.

Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance Co.)
by C. J. H. Woodbury, for determining
observed to select the figure giving the
distribution of load as the one which may
be used; and in no case should beams be
used specified, unless a lower factor of
safety of a competent engineer.

For or heavy timbers are made use of in
construction, they should not be painted, var-
nished, or covered with any material, as
fermentation should destroy them by

For beams in two parts, with a small
perforation may be secured, even if the
load is split.

Beams, but the first can be used in respect
that loads by using half the figure given
above as much load when evenly distrib-
uted load was concentrated in the center.

Assumed from the figure given in
all which may be placed upon any
load 30 lbs. per square foot, and 10

Southern-pine beams. From this should be deducted the weight of the beams, which would amount to 17½ lbs. per square foot, leaving 115 lbs. per square foot as a safe load to be carried upon such a floor. If the floor is of spruce, the result of 147½ lbs. would be multiplied by 0.78, and the result would be 115 lbs. The weight of the floor, in this instance, would leave the safe net load as 90 lbs. per square foot for the beams.

Table II applies to the design of floors whose strength is of that necessary to sustain the weight, in order to meet the weight of delicate or rapidly moving machinery, to the end that the torsion of the floor may be reduced to the least practicable.

In the table the limit is that of load which would cause beams to a curve of which the average radius would be 125 feet.

This table is based upon a modulus of elasticity obtained from tests upon the deflection of loaded storehouse floors, and is for 115 lbs. for Southern pine; the same table can be applied to other woods, if the modulus of elasticity is taken as 1,200,000 lbs., if six tenths of the modulus of Southern pine is taken as the proper load for spruce; or, in designing, the load should be increased one and two thirds the dimension of timbers for this increased load as found in the table used for spruce.

It can also be applied to beams and floor-timbers which are supported at each end and in the middle, remembering that the deflection of a beam supported in that manner is only four tenths that of a beam supported at each end; that is to say, the floor-planks are only four tenths as stiff, but two bays in length, as they would be if supported at each end. When a floor-plank two bays in length is supported at each end and in the middle, the deflection is three sixteenths of the load on the plank is sustained by the beam at each end of the plank, and ten sixteenths by the beam under the middle of the plank; so that for a completed floor three eighths of the load is sustained by the beams under the joints of the plank, and five eighths by the beams under the middle of the plank; this is the resistance of breaking joints in a floor-plank every three feet. If a beam shall receive an identical load. If it were not so, the whole load upon the floor would be sustained by every other beam, and the beams under the middle of the plank would receive one eighth of the load by the corresponding alternate beams.

Repeating the former example for the load on a mill floor of pine beams 10 x 14 inches, and 30 feet span, laid 8 feet on center, a 1 x 14 inch beam should receive 61 lbs. per foot of span, or 17½ lbs. per sq. ft. of floor, for Southern-pine beams. Deducting the weight of the beams, 17½ lbs. per sq. ft., leaves 57 lbs. per sq. ft. as the advisable load.

If the beams are of spruce, the result of 75 lbs. should be

Loads upon Southern-pine Beams
(Inch in Width.)

(J. H. Woodbury.)

At the centre of the span, the beams will sustain the loads in the table.)

Depth of Beam in inches.

7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

in pounds per foot of Span.

170	614	778	960						
247	427	540	647	807					
340	314	397	490	593	705	828			
444	240	304	375	454	540	634	735		
465	190	240	296	359	427	501	581		
478	151	194	240	290	346	406	470	540	614
497	127	161	198	240	289	335	389	446	504
522	107	135	167	202	240	282	327	375	474
570	90	115	142	172	205	240	278	320	364
600	78	99	123	148	176	207	240	276	314
632	68	89	107	129	154	180	209	240	273
644	60	76	94	113	135	158	184	211	240
641	53	67	83	101	120	140	163	187	217
646	47	60	74	90	107	125	145	167	190
644	43	54	66	80	96	112	130	150	170
644	38	49	60	73	86	101	118	135	154
644	34	44	54	66	78	92	107	122	139
644	30	40	50	60	71	84	97	112	127
644	27	37	45	55	65	77	89	102	116
644	24	34	42	50	60	70	82	94	107
644	21	31	39	47	56	65	75	86	98

Loads upon Southern-pine Beams
Standard Limit of Deflection.

(J. H. Woodbury.)

Depth of Beam in inches.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

in pounds per foot of Span.

182	259								(694)
126	180	247							0432
93	132	181	241						0588
71	101	139	185	240	305				0768
56	80	110	146	190	241	301			0972
46	65	89	118	154	195	244	300		1200
38	54	73	98	127	161	202	248	301	1462
32	45	62	82	107	136	169	208	253	1728
27	38	53	70	91	116	144	178	215	2028
23	33	45	60	78	100	124	153	186	2352
20	29	40	53	68	87	108	133	162	2700
18	25	35	46	60	76	92	117	147	3072
16	22	31	41	53	68	84	104	126	3468
14	20	27	37	47	60	75	93	112	3888
12	18	25	33	43	54	68	85	101	4332
10	16	22	30	38	49	61	75	91	4800
8	14	20	27	35	44	55	68	83	5280
6	12	18	24	32	40	50	62	75	5760
4	10	16	22	29	37	46	57	69	6240
2	8	14	20	27	34	42	52	63	6720
1	7	12	18	25	31	39	48	59	7200

A dyne is that force which, acting on a mass of one gramme, will give it a velocity of one centimetre per second. One gramme in latitude 45° to 45° is about 980 dynes, at the equator nearly 981 dynes. Taking the value of g due to gravity, in British measures at 32.185 feet per second, metre = 39.37 inches, we have

$$1 \text{ gramme} = 32.185 \times 12 \times .3048 = 981.00 \text{ dynes}$$

$$\text{Unit of work} = 1 \text{ erg} = 1 \text{ dyne-centimetre} = .000000737$$

$$\text{Unit of power} = 1 \text{ watt} = 10 \text{ million ergs per second,}$$

$$= .7373 \text{ foot-pound per second,}$$

$$= \frac{.7373}{550} = \frac{1}{736} \text{ of 1 horse-power}$$

C.G.S. Unit of magnetism = the quantity which attracts an equal quantity at a centimetre's distance with the force of 1 dyne.

C.G.S. Unit of electrical current = the current which, the length of 1 centimetre of wire, acts with a force of 1 dyne magnetism distant 1 centimetre from every point of the wire. The commercial unit of current, is one tenth of the C.G.S. unit.

The Practical Units used in Electrical Calculation

Ampere, the unit of current strength, or rate of flow, represented by A .

Volt, the unit of electro-motive force, electrical pressure or potential, represented by E .

Ohm, the unit of resistance, represented by R .

Coulomb (or ampere-second), the unit of quantity, Q .

Ampere-hour = 3600 coulombs, Q' .

Watt (ampere-volt, or volt-ampere), the unit of power, P .

Joule (volt-coulomb), the unit of energy or work, W .

Farad, the unit of capacity, represented by K .

Henry, the unit of induction, represented by L .

Using letters to represent the units, the relations between them are expressed by the following formulæ, in which t represents T one hour:

$$C = \frac{E}{R}, \quad Q = Ct, \quad Q' = CT, \quad K = \frac{Q}{E}, \quad W = QE,$$

As these relations contain no equivalent other than unity,

Equivalent Values of Electrical and Mechanical Units.

Unit,	Equivalent Value in Other Units.	Unit.	Equivalent Value in Other Units.
$\frac{1}{\text{K. W. Hour}}$	1,000 watt-hours.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	746 watts.
	2,654,300 ft.-lbs. per hour.		38,000 ft.-lbs. per minute.
	3,600,000 joules.		560 ft.-lbs. per second.
	3,412 heat-units.		2,545 heat-units per hour.
$\frac{1}{\text{K. W. Hour}}$	367,000 kilogram metres.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	42 heat-units per minute.
	.255 lb. carbon oxidized with perfect efficiency.		.75 lbs. carbon oxidized per hour.
	3.53 lbs. water evap. from and at 212° F.		.175 lbs. carbon oxidized per hour.
	22.75 lbs. of water raised from 32° to 212° F.		2.64 lbs. water evap. per hour from and at 212° F.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	746 K. W. hours.	$\frac{1}{\text{Joule}}$	1 watt second.
	1,980,000 ft.-lbs.		.00000278 K. W. hour.
	2,545 heat-units.		.102 K. F. m.
	273,740 K. F. m.		.0009477 heat-units.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$.175 lb. carbon oxidized with perfect efficiency.	$\frac{1}{\text{Ft.-lb.}}$.7373 ft.-lb.
	2.64 lbs. water evaporated from and at 212° F.		1.356 joules.
	17.6 lbs. water raised from 32° F. to 212° F.		.1383 K. F. m.
			.00000077 K. W. hours.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	1,000 watts.	$\frac{1}{\text{Watt}}$.0000005 H. P. hour.
	2,654,300 ft.-lbs. per hour.		1 joule per second.
	44,340 ft.-lbs. per minute.		.00134 H. P.
	3,412 heat-units per hour.		3.412 heat-units per hour.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	737 ft.-lbs. per second.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$.008 lbs. water evap. per hr.
	3,412 heat-units per hour.		44.34 ft.-lbs. per minute.
	56.9 heat-units per minute.		
	948 heat-units per second.		
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	1,000 watt seconds.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	14,344 heat-units.
	778 ft.-lbs.		1 lb. Anthracite coal ox.
	107 kilogram metres.		2.5 lbs. dry wood oxidized.
	.000263 K. W. hour.		21 cu. ft. illuminating gas.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$.000094 H. P. hour.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	4.36 K. W. hours.
	.000094 lbs. carbon oxidized.		5.71 H. P. hours.
	.000094 lbs. water evap. from and at 212° F.		11,315,000 ft.-lbs.
	.122 watts per square in.		15 lbs. of water evap. from and at 212° F.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$.015 K. W. per sq. ft.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$.583 K. W. hour.
	.0230 H. P. per sq. ft.		379 H. P. hour.
			.0000005 H. P. hour.
			.0000005 K. W. hour.
$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	7.233 ft.-lbs.	$\frac{1}{\text{H.P.}}$	100,000 ft.-lbs.
	.0000005 H. P. hour.		1,000,000 ft.-lbs.
	.0000005 K. W. hour.		
	.0000005 heat-units.		

high a resistance of one ohm when the electro-motive force required to cause a current to flow through a resistance of one ohm.

Circuit. (See Electro-magnets, page 1059.)
Electrical Measurements, Test-
 imeson's Pocket-Book of Electrical Rules,
 son's Dynamo-Electric Machinery; and works

and Mechanical Units.—H. Ward
Practical Engineer, Feb. 25, 1865, a table of use-
 ful mechanical units, from which the table on
 modifications.

IN THE FLOW OF WATER AND ELECTRICITY.

ELECTRICITY.

V. Volts; electro-motive force; differ-
ence of potential or of pressure; E.
or E.M.F.

Ohms, resistance, R. The resistance
 increases directly as the length of
 the conductor or wire and inversely
 as its sectional area, $R \propto l + s$.
 It varies with the nature or quality
 of the conductor.

Conductivity is the reciprocal of spe-
cific resistance.

Amperes; current; current strength;
intensity of current; rate of flow; 1
ampere = 1 coulomb per second.

$$\text{Amperes} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{ohms}}; \quad C = \frac{E}{R}; \quad E = CR.$$

Coulomb, unit of quantity, Q, = rate
 of flow \times time, as ampere-seconds.
 1 ampere-hour = 3600 coulombs.

Joule, volt-coulomb, W, the unit of
 work, = product of quantity by the
 electro-motive force = volt-ampere-
 second. 1 joule = .7373 foot-pound.
 If C (amperes) = rate of flow, and
 E (volts) = difference of pressure
 between two points in a circuit,
 energy expended = CEt , = C^2Rt ,
 since $E = CR$.

Watt, unit of power, P, = volts \times
 amperes, = current or rate of flow
 \times difference of potential.
 1 watt = .7373 foot-pound per second
 = 1/746 of a horse-power.

Ampere and the Miner's Inch.
 The miner's inch is defined as the quantity of water
 that will flow through an inch square in a board two inches
 thick, six inches long. Here, as in the case of the am-
 pere, any abstract quantity, such as gallons or
 feet, to time. It is simply a rate of flow. We
 take, six inches, as the representative of electri-
 cal aperture restricting the flow of water; any
 resistance of one ohm; the flow through a re-
 sistance of one volt is one ampere.
 The miner's inch is a hole two inches long and
 one inch wide. The correct analogue of the am-
 pere of water, 0.194 gallon; the
 miner's inch.

ELECTRICAL RESISTANCE.

Law of Electrical Resistance.—The resistance, R , of any wire varies directly as its length, l , and inversely as its sectional area, a .

Example.—If one foot of copper wire .01 in diameter has a resistance of .0001 ohm, what will be the resistance of a mile of wire .3 in diam. and of the same material? The sectional areas being proportional to the squares of the diameters, the ratio of the areas is $.01^2 : .3^2 = 1 : 900$. The lengths are as 1 : 5280. The resistances being directly as the lengths and inversely as the sectional areas, the resistance of the second wire is $.0001 \times 5280 \times 900 = 49.248$ ohms.

Conductance, c , is the inverse of resistance. $R = \frac{l}{ac}$, $c = \frac{1}{R}$. If c_1 and c_2 represent the conductances, and R_1 and R_2 the respective resistance of two conductors of the same length l and sections a_1 and a_2 , $R_1 = \frac{l}{a_1 c_1}$, $R_2 = \frac{l}{a_2 c_2}$. If c_1 and c_2 are the conductances, and a_1 and a_2 the sectional areas, we have the same resistance

if $\frac{c_1}{a_1} = \frac{c_2}{a_2}$. This may be substituted for the other since $\frac{1}{c} = \frac{l}{Ra}$.

The specific resistance, also called resistivity, ρ , of a material of unit length and section is its resistance as compared with the resistance of a standard conductor, such as pure copper. Conductivity, or specific conductance, is the reciprocal of resistivity.

$$R = \frac{l}{ac}, \quad R = \frac{\rho l}{a}$$

If two wires have lengths l_1, l_2 , areas a_1, a_2 , and specific resistances ρ_1, ρ_2 , their

resistances are $R = \frac{\rho l}{a}$, $R_1 = \frac{\rho_1 l_1}{a_1}$, and $\frac{R}{R_1} = \frac{\rho_1 l_1}{\rho_2 l_2}$.

Electrical Conductivity of Different Metals and Alloys.

The following table is based on the results of the International Electrical Congress, 1893, and is upon the relative electrical conductivity of various metals and alloys, as here appended:

1. Pure silver	100	17. Phosphor tin	17
2. Pure copper	100	18. Alloy of gold and silver	17.5
3. Annealed and crystallized copper	95.5	19. Swedish iron	25.5
4. Pure zinc	35.5	20. Pure German silver	25.5
5. Pure tin	25.5	21. Antimonial copper	17.5
6. Pure lead	25.5	22. Aluminum	25.5
7. Pure iron	25.5	23. Stainless steel	25.5
8. Pure nickel	25.5	24. Pure platinum	25.5
9. Pure cobalt	25.5	25. Copper with 10% of nickel	10.5
10. Pure manganese	25.5	26. Cadmium amalgam	10.5
11. Pure cadmium	25.5	27. Bismuth-mercurial bronze	10.5
12. Pure antimony	25.5	28. Arsenical copper	10.5
13. Pure bismuth	25.5	29. Pure lead	10.5
14. Pure tin	25.5	30. Bronze with 80% of tin	10.5
15. Pure silver	25.5	31. Pure nickel	10.5
16. Pure copper	25.5	32. Phosphor bronze, 10% tin	10.5
17. Phosphor-copper, 5% phosphorus	25.5	33. Phosphor-copper, 5% phosphorus	10.5
18. Antimony	25.5	34. Antimony	10.5

THESE RESISTANCES MAY BE REDUCED TO OHMS ON THE BASIS OF THE RESISTANCE OF PURE COPPER IN WATER AT A TEMPERATURE OF 68° F. BY MULTIPLYING BY THE FACTOR OF 1.75 IN THE FOLLOWING TABLE.

Resistance of Different Metals at 0° and 32° C. (Matthiessen.)

Resistivities.	Metals.	Conductivities.	
		At 0° C. " 32° F.	At 100° C. " 212° F.
71.58	Tin	12.86	8.87
50.27	Lead	18.88	5.86
55.90	Arsenic	4.76	3.33
50.67	Antimony	4.62	3.26
16.77	Mercury, pure	1.60
.....	Bismuth	1.945	0.873

Insulators in Order of their Value.

Insulators (Non-conductors).	
Dry Air	Ebonite
Shellac	Gutta-percha
Paraffin	India-rubber
Amber	Silk
Resins	Dry Paper
Sulphur	Parchment
Wax	Dry Leather
Jet	Porcelain
Glass	Oils
Mica	

resistance of distilled water is 6754 million times

with Temperature.—For every degree Centigrade the resistance of copper increases about 0.4%, or for every degree Fahrenheit the resistance of copper wire having a resistance of 10 ohms at 32° F. is 11.11 ohms at 82° F.

the amount of resistance of a few substances for comparative purposes by which 1 ohm is increased by a rise of 1° C.

Rise of R. of 1 Ohm when Heated—

° F.	° C.
..... .00013	.00031
..... .00018	.00031
below) . . .00024	.00044
..... .00036	.00065
..... .00044	.00080
..... .00222	.00400

degree of hardness or softness of a metal or alloy is lessened by annealing. Matthiessen's conductivities for copper and silver, the comparative silver at 100° C.:

Temp. C.	Hard.	Annealed.
..... 11°	95.31	97.83
..... 14.6°	95.36	103.33

the conductivities of copper, silver, and brass with the following results:

	Hard.	Annealed.
.....	52.207	55.253
.....	50.252	64.340
.....	11.439	13.502

Electrical Congress, 1893, p. 179) says it depends on its composition. Matthiessen, per. with a temperature coefficient of 0.004, has found copper-nickel-zinc alloy

(silver) which had a resistance of nearly 38 times that of copper, and a temperature coefficient of about one half that given by Matthiessen. He and Fessenden (Proc. Elec. Cong., p. 146) find that copper has a temperature coefficient of 0.400% per degree C., between the limits 250° C.

Standard of Resistance of Copper Wire. (Trans. A. I. E. E., Sept. and Nov. 1890).—Matthiessen's standard is: A hard-drawn copper wire 1 metre long, weighing 1 gramme has a resistance of 0.140 B.A. unit at 0° C. (1 B.A. unit = 0.9889 legal ohm = 0.9889 international ohm). Hence of hard copper = 1.0236 times that of soft copper. Relative conductivity (Matthiessen): silver, 100; hard or unannealed copper, 98.2; annealed copper, 102.21. Conductivity of copper at other temperatures

$$C_t = C_0(1 - .00387t + .00000909t^2).$$

The resistance is the reciprocal of the conductivity, and is

$$R_t = R_0(1 + .00387t + .0000597t^2).$$

A committee of the Am. Inst. Electrical Engineers recommend the following as the most correct form of the Matthiessen standard, taking 1 sp. gr. of pure copper:

A soft copper wire 1 metre long and 1 mm. diam. has an electrical resistance of .02067 B.A. unit at 0° C. From this the resistance of a wire 1 foot long and .001 in. diam. (mil-foot) is found to be 9.720 at 0° C.

Standard Resistance at 0° C.	B.A. Units.	Legal Ohms.
Metre-millimetre, soft copper.....	.02067	.02024
Cubio centimetre " ".....	.000001616	.000001598
Mil-foot " ".....	9.720	9.612
1 mil-foot, of soft copper at 10° 22 C. or 50° 4 F....	10	10
" " " " " " 15° 5 " 59° 9 F....	10.20	10.20
" " " " " " 23° 9 " 75° F....	10.53	10.53

For tables of the resistance of copper wire, see pages 218 to 220, pp. 1694, 1695.

Taking Matthiessen's standard of pure copper as 100%, some relations have exhibited an electrical conductivity equivalent to 103%.

Matthiessen found that impurities in copper sufficient to decrease density from 8.94 to 8.90 produced a marked increase of electrical

ELECTRIC CURRENTS.

Ohm's Law.—This law expresses the relation between the fundamental units of resistance, electrical pressure, and current. It is

$$\text{Current} = \frac{\text{electrical pressure}}{\text{resistance}}; \quad C = \frac{E}{R}; \quad \text{whence } E = CR, \text{ and}$$

In terms of the units of the three quantities,

$$\text{Amperes} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{ohms}}; \quad \text{volts} = \text{amperes} \times \text{ohms}; \quad \text{ohms} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{amperes}}$$

EXAMPLES; Simple Circuits.—1. If the source has an effective electrical pressure of 100 volts, and the resistance is two ohms, what is the current?

$$C = \frac{E}{R} = \frac{100}{2} = 50 \text{ amperes.}$$

2. What pressure will give a current of 50 amperes through a resistance of 2 ohms? $E = CR = 50 \times 2 = 100 \text{ volts.}$

3. What resistance is required to obtain a current of 50 amperes from a source of 100 volts? $R = \frac{E}{C} = \frac{100}{50} = 2 \text{ ohms.}$

The following examples are from R. E. Day's "Electric Light and Power." 1. The internal resistance of a certain Brush dynamo-machine is 73 ohms; the external resistance is 73 ohms; the electro-motive force of the machine being 839 volts. Find the strength of the current flowing in the circuit.

$$E = 839; \quad R = 73 + 73 = 146 \text{ ohms;}$$

$$C = E \div R = 839 \div 146 = 5.75 \text{ amperes.}$$

a resistance of 0.36 ohms, while the resistance of the dynamo is 2.6 ohms. What was the electro-motive force of the machine when the strength of the current was 21 amperes?

18.26 ohms; $C = 14.8$ amperes;

$E = 106.3$ volts.

Find the average resistance of each of the lamps. The electro-motive force of the machine was 129.1 volts, while that of the leading wires is 2 volts, and the current through each lamp is 21 amperes.

Find the resistance in ohms of each lamp, then the total resistance of the circuit.

$2 + 3.7 = 5.7$ ohms; $21 \times 5.7 = 119.7$ volts, whence

the resistance of each lamp was 39.8 ohms. The average resistance of the circuit was 39.8 ohms, and that of the dynamo was 2.6 ohms. What was the electro-motive force of the machine when the current was 21 amperes?

$129.1 + 11.2 = 140.3$ volts, and

$E = 140.3$ volts.

$1.2 \times 129.1 = 154.9$ volts.

A certain Brush lamp was 3.8 ohms when a current of 10 amperes was sent through it. What was the electro-motive force of the battery?

$10 \times 3.8 = 38$ volts.

A series of 30 galvanic cells, each of which had an average resistance of 15 ohms, were joined up in series to one incandescent lamp, and produced a current of 0.112 amperes. What was the resistance of the lamp?

The problem enables us to determine the resistance of each cell of the battery. Let this be represented by x .

$(30 \times 15 + 70) = 0.112 \times 445$;

$\frac{445}{0.112} = 3973.21$ ohms, nearly.

For the part of the problem, we have, by Ohm's law,

$\frac{E}{R} = \frac{C}{C_1} = 0.112$ ampere.

The circuit has two paths, the total current in the circuit is C , the resistance is R .

If the two branches, and C and C_1 the current in the two branches, then

$\frac{R_1}{R}$, whence

$R = \frac{C_1 R_1}{C}$; $R_1 = \frac{CR}{C_1}$.

If one circuit is said to be in shunt to the other, the two circuits are in parallel.

If the conductors are arranged in parallel,

and the total resistance is the

resistance

of the simple circuit we have

the internal parts of the

small as is commercially practicable, so that no energy may be wasted in heating the wire. The fuel burned in the boiler to the electric

mechanical energy by means of the boiler

is transformed into electrical energy in the dynamo, and then into heat in the electric light. The dynamo factor is the equivalent of the energy causing the production of energy in watts = electro-motive force \times current = EC , and the energy in joules = watts \times time = $C^2Rt = ECT$.

(From Kapp's Electrical Transmission.) It is of great importance to determine before-hand what is to be expected in each given case, and if the heat is greater than appears safe, provision must be made to carry off the heat. This can generally be done by increasing the surface area of the conductor. Say we have a single wire of one inch area, and find that with 1000 amperes it gets too hot. Now by splitting up this conductor into ten wires of one-tenth of a square inch cross-sectional area, we reduce the amount of energy transformed into heat, but we expose it to the cooling action of the surrounding air, and therefore the ten thin wires can dissipate more heat than the single thick wire.

Subaqueous and Aerial Cables (Insulated by Gutta-percha). (Prof. Forbes.)

Example → Diameter of conductor = 4.

Temperature of air = $30^{\circ}\text{C.} = 86^{\circ}\text{F.}$

Temperature of conductor over air.

Current in amperes.

$t = 0^{\circ}\text{C.}$ $= 32^{\circ}\text{F.}$	$t = 25^{\circ}\text{C.}$ $= 77^{\circ}\text{F.}$	$t = 49^{\circ}\text{C.}$ $= 120^{\circ}\text{F.}$	$t = 81^{\circ}\text{C.}$ $= 176^{\circ}\text{F.}$
11.0	17.8	24.0	29.5
27.0	43.8	59.0	72.5
44.4	72.1	97.8	119
62.6	102	137	166
81.0	131	177	218
100	164	219	268
119	192	259	319
137	225	301	369
157	253	342	421
175	285	384	472
197	316	426	523
219	348	468	574
241	381	510	625
263	413	552	676
285	445	594	727
307	477	636	778
329	509	678	829
351	541	720	880
373	573	762	931
395	605	804	982
417	637	846	1033
439	669	888	1084
461	701	930	1135
483	733	972	1186
505	765	1014	1237
527	797	1056	1288
549	829	1098	1339
571	861	1140	1390
593	893	1182	1441
615	925	1224	1492
637	957	1266	1543
659	989	1308	1594
681	1021	1350	1645
703	1053	1392	1696
725	1085	1434	1747
747	1117	1476	1798
769	1149	1518	1849
791	1181	1560	1900
813	1213	1602	1951
835	1245	1644	2002
857	1277	1686	2053
879	1309	1728	2104
901	1341	1770	2155
923	1373	1812	2206
945	1405	1854	2257
967	1437	1896	2308
989	1469	1938	2359
1011	1501	1980	2410
1033	1533	2022	2461
1055	1565	2064	2512
1077	1597	2106	2563
1099	1629	2148	2614

Insulated wire carries a greater current without heating than bare wire. Assuming the insulation to be twice the diam. of the conductor, a greater number of insulated wires than in bare wires up to 1.0 inch diameter. 1.0 inch of cable = 4 times diam. of conductor.

The table on pages 1033 and 1034 is from the Committee on Units and Standards, American Society of Mechanical Engineers (Trans. Oct. 1893).

Order	Qty.	Unit	Item	Price	Amount	Remarks
1	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
2	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
3	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
4	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
5	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
6	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
7	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
8	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
9	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
10	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
11	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
12	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
13	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
14	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
15	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
16	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
17	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
18	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
19	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	
20	100	00	100	1.00	100.00	

Gauges.	A. W. O. R. W. G. B. & S.	Dimen- ter, inches.	Area, Circular mils.	Weight Lbs. per 1000 Feet.	Length. Feet per Lb.	Resistance in International Ohms			
						Ohms per 1000 at 50° C., 59° F.	Ohms per ft. at 50° C., 59° F.	Ohms per 1000 at 75° C., 165° F.	Ohms per ft. at 75° C., 165° F.
17	18	0.04255	2.048	0.006200	161.3	0.8153	0.0008153	0.000559	0.000559
18	19	0.04260	1.764	0.005340	187.3	1.099	0.0005470	0.000548	0.000548
19	20	0.04265	1.524	0.004617	203.4	1.296	0.000574	0.000574	0.000574
20	21	0.04270	1.285	0.003999	250.7	1.18	0.000580	0.000580	0.000580
21	22	0.04275	1.024	0.003400	294.6	0.98	0.000582	0.000582	0.000582
22	23	0.04280	0.810	0.002902	323.4	0.88	0.000584	0.000584	0.000584
23	24	0.04285	0.614	0.002462	407.8	0.74	0.000586	0.000586	0.000586
24	25	0.04290	0.444	0.002145	474.2	0.63	0.000588	0.000588	0.000588
25	26	0.04295	0.325	0.001892	514.2	0.57	0.000590	0.000590	0.000590
26	27	0.04300	0.240	0.001645	608.6	0.49	0.000592	0.000592	0.000592
27	28	0.04305	0.180	0.001405	708.6	0.42	0.000594	0.000594	0.000594
28	29	0.04310	0.135	0.001180	808.6	0.37	0.000596	0.000596	0.000596
29	30	0.04315	0.100	0.001000	908.6	0.33	0.000598	0.000598	0.000598
30	31	0.04320	0.075	0.000835	1008.6	0.30	0.000600	0.000600	0.000600
31	32	0.04325	0.055	0.000695	1108.6	0.27	0.000602	0.000602	0.000602
32	33	0.04330	0.040	0.000580	1208.6	0.25	0.000604	0.000604	0.000604
33	34	0.04335	0.030	0.000485	1308.6	0.23	0.000606	0.000606	0.000606
34	35	0.04340	0.022	0.000405	1408.6	0.21	0.000608	0.000608	0.000608
35	36	0.04345	0.016	0.000335	1508.6	0.19	0.000610	0.000610	0.000610
36	37	0.04350	0.012	0.000280	1608.6	0.18	0.000612	0.000612	0.000612
37	38	0.04355	0.009	0.000235	1708.6	0.17	0.000614	0.000614	0.000614
38	39	0.04360	0.007	0.000200	1808.6	0.16	0.000616	0.000616	0.000616
39	40	0.04365	0.005	0.000170	1908.6	0.15	0.000618	0.000618	0.000618
40	41	0.04370	0.004	0.000145	2008.6	0.14	0.000620	0.000620	0.000620
41	42	0.04375	0.003	0.000120	2108.6	0.13	0.000622	0.000622	0.000622
42	43	0.04380	0.002	0.000100	2208.6	0.12	0.000624	0.000624	0.000624
43	44	0.04385	0.001	0.000085	2308.6	0.11	0.000626	0.000626	0.000626
44	45	0.04390	0.001	0.000070	2408.6	0.10	0.000628	0.000628	0.000628
45	46	0.04395	0.000	0.000060	2508.6	0.10	0.000630	0.000630	0.000630
46	47	0.04400	0.000	0.000050	2608.6	0.09	0.000632	0.000632	0.000632
47	48	0.04405	0.000	0.000045	2708.6	0.09	0.000634	0.000634	0.000634
48	49	0.04410	0.000	0.000040	2808.6	0.08	0.000636	0.000636	0.000636
49	50	0.04415	0.000	0.000035	2908.6	0.08	0.000638	0.000638	0.000638

The data from which the foregoing table has been computed are: (1) Matthiessen's standard resistivity, Matthiessen's temperature coefficient, and specific gravity of copper = 8.93. Resistance in terms of the international ohm.

Matthiessen's standard 1 metre-gramme of hard-drawn copper = 1 B. A. U. @ 0° C. Ratio of resistivity hard to soft copper 1.0235.

Matthiessen's standard 1 metre-gramme of soft-drawn copper = 1 B. A. U. @ 0° C. One B. A. U. = 0.9808 international ohm.

Matthiessen's standard 1 metre-gramme of soft-drawn copper = 1 international ohm @ 0° C.

Temperature coefficients of resistance for 20° C., 50° C., and 50° C. are 1.30625, and 1.33681 respectively. 1 foot = 0.3048023 metre, 1 pound = 453.59256 grammes.

Heating of Coils.—To calculate the heating of a coil, given the surface and its resistance. (Forbes.)

Let ρ = the resistance of a coil in ohms at the permissible temperature (the resistance (cold) must be increased by 1.5 of its value at 0° C.)

S = the surface exposed to the air measured in square centimetres (1 square cm. = .155 square inch; 1 sq. in. = 6.45 square cm.)

t = the rise in temperature, centigrade scale;

C = the current in amperes.

$24(C^2\rho) = \text{heat generated} = efs$,

where e is McFarlane's constant, varying from .0002 to .0004. The value may be taken. If 50° C. be the permissible rise in temperature,

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{.0003 \times 50 \times S}{.24 \times \rho}} = .25 \sqrt{\frac{S}{\rho}}$$

EXAMPLE.—The resistance of the field-magnets of a dynamo is 1.8 ohms, and the surface exposed to the air is 1 square metre; find the current to heat it not more than 50° C.

Here $S = 10,000$; $\rho = 1.8$ ohms; and $C = .25 \sqrt{\frac{10,000}{1.8}} = 24.5$ amperes.

For the heating of coils of field-magnets Mr. C. Hering gives the energy dissipated for every 223 square inches of cooling surface for each degree F. of difference between the temperature of the coil and the surrounding air.

$W = CE = 1/223TS = 0.004476TS$, in which W = watts lost in coil, degrees Fahr., and S = square inches.

$C = \frac{TS}{223E}$ is the greatest current which can be used in the magnet of a shunt machine having a certain pressure in order that they do not rise above a certain temperature. Thus for a rise of temperature of 60° F. of the surrounding air,

$C = \frac{50S}{223E} = .224 \frac{S}{E}$. Substituting for E its equivalent CR , we get

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{50S}{R}}$$

If 60° F. is the maximum difference of temperature,

$$C = \frac{80S}{223E} = .36 \frac{S}{E} = .60 \sqrt{\frac{S}{R}}$$

The formula can be used for series machines when C is known, for

$$C^2R = 1/223TS, \text{ we get } R = \frac{T^2}{223C^2}$$

With a permissible rise of 50° F. or 80° F., we have respectively,

$$R = \frac{244S}{C^2}; \text{ and } R = \frac{36S}{C^2}$$

The surface area of the coil in square inches may be found from

$$S = \frac{223W}{T} = \frac{223CE}{T} = \frac{223C^2R}{T}$$

10° F. or 60° F., respectively, the surface will

$$46W; \text{ and } S = \frac{235W}{80} = 2.8W.$$

II. Preece gives a formula for the current-resistant metals, viz.: $C = ad^2$ in which d is the diameter whose value for different metals is as follows: 7585; platinum 5172; German silver 3290; 1642; lead, 1379; alloy of 2 lead and 1 tin, 1318.

Wires which will be Fused by a given Current.

$$a_2 \text{ for tin} = 1379 \text{ for lead} = 10344 \text{ for copper} =$$

Lead Wire.		Copper Wire.		Iron Wire.	
Diam. inches.	Approx. S.W. G.	Diam. inches.	Approx. S.W. G.	Diam. inches.	Approx. S.W. G.
.0081	35	.0021	47	.0047	40
.0128	30	.0034	43	.0074	36
.0168	27	.0044	41	.0097	33
.0203	25	.0053	39	.0117	31
.0226	23	.0062	37	.0136	29
.0275	20	.0078	33	.0210	24
.0401	18	.0129	30	.0283	22
.0505	17	.0156	28	.0343	20.5
.0690	15	.0181	26	.0398	19
.0779	14	.0205	25	.0450	18.5
.0804	13.5	.0237	24	.0498	18
.0944	13	.0248	23	.0545	17
.1021	12	.0266	22	.0589	16.5
.1095	11.5	.0288	22	.0632	16
.1237	10	.0335	21	.0714	15
.1371	9.5	.0360	20	.0791	14
.1409	9.5	.0394	19	.0864	13.5
.1621	8	.0426	18.5	.0935	13
.1799	7	.0457	18	.1003	12
.1904	6	.0516	17.5	.1133	11
.2176	5	.0572	17	.1255	10
.2379	4	.0625	16	.1372	9.5
.2573	3	.0676	16	.1484	9
.2760	2	.0725	15	.1592	8
.3208	0	.0811	13.5	.1848	6.5
.3617	00.5	.0950	12.5	.2086	5

as Required to Fuse Wires According to the Formula $C = ad^2$.

d.	Tin.	Lead	Copper	Iron.
	$a = 1642$.	$a = 1379$.	$a = 10344$	$a = 3148$.
22627	37.15	31.20	231.8	71.22
16191	26.58	22.22	165.8	50.96
10516	17.47	14.50	107.7	33.10
60831	11.22	9.419	69.97	21.50
34685	7.692	6.461	48.00	14.75
20268	5.357	4.499	33.49	10.97
122415	3.965	3.330	24.74	"
61801	2.966	2.483	18.44	"
31381	2.267	1.904	14.15	"
91222	1.843	1.548	11.50	"

ELECTRIC TRANSMISSION.

Cross-section of Wire Required for a Given Current.
Constant Current (Series) System.—The cross-sectional area of wire necessary in any circuit for a given constant current depends on the difference between the pressure at the generating station and the pressure required by all the apparatus on the circuit, and on the length of the circuit. The following formulæ are given in "Practical Electrical Engineering":

If V = pressure in volts at generators;

v = sum of all the pressures (in volts) required by apparatus in the circuit;

n = total length (going and return) of circuit in miles;

C = current in amperes;

r = resistance of 1 mile of copper-conductor of 1 square inch area in ohms;

a = required cross-sectional area of copper in square inches—

$$a = \frac{nrC}{V - v}.$$

If we take the temperature of the conductor when the current is flowing for some time through it, as 80° F.,

$$r = 0.0455 \text{ ohm, and } a = \frac{0.0455nC}{V - v}.$$

It generally happens, however, that we are not tied down to a particular value of V , as the pressure at the generators can be varied by a few suit requirements. In this case it is usual to fix upon a current and determine the cross-sectional area of copper in accordance with it.

If D = current density in amperes per square inch determined upon

$$a = \frac{C}{D}.$$

The current density is frequently taken at 1000 amperes to the square inch, but should in general be determined by economical considerations in every case in question.

Allowable Current Density in Insulated Cables.—Experiments on insulated cables in casing gave the results shown below, but they require confirmation or correction of the current densities permissible in different insulated cables run underground. C and D are the current and the current density in amperes per square inch, respectively, and the temperature of the conductor by the number of degrees indicated by the suffix.

No. of Strands.	S.W.G.* of each Wire.	Area of Strand in square inches.	C_{10}	D_{10}	C_{80}
7	20	0.0073	18	2,500	28
7	18	0.0357	50	1,300	95
19	14	0.0875	120	1,300	205
19	14	0.101	210	1,100	300

Constant Pressure (Parallel System).—To determine the pressure in a feeder of given size in the case of two-wire parallel distribution:

Let a = cross-sectional area of copper of one conductor of the feeder in square inches;

n = length of feeder (going and return) in miles;

C = current in amperes;

$V - v$ = loss of pressure in feeder in volts;

r = resistance of 1 mile of copper-conductor of 1 square inch area in ohms.

$$V - v = \frac{nrC}{a}.$$

* Standard (British) Wire-gauge.

ductor with this current flowing in it is

$$\text{and } V - v = \frac{0.0455nC}{a},$$

In the case of a three-wire feeder, let p_1q_1 and p_2q_2 represent the middle conductor, and let $p'q'$ represent the middle conductor at the feeding-point and q_1, q', q_2 at the generat-

each of the outer conductors in square inches;
 a middle conductor;
 a' conductor of feeder;
 v and v' in volts at generating station;
 p_1 and p_2 in volts at generating station;
 q' in volts at feeding-point;
 q_1 and q_2 in volts at feeding-point;
 n number of
 C of copper conductor of 1 square inch sectional

$$= \frac{C_1}{a'} \left\{ \right\}; \quad V_1 - v_1 = n\tau \left\{ \frac{C_2}{a} - \frac{C_1 - C_2}{a'} \right\}.$$

$v_1 = v_2$, and if C_1 is greater than C_2 , V_1 is greater pressure in the middle wire; this result shows in circuit with the two outer conductors.

m ; then, if the greatest want of balance between the three-wire system is m per cent of the heavily loaded section, and if C_1 is the maximum number of conductors of the feeder under consideration, $\left(1 - \frac{m}{100}\right)$, and consequently $C_1 - C_2$ will not be

$$\frac{200 + m}{200}; \quad V_1 - v_1 = \frac{n\tau C_1}{a} \times \frac{200 - m}{200};$$

equal to V —the pressure required to be maintaining-point—we can calculate V_1 and V_2 for given by the value of m , which we estimate should be.

we that the difference in the pressures required in sections of a three-wire feeder increases with the feeder; hence the regulators on each of the outer conductors to a variable resistance having at least

area of the middle conductor one half of that of the outer conductors, but this is not invariably the case.

From the law $C = \frac{E}{R}$ it is seen that with any pressure become very great if R is made very small. In the case of a three-wire feeder, the current therefore great, and the pressure small.

Transmission. (R. G. Blaine, *Eng'g*, June 1888.)
 rule for the most economical section of conductor

1 to m may vary from 10 to 25, according to the number of customers to one section or the other. In the case of a three-wire feeder, the current therefore great, and the pressure small. At a certain station supplied by a three-wire system to about 25,000 h. p. the current exceeded 7 or 8.

is that for which the "annual interest on capital outlay is equal to the annual cost of energy wasted," and its practical outcome is that the resistance of the copper conductor should be such that its resistance per mile is $\frac{1}{C^2}$ (C being the current in amperes).

Tables have been compiled by Professor Forbes and others in accordance with modifications of Sir W. Thomson's rule. For a given entering power the question is merely one as to what current density, or how many amperes per square inch of conductor, should be employed. Sir W. Thomson's rule gives about 393 amperes per square inch, and Professor Forbes's tables—for a medium cost of one electrical horse-power per horse-power—current density of about 380 amperes per square inch as most economical.

When a given horse-power is to be delivered at a given distance, the question is somewhat different, and Professors Ayrton and Perry (*Electricity*, 1886) have shown that in that case both the current and resistance are variables, and that their most economical values may be found from the following formulae:

$$C = \frac{10}{P}(1 + \sin \phi), \text{ and } r = \frac{10^3}{n^2} \frac{\sin \phi}{(1 + \sin \phi)^3},$$

in which C = the proper current in amperes; r = resistance in ohms per mile which should be given to the conductor; P = pressure at entering end in volts; n = number of miles of conductor; m = power delivered in horse-power; ϕ = such an angle that $\tan \phi = \frac{m}{P}$, t being a constant depending on the price of copper, the cost of one electrical horse-power, interest, &c. may be taken as about 17.

In this case the current density should not remain constant, but diminish as the length increases, being in all cases less than that given by Sir W. Thomson's rule.

EXAMPLE.—If the current for an electric railway is sent in at 300 horse-power being delivered, find the waste of power in heating the conductor, the distance being 5 miles and there being a return conductor.

Here $n = 10$, $t = 17$, $P = 300$; $\tan \phi = \frac{170}{300} = .56$, $\phi = 40^\circ 22'$, $\sin \phi = .6477$.

Hence most economical resistance

$$r = \frac{1000}{10 \times 74600} \times \frac{.6477}{1.6477^3} = .01279 \text{ ohm per mile,}$$

or .1279 ohm in its total length.

The most economical current, $C = \frac{74600}{300} \times 1.6477 = 614.58$ amperes.

The power wasted in heat, $= \frac{C^2 R}{746} = \frac{614.58^2 \times .1279}{746} = 64.75$ horse-power.

The following tables show the power wasted as heat in the conductor.

HORSE-POWER WASTED IN TRANSMITTING POWER ELECTRICALLY TO A DISTANCE, THE ENTERING POWER BEING FIXED. PRESSURE AT ENTERING END 300 VOLTS. CURRENT DENSITY, 380 AMPERES PER SQUARE INCH.

Horse-power sent in *	Horse-power Wasted, the Distance to which the Power is Transmitted being one Mile (there being a Return Conductor).	Horse-power Wasted, the Distance being Five Miles.
10	1.663	5.416
20	3.327	10.832
40	6.654	21.664
50	8.318	27.080
80	13.308	43.328
100	16.636	54.160
200	33.272	108.320

* horse-power at the generator terminals.

ENTRANCE, 2000 VOLTS.

Horse-power Wasted. Dis- tance Five Miles.	Horse- power Wasted. Distance Ten Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Twenty Miles.
8.318	16.636	33.27
16.636	33.272	66.54
33.272	66.54	133.08
41.59	83.18	166.36
66.54	133.08	266.17
83.18	166.36	332.72
166.36	332.72	665.44

numbers that when the current density is fixed is proportional to the entering horse-power and the length inversely proportional to the potential. For a they be simply stated as

$$W = 16.6358 \frac{E}{P} \times l,$$

and P the pressure at entrance, and l the length of

ON ELECTRIC TRANSMISSION TO A GIVEN DISTANCE, DELIVERED AT THE DISTANT END BEING FIXED. PRESSURE 2000 VOLTS. CURRENT AND RESISTANCE CALCULATED BY RULES.

Horse-power Wasted. Distance to which Power is Transmitted One Mile (there being a Return Conductor).	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Five Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Ten Miles.
1.876	6.476	8.729
3.352	12.952	17.24
6.704	25.904	34.48
8.38	32.38	48.10
13.408	51.808	68.96
16.76	64.86	80.20
33.52	129.52	172.4

PRESSURE AT ENTRANCE, 2000 VOLTS.

Horse-power Wasted. Distance One Mile.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Five Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Ten Miles.
1.710	8.484	16.703
3.432	16.968	33.526
6.864	33.936	67.052
8.58	42.42	85.15
13.724	67.67	134.104
17.16	84.84	167.63
34.32	169.68	335.26

er sent in, w = power delivered in watts, r
istance in ohms per mile, P = pressure
per of miles of conductor,

$$(+ Cr) + 746 = H; w = 746H - Cr$$

and the formulae for best current and resistance become

$$C = \frac{746H - C^2 r}{P} (1 + \sin \phi); \quad r = \frac{P^2}{n(746H - C^2 r)} \frac{\sin \phi}{1 - \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Energy wasted as heat in watts per mile} = C^2 r = \frac{746H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Horse-power wasted per mile} = W_1 = \frac{H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

ϕ = angle whose tangent = $nr + P$, and the value of t correct current density of 380 amperes per sq. in. is 10 (330.)

TABLE OF ELECTRICAL HORSE-POWER

Formula: $\frac{\text{Volts} \times \text{Amperes}}{746} = \text{H.P.}, \text{ or } 1 \text{ volt-ampere} = \frac{746}{1000} \text{ H.P.}$

Read amperes at top and volts at side, or vice versa.

Amperes at Volts.	Volts or Amperes.									
	1	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
1	.00134	.0134	.0268	.0402	.0536	.0670	.0804	.0938	.1072	.1206
2	.00268	.0268	.0536	.0804	.1072	.1341	.1609	.1877	.2145	.2413
3	.00402	.0402	.0804	.1206	.1609	.2011	.2413	.2815	.3217	.3619
4	.00536	.0536	.1072	.1609	.2145	.2681	.3217	.3753	.4290	.4826
5	.00670	.0670	.1341	.2011	.2681	.3351	.4022	.4692	.5362	.6032
6	.00804	.0804	.1609	.2413	.3217	.4022	.4826	.5630	.6434	.7238
7	.00938	.0938	.1877	.2815	.3753	.4692	.5630	.6568	.7506	.8444
8	.01072	.1072	.2145	.3217	.4290	.5362	.6434	.7506	.8578	.9650
9	.01206	.1206	.2413	.3619	.4826	.6032	.7238	.8444	.9650	1.0856
10	.01341	.1341	.2681	.4022	.5362	.6703	.8043	.9383	1.0724	1.2064
11	.01475	.1475	.2949	.4424	.5898	.7373	.8847	1.0321	1.1795	1.3269
12	.01609	.1609	.3217	.4826	.6434	.8043	.9650	1.1258	1.2866	1.4474
13	.01743	.1743	.3485	.5228	.6970	.8713	1.0456	1.2200	1.3943	1.5686
14	.01877	.1877	.3753	.5630	.7407	.9194	1.1036	1.3114	1.5091	1.7068
15	.02011	.2011	.4022	.6032	.8043	1.005	1.206	1.398	1.600	1.801
16	.02145	.2145	.4290	.6434	.8578	1.072	1.273	1.474	1.716	1.917
17	.02279	.2279	.4558	.6837	.9115	1.139	1.341	1.542	1.783	1.984
18	.02413	.2413	.4826	.7239	.9699	1.206	1.408	1.609	1.850	2.051
19	.02547	.2547	.5094	.7641	1.019	1.273	1.474	1.783	1.937	2.102
20	.02681	.2681	.5362	.8043	1.072	1.340	1.609	1.877	2.145	2.241
21	.02815	.2815	.5630	.8445	1.126	1.408	1.689	1.971	2.202	2.334
22	.02949	.2949	.5898	.8847	1.180	1.475	1.769	2.064	2.350	2.427
23	.03083	.3083	.6166	.9249	1.233	1.542	1.850	2.158	2.407	2.520
24	.03217	.3217	.6434	.9650	1.287	1.609	1.930	2.252	2.574	2.613
25	.03351	.3351	.6702	1.005	1.341	1.676	2.011	2.346	2.681	2.706
26	.03485	.3485	.6971	1.046	1.394	1.743	2.091	2.440	2.788	2.800
27	.03619	.3619	.7239	1.086	1.448	1.810	2.172	2.534	2.895	2.893
28	.03753	.3753	.7507	1.126	1.501	1.877	2.252	2.627	2.993	2.986
29	.03887	.3887	.7775	1.166	1.555	1.944	2.332	2.721	3.090	3.079
30	.04022	.4022	.8043	1.206	1.609	2.011	2.413	2.815	3.217	3.172
31	.04156	.4156	.8311	1.247	1.662	2.078	2.493	2.909	3.324	3.265
32	.04290	.4290	.8579	1.287	1.716	2.145	2.574	3.003	3.432	3.358
33	.04424	.4424	.8847	1.328	1.769	2.212	2.654	3.097	3.539	3.451
34	.04558	.4558	.9115	1.368	1.823	2.279	2.735	3.190	3.646	3.544
35	.04692	.4692	.9384	1.408	1.877	2.346	2.815	3.284	3.753	3.637
36	.04826	.4826	.9652	1.448	1.930	2.413	2.895	3.378	3.861	3.730
37	.04960	.4960	.9920	1.488	1.984	2.480	2.976	3.472	3.968	3.823
38	.05094	.5094	1.019	1.528	2.038	2.547	3.056	3.566	4.075	3.916
39	.05228	.5228	1.046	1.568	2.091	2.614	3.137	3.660	4.182	4.009
40	.05362	.5362	1.072	1.609	2.145	2.681	3.217	3.753	4.290	4.102
41	.05496	.5496	1.099	1.649	2.198	2.748	3.298	3.847	4.397	4.195
42	.05630	.5630	1.126	1.689	2.252	2.815	3.378	3.941	4.504	4.288
43	.05764	.5764	1.153	1.729	2.306	2.882	3.458	4.035	4.611	4.381
44	.05898	.5898	1.180	1.769	2.359	2.949	3.539	4.129	4.719	4.474
45	.06032	.6032	1.206	1.810	2.413	3.016	3.619	4.223	4.826	4.567
46	.06166	.6166	1.233	1.850	2.467	3.081	3.700	4.316	4.933	4.660
47	.06300	.6300	1.260	1.890	2.520	3.150	3.780	4.410	5.040	4.753
48	.06434	.6434	1.287	1.930	2.574	3.217	3.861	4.504	5.148	4.846
49	.06568	.6568	1.314	1.970	2.627	3.284	3.941	4.598	5.255	4.939
50	.06702	.6702	1.341	2.011	2.681	3.351	4.022	4.692	5.362	5.032

ELECTRICAL HORSE-POWERS—(Continued.)

Volts or Amperes.

	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
10	2.942	3.686	4.434	5.181	5.898	6.635	7.373	8.110
11	3.117	4.022	4.836	5.630	6.434	7.239	8.043	8.847
12	3.486	4.357	5.228	6.099	6.970	7.842	8.713	9.584
13	3.753	4.692	5.630	6.568	7.507	8.445	9.384	10.32
14	4.021	5.027	6.032	7.037	8.043	9.048	10.05	11.06
15	4.290	5.368	6.434	7.507	8.579	9.652	10.72	11.80
16	4.558	5.697	6.836	7.976	9.115	10.25	11.39	12.53
17	4.826	6.032	7.239	8.445	9.652	10.86	12.06	13.27
18	5.094	6.367	7.641	8.914	10.18	11.46	12.73	14.01
19	5.362	6.703	8.043	9.384	10.72	12.06	13.41	14.75
20	10.72	13.41	16.09	18.77	21.45	24.13	26.81	29.49
21	16.09	20.11	24.13	28.15	32.17	36.19	40.22	44.24
22	21.45	26.81	32.17	37.53	42.90	48.26	53.62	58.98
23	26.81	33.31	40.22	46.92	53.62	60.32	67.02	73.73
24	32.17	40.22	48.26	56.30	64.34	72.39	80.43	88.47
25	37.53	46.92	56.30	65.68	75.07	84.45	93.84	103.2
26	42.90	53.62	64.34	75.07	85.79	96.52	107.2	117.9
27	48.26	60.32	72.39	84.45	96.52	108.6	120.6	132.7
28	53.62	67.02	80.43	93.84	107.2	120.6	134.1	147.5
29	59.0	73.73	88.47	103.2	117.9	132.7	147.5	162.3
30	64.34	80.43	96.52	112.5	128.6	144.7	160.9	177.0
31	69.7	86.8	103.2	120.6	138.7	156.8	174.9	193.0
32	75.07	93.84	110.6	128.6	146.7	164.8	182.9	200.0
33	80.43	100.5	118.0	136.7	154.8	172.9	191.0	207.0
34	85.79	107.2	125.3	144.7	162.9	181.0	199.1	214.0
35	91.15	113.9	132.7	152.8	171.0	189.1	207.2	221.0
36	96.52	120.6	140.1	160.9	179.1	197.2	215.3	228.0
37	101.8	127.3	147.5	168.9	187.2	205.3	223.4	235.0
38	107.2	134.1	154.8	177.0	195.3	213.4	231.5	242.0
39	112.5	140.1	162.3	185.1	203.4	221.5	239.6	249.0
40	117.9	146.7	169.7	193.0	211.5	229.6	247.7	256.0
41	123.2	153.2	177.0	200.0	219.6	237.7	255.8	263.0
42	128.6	159.8	184.7	207.9	227.7	245.8	263.9	270.0
43	134.0	166.4	192.3	215.8	235.8	253.9	272.0	277.0
44	139.4	173.0	199.8	223.7	243.9	262.0	280.1	284.0
45	144.7	179.6	207.2	231.6	252.0	270.1	288.2	291.0
46	150.1	186.2	214.7	239.5	260.1	278.2	296.3	298.0
47	155.5	192.8	222.2	247.4	268.2	286.3	304.4	305.0
48	160.9	199.4	229.8	255.3	276.3	294.4	312.5	312.0
49	166.3	206.0	237.3	263.2	284.4	302.5	320.6	319.0
50	171.7	212.6	244.9	271.1	292.5	310.6	328.7	326.0
51	177.1	219.2	252.4	279.0	300.6	318.7	336.8	333.0
52	182.5	225.8	260.0	286.9	308.7	326.8	344.9	340.0
53	187.9	232.4	267.6	294.8	316.8	334.9	353.0	347.0
54	193.3	239.0	275.2	302.7	324.9	343.0	361.1	354.0
55	198.7	245.6	282.8	310.6	333.0	351.1	369.2	361.0
56	204.1	252.2	290.4	318.5	341.1	359.2	377.3	368.0
57	209.5	258.8	298.0	326.4	349.2	367.3	385.4	375.0
58	214.9	265.4	305.6	334.3	357.3	375.4	393.5	382.0
59	220.3	272.0	313.2	342.2	365.4	383.5	401.6	389.0
60	225.7	278.6	320.8	350.1	373.5	391.6	409.7	396.0
61	231.1	285.2	328.4	358.0	381.6	399.7	417.8	403.0
62	236.5	291.8	336.0	365.9	389.7	407.8	425.9	410.0
63	241.9	298.4	343.6	373.8	397.8	415.9	434.0	417.0
64	247.3	305.0	351.2	381.7	405.9	424.0	442.1	424.0
65	252.7	311.6	358.8	389.6	414.0	432.1	450.2	431.0
66	258.1	318.2	366.4	397.5	422.1	440.2	458.3	438.0
67	263.5	324.8	374.0	405.4	430.2	448.3	466.4	445.0
68	268.9	331.4	381.6	413.3	438.3	456.4	474.5	452.0
69	274.3	338.0	389.2	421.2	446.4	464.5	482.6	459.0
70	279.7	344.6	396.8	429.1	454.5	472.6	490.7	466.0
71	285.1	351.2	404.4	437.0	462.6	480.7	498.8	473.0
72	290.5	357.8	412.0	444.9	470.7	488.8	506.9	480.0
73	295.9	364.4	419.6	452.8	478.8	496.9	515.0	487.0
74	301.3	371.0	427.2	460.7	486.9	505.0	523.1	494.0
75	306.7	377.6	434.8	468.6	495.0	513.1	531.2	501.0
76	312.1	384.2	442.4	476.5	503.1	521.2	539.3	508.0
77	317.5	390.8	450.0	484.4	511.2	529.3	547.4	515.0
78	322.9	397.4	457.6	492.3	519.3	537.4	555.5	522.0
79	328.3	404.0	465.2	500.2	527.4	545.5	563.6	529.0
80	333.7	410.6	472.8	508.1	535.5	553.6	571.7	536.0
81	339.1	417.2	480.4	516.0	543.6	561.7	579.8	543.0
82	344.5	423.8	488.0	523.9	551.7	569.8	587.9	550.0
83	349.9	430.4	495.6	531.8	559.8	577.9	596.0	557.0
84	355.3	437.0	503.2	539.7	567.9	586.0	604.1	564.0
85	360.7	443.6	510.8	547.6	576.0	594.1	612.2	571.0
86	366.1	450.2	518.4	555.5	584.1	602.2	620.3	578.0
87	371.5	456.8	526.0	563.4	592.2	610.3	628.4	585.0
88	376.9	463.4	533.6	571.3	600.3	618.4	636.5	592.0
89	382.3	470.0	541.2	579.2	608.4	626.5	644.6	599.0
90	387.7	476.6	548.8	587.1	616.5	634.6	652.7	606.0
91	393.1	483.2	556.4	595.0	624.6	642.7	660.8	613.0
92	398.5	489.8	564.0	602.9	632.7	650.8	668.9	620.0
93	403.9	496.4	571.6	610.8	640.8	658.9	677.0	627.0
94	409.3	503.0	579.2	618.7	648.9	667.0	685.1	634.0
95	414.7	509.6	586.8	626.6	657.0	675.1	693.2	641.0
96	420.1	516.2	594.4	634.5	665.1	683.2	701.3	648.0
97	425.5	522.8	602.0	642.4	673.2	691.3	709.4	655.0
98	430.9	529.4	609.6	650.3	681.3	699.4	717.5	662.0
99	436.3	536.0	617.2	658.2	689.4	707.5	725.6	669.0
100	441.7	542.6	624.8	666.1	697.5	715.6	733.7	676.0

The wire table on the following page (from a circular of Mfg. Co.) shows at a glance the size of wire necessary of any given current over a known distance with 5% drop, for 100-volt and 500-volt circuits, with varying sizes, by which this table has been calculated.

$$\frac{D \times 1000}{C \times 2L} = R,$$

volts drop in electro-motive force, C the current, L the distance from the point of distribution, and R the line resistance per foot.

Under the size of wire necessary to carry a current of 60 amperes, under 60 amperes, we find the size required.

Under the size of wire necessary to carry a current of 60 amperes, under 60 amperes, we find the size required.

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and the formulæ for best current and resistance become

$$C = \frac{746H - C^2 r}{P} (1 + \sin \phi); \quad r = \frac{P^2}{n(746H - C^2 r)} \sin \phi$$

$$\text{Energy wasted as heat in watts per mile} = C^2 r = \frac{746H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Horse-power wasted per mile} = W_1 = \frac{H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

(ϕ = angle whose tangent = $nr + P$, and the value of f corresponding to a current density of 380 amperes per sq. in. is 16.636.)

TABLE OF ELECTRICAL HORSE-POWERS.

Formula: $\frac{\text{Volts} \times \text{Amperes}}{746} = \text{H.P.}$, or 1 volt-ampere = .0013405 H.P.

Read amperes at top and volts at side, or vice versa.

Amperes or Volts.	Volts or Amperes.												
	1	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
1	.00134	.0134	.0268	.0402	.0536	.0670	.0804	.0938	.1072	.1206	.1341	.1475	.1609
2	.00268	.0268	.0536	.0804	.1072	.1341	.1609	.1877	.2145	.2413	.2681	.2949	.3217
3	.00402	.0402	.0804	.1206	.1609	.2011	.2413	.2815	.3217	.3619	.4022	.4424	.4826
4	.00536	.0536	.1072	.1609	.2145	.2681	.3217	.3753	.4290	.4826	.5363	.5899	.6435
5	.00670	.0670	.1341	.2011	.2681	.3351	.4022	.4692	.5363	.6032	.6703	.7373	.8043
6	.00804	.0804	.1609	.2413	.3217	.4022	.4826	.5630	.6434	.7239	.8043	.8847	.9651
7	.00938	.0938	.1877	.2815	.3753	.4692	.5630	.6568	.7507	.8445	.9384	1.0322	1.1260
8	.01072	.1072	.2145	.3217	.4290	.5363	.6434	.7507	.8579	.9652	1.0724	1.1797	1.2869
9	.01206	.1206	.2413	.3619	.4826	.6032	.7239	.8445	.9652	1.0858	1.2065	1.3271	1.4478
10	.01341	.1341	.2681	.4022	.5363	.6703	.8043	.9384	1.0724	1.2065	1.3405	1.4745	1.6086
11	.01475	.1475	.2949	.4424	.5899	.7373	.8847	1.0322	1.1797	1.3271	1.4745	1.6219	1.7693
12	.01609	.1609	.3217	.4826	.6434	.8043	.9651	1.1260	1.2869	1.4478	1.6086	1.7693	1.9302
13	.01743	.1743	.3495	.5228	.6970	.8713	1.0456	1.2200	1.3943	1.5686	1.7429	1.9172	2.0915
14	.01877	.1877	.3763	.5630	.7507	.9384	1.1260	1.3136	1.5013	1.6889	1.8766	2.0642	2.2519
15	.02011	.2011	.4022	.6032	.8043	1.0053	1.2063	1.4073	1.6083	1.8093	2.0103	2.2113	2.4123
16	.02145	.2145	.4290	.6434	.8579	1.0724	1.2869	1.5013	1.7158	1.9302	2.1447	2.3591	2.5736
17	.02279	.2279	.4558	.6837	.9115	1.1391	1.3667	1.5943	1.8219	2.0495	2.2771	2.5047	2.7323
18	.02413	.2413	.4826	.7250	.9659	1.2068	1.4478	1.6889	1.9299	2.1709	2.4119	2.6529	2.8939
19	.02547	.2547	.5094	.7611	1.0119	1.2733	1.5347	1.7961	2.0575	2.3189	2.5803	2.8417	3.1031
20	.02681	.2681	.5363	.8043	1.0724	1.3405	1.6019	1.8777	2.1453	2.4137	2.6821	2.9505	3.2189
21	.02815	.2815	.5630	.8445	1.1260	1.4073	1.6800	1.9711	2.2522	2.5333	2.8144	3.0955	3.3766
22	.02949	.2949	.5898	.8847	1.1800	1.4753	1.7690	2.0644	2.3595	2.6544	2.9493	3.2442	3.5390
23	.03083	.3083	.6166	.9249	1.2339	1.5433	1.8580	2.1548	2.4617	2.7755	3.0893	3.3931	3.7069
24	.03217	.3217	.6434	.9652	1.2879	1.6079	1.9300	2.2322	2.5744	2.8955	3.2117	3.5339	3.8561
25	.03351	.3351	.6703	1.0053	1.3421	1.6768	2.0111	2.3446	2.6861	3.0166	3.3581	3.6996	4.0411
26	.03485	.3485	.6971	1.0466	1.3964	1.7433	2.0911	2.4401	2.7888	3.1377	3.4851	3.8334	4.1817
27	.03619	.3619	.7239	1.0868	1.4488	1.8100	2.1722	2.5334	2.8900	3.2588	3.6111	3.9611	4.3222
28	.03753	.3753	.7507	1.1280	1.5011	1.8777	2.2533	2.6257	3.0033	3.3713	3.7300	4.0900	4.4633
29	.03887	.3887	.7776	1.1693	1.5555	1.9444	2.3333	2.7111	3.1111	3.4889	3.8667	4.2444	4.6044
30	.04022	.4022	.8043	1.2096	1.6099	2.0111	2.4133	2.8011	3.2177	3.6111	4.0222	4.4222	4.8222
31	.04156	.4156	.8311	1.2477	1.6622	2.0778	2.4900	2.9009	3.3222	3.7444	4.1555	4.5777	5.0000
32	.04290	.4290	.8579	1.2877	1.7166	2.1453	2.5744	3.0033	3.4333	3.8555	4.2889	4.7111	5.1444
33	.04424	.4424	.8847	1.3279	1.7693	2.2122	2.6544	3.0955	3.5333	3.9667	4.4000	4.8222	5.2889
34	.04558	.4558	.9115	1.3677	1.8221	2.2779	2.7333	3.1900	3.6444	4.0667	4.5111	4.9333	5.4333
35	.04692	.4692	.9384	1.4073	1.8777	2.3446	2.8111	3.2889	3.7444	4.1667	4.6222	5.0444	5.5777
36	.04826	.4826	.9652	1.4488	1.9300	2.4133	2.8955	3.3778	3.8444	4.2667	4.7333	5.1555	5.7222
37	.04960	.4960	.9920	1.4893	1.9844	2.4800	2.9778	3.4722	3.9555	4.3667	4.8444	5.2667	5.8667
38	.05094	.5094	1.0189	1.5328	2.0389	2.5444	3.0556	3.5667	4.0667	4.4667	4.9555	5.3777	5.9111
39	.05228	.5228	1.0456	1.5800	2.0911	2.6111	3.1333	3.6600	4.1778	4.5667	5.0667	5.4889	6.0555
40	.05363	.5363	1.0724	1.6269	2.1453	2.6811	3.2177	3.7500	4.2889	4.6778	5.1778	5.5999	6.2000
41	.05497	.5497	1.0999	1.6744	2.1988	2.7488	3.2988	3.8444	4.3977	4.7889	5.2889	5.7111	6.3444
42	.05630	.5630	1.1260	1.7222	2.2533	2.8155	3.3778	3.9444	4.5000	4.8999	5.3999	5.8222	6.4889
43	.05764	.5764	1.1533	1.7700	2.3067	2.8822	3.4556	4.0333	4.6111	5.0111	5.5111	5.9333	6.6333
44	.05898	.5898	1.1800	1.8177	2.3599	2.9499	3.5333	4.1222	4.7178	5.1222	5.6222	6.0444	6.7778
45	.06032	.6032	1.2068	1.8655	2.4133	3.0111	3.6111	4.2222	4.8222	5.2333	5.7333	6.1555	6.9222
46	.06166	.6166	1.2339	1.9133	2.4667	3.0833	3.7000	4.3167	4.9333	5.3444	5.8444	6.2667	7.0667
47	.06300	.6300	1.2600	1.9611	2.5200	3.1556	3.7889	4.4111	5.0444	5.4555	5.9555	6.3778	7.2111
48	.06434	.6434	1.2877	1.9933	2.5722	3.2177	3.8667	4.5000	5.1444	5.5555	6.0667	6.4889	7.3555
49	.06568	.6568	1.3144	2.0277	2.6255	3.2844	3.9444	4.5944	5.2444	5.6667	6.1778	6.5999	7.5000
50	.06703	.6703	1.3411	2.0611	2.6811	3.3556	4.0222	4.6889	5.3444	5.7778	6.2889	6.7111	7.6444

any of a motor being given, the size of the conductor can be found from the following formula.

$$D = \frac{300,000 \times \text{H.P.} \times L}{\eta E^2}$$

η = efficiency

E , volts, 500; drop, 3%; feed to distributing, 75%.

= 17,109 circular mils, or about No. 8 B. & S.

Long-distance Transmission.

(Engineering House El. & Mfg. Co.)

ON THE DELIVERY OF ONE MECHANICAL HORSE-POWER (1000, 2000, 3000, 4000, 5000, AND 10,000 VOLTS AT TERMINALS OF LOWERING TRANSFORMERS.

per (drop), equals 30%.

city miles.

mile of single distance, 11,000 feet, to allow for
cents per pound.

3000 v.	4000 v.	5000 v.	10,000 v.
\$0.23	\$0.13	\$0.08	\$0.02
0.93	0.52	0.33	0.08
2.08	1.17	0.75	0.19
3.70	2.08	1.33	0.33
5.78	3.25	2.08	0.52
8.32	4.68	3.00	0.75
11.30	6.37	4.08	1.02
14.80	8.32	5.33	1.33
18.70	10.50	6.74	1.69
23.14	13.01	8.33	2.08
28.00	15.75	10.00	2.52
33.30	18.70	12.00	3.00
39.00	22.00	14.08	3.52
45.30	25.50	16.33	4.08
52.00	29.35	18.75	4.68
59.00	33.50	21.32	5.33
67.00	37.00	24.00	6.00
75.00	42.20	27.00	6.75
83.50	47.00	30.00	7.50
92.60	52.00	33.32	8.33

of calculating leads for wiring for electric
Hering in Trans. A. I. E. E., 1901. He furnishes
sets of diagonal straight-line diagrams to con-
sider the general formula for wiring may be
by simply locating three points in succession on

upon which the chart is based is that for any
variable quantities, one of which is the product
of two, the "curves" representing their relative
presented by a series of straight diagonal lines
or zero-point. Such a set of lines will therefore
representations graphically for that formula. For
plate of squares, the constant 546 does not com-
e of diagonal lines properly spaced will there-
be horse-power, the volts, or the amperes, when

other horizontal, and the diagonal
it one unit by a number of units
on straight lines the diagonals

COST OF COPPER REQUIRED TO DELIVER ONE MECHANICAL HORSE-POWER MOTOR-SHAFT WITH VARYING PERCENTAGES OF LOSS IN CONDUCTORS, UNDER THE ASSUMPTION THAT THE POTENTIAL AT MOTOR TERMINALS IS IN EACH CASE 3000 VOLTS.

Distances equal one to twenty miles.

Motor-efficiency equals 90%.

Length of conductor per mile of single distance, 11,000 feet, to allow sag.

Cost of copper equals 16 cents per pound.

Miles.	10%	15%	20%	25%	30%
1	\$0.52	\$0.33	\$0.25	\$0.17	\$0.12
2	2.08	1.31	0.96	0.68	0.50
3	4.68	2.95	2.08	1.53	1.12
4	8.32	5.25	3.70	2.77	2.00
5	13.00	8.30	5.78	4.33	3.12
6	18.70	11.75	8.32	6.23	4.50
7	25.50	16.00	11.30	8.45	6.00
8	33.30	21.00	14.80	11.00	8.00
9	42.30	26.00	18.75	14.00	10.00
10	52.05	32.28	23.14	17.31	12.50
11	63.00	39.75	28.00	21.00	16.00
12	75.00	47.30	33.30	24.90	19.00
13	88.00	55.30	39.00	29.21	22.50
14	102.00	64.20	45.30	33.90	26.00
15	117.00	73.75	52.00	38.90	30.00
16	133.00	83.80	59.18	44.30	34.50
17	150.00	94.75	67.00	50.00	39.00
18	168.00	106.00	75.00	56.25	43.50
19	188.00	118.00	83.50	62.50	48.75
20	208.00	131.00	92.60	69.25	54.00

to represent one of the two quantities which is equal to the quotient of the other two, and not the one which is equal to the product of the other two, because the curves would then be hyperbolas. In the example given the diagonals must represent volts or amperes, but not horse-powers. The constants in such formulæ affect only the positions of the diagonals; and, as they increase considerably the work of arithmetically calculating the result, they do not affect in the least the graphical calculations after the diagrams are once drawn.

The general formula for wiring is :

$$\text{Cross-section} = \frac{\text{current for one lamp} \times \text{No. of lamps} \times \text{distance} \times \text{constant}}{\text{loss in volts}}$$

containing six quantities only, one of which is always constant, being equal to twice the mil-foot resistance of copper, if the cross-section is in circular mils. Calculations involving three of these five quantities may readily be made graphically by means of a single set of diagonal lines.

In Mr. Hering's method the formula is split up into three smaller ones, each of which contains no more than three variable quantities. The formula can then be calculated separately by a simple diagram as described, thus permitting the whole formula to be calculated graphically.

To do this, let the first diagram perform the calculation,

$$x = \frac{\text{current for one lamp}}{\text{loss in volts}},$$

in which x is a mere auxiliary quantity. Let a second similar diagram perform the next calculation,

$$y = x \times \text{number of lamps};$$

and a third diagram perform the final calculation,

$$\text{cross-section} = y \times \text{distance}.$$

combined with any one of these, it is immaterial. The operation may at first seem to complicate matters, but the quantities, x and y . These, however, are easily eliminated by placing the three diagrams together, side by side, so that the two x scales coincide, and similarly the two y scales. One has merely to pass directly from one set of scales to the next, to perform the successive steps of the calculation, without the intermediate auxiliary quantities. These quantities correspond, and are equal to the successive products obtained in the successive arithmetical multiplications of the quantities in the formula, which cannot, of course, be taken the calculations arithmetically.

Power required for Long-distance Transmission. (Trans. Tech. Socy. of the Pacific Coast, vol. 1, p. 100.) The following formula:

$$P = \frac{D^3}{E^2} \text{ H.P.} \cdot \frac{(100 - L)}{L} 266.5,$$

where P is the weight of copper wire in pounds; D , the distance in miles; E , the voltage in hundreds of volts; H.P., the horse-power; and L , the per cent of line loss.

For example, for a horse-power ten miles with 10 per cent loss, and for a voltage of 100, we have

$$P = 200 \times \frac{(100 - 10)}{10} \times 266.5 = 53,300 \text{ lbs.}$$

Long-distance Transmission. (F. R. Hart, *Electrical Engineering*.) The mechanical efficiency of a system is the ratio of the mechanical power at one end of the line to the mechanical power at the distant end. The maximum efficiency of a motor varies with its load. The maximum efficiency should not be under 90% and is seldom above 95% under favorable conditions, then, we must expect a loss of 5% in the motor. The loss in transmission, due to the resistance of the line, or "drop" in the line, is governed by the size of the conductors remaining the same. For a long-distance transmission, the loss will vary from 5% upwards. With a loss of 5% in the transmission, the efficiency will be slightly under 70%. We may expect the efficiency of the apparatus of to-day. Long-distance power transmission by electricity may be divided into three classes: (1) Those using continuous current; (2) Those using alternating current; and (3) regenerating or "motor-dynamo" systems. The efficiency of each of these general classes are tabulated as follows:

Low voltage	{	One machine.
		Machines in parallel.
High voltage	{	One machine.
		Machines in parallel.
	{	Machines in series.
		2 machines in series.
		Machines in multiple series.
		Machines in series.
Using single phase	{	Without conversions.
	{	With conversions.
Using multiphase	{	Without conversions.
	{	With conversions.
Using continuous.		
Using converter; line converter; alternating continuous.		
Continuous-continuous.		
Reconversion of any system.		

The efficiency of these systems vary with each part, and the general way may be tabulated as follows:

	System.	Advantages.	Disadvantages.
Continuous.	2-wire— Low voltage.	Safety, simplicity.	Expense for copper.
	High voltage.	Economy, simplicity.	Danger, difficulty building machines.
	3-wire.	Low voltage on machines and saving in copper.	Not saving enough copper for long distances. Necessary "balanced" system.
	Multiple-wire.	Low voltage at machines and saving in copper.	
Alternating.	Single phase.	Economy of copper.	Cannot start under load. Low efficiency.
	Multiphase.	Economy of copper, synchronous speed unnecessary; applicable to very long distances.	Complexity. Lower efficiency of transformer apparatus. Not "standard."
	Motor-dynamo.	High-voltage transmission. Low-voltage delivery.	Expensive. Low efficiency.

There are many factors which govern the selection of a system. For a problem considered there will be found certain fixed and certain variable conditions. In general the fixed factors are: (1) capacity of source of power; (2) cost of power at source; (3) cost of power by other means at point of delivery; (4) danger considerations at motors; (5) operation conditions; (6) construction conditions (length of line, character of country, etc.). The partly fixed conditions are: (7) power which must be delivered, i.e., the efficiency of the system; (8) size and number of delivery units. The variable conditions are: (9) initial voltage; (10) pounds of copper on line; (11) initial cost of all apparatus and construction; (12) expenses, operating charges, interest, depreciation, taxes, insurance, etc.; (13) liability of outages and stoppages; (14) danger at station and on line; (15) convenience in making changes, extensions, etc. Assuming that the cost of dynamos, motors, etc., will be approximately the same whatever the pressure, the great variation in the cost of wire at different pressures is shown by Mr. Hart in the following figures, giving the weights of copper required for transmitting 100 horse-power 5 miles:

Voltage.	Drop 10 per cent.	Drop 20 per cent.
2,000	16,800 lbs.	8,400 lbs.
2,000	7,400 "	3,700 "
10,000	620 "	310 "

Efficiency of a Combined Engine and Dynamo.—A 60-horse-power double-crank Williams engine mounted on a single base with dynamo of the Edison-Hopkinson type was tested in 1900, with results as follows: The low-pressure cylinder is 14 in. diam., 16 in. stroke, steam pressure 120 lbs. It is coupled to a dynamo constructed for an output of 60 amperes at 110 volts when driven at 430 revolutions per minute. The construction is of the bar construction, is plain shunt wound, and is fitted with commutator of hard drawn copper with mica insulation. Four brushes are carried on each rocker-arm.

Resistance of magnets	16 ohms
Resistance of armature	0.003 "
1 H.P.	83.3
2 H.P.	72.2
Total efficiency	86.7 per cent.
Consumption of water per 1 H.P. hour	21.6 pounds
Consumption of water per 2 H.P. hour	23 "

The engine and dynamo were worked above their full normal capacity, and this would tend to slightly increase the efficiency. The dynamo was run at 430 r.p.m. Loss in magnet coils, 756 watts, equal to 1.02 horse-power. Loss in armature coils, 756 watts, equal to 1.02 horse-power. Loss in brush contacts, 756 watts, equal to 1.02 horse-power. Loss in electrical resistance of the circuit, 756 watts, equal to 1.02 horse-power.

the load is spasmodic, with variations almost but a few minutes. The stored heat rises in quantity, and responds instantly to a (to say) the boiler is an immense reservoir of heat upon it is not continued loading, it will be the nominal capacity, and without any effect

will depend upon the type of engine. With one by Mr. Church, running non-condensing, and for actually evaporated per I.H.P. per hour will suffice. The engine duty under an average uniform from the duty under a variable load represents. Under the uniform load, 33 pounds of water performance, and the boiler could be properly figure. Under the violent fluctuations of railway of the engine will rise to about 28 pounds, a load is taken, and the boiler proportioned for sufficient margin. Other compound engines not a secure uniformity of duty will range up to at loads, and often to 60 pounds, and represent an can 35 to 40 pounds. The same is true of every engine, whether high speed or low speed, both of falling back of fuel duty under variable load.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING.

Power required to produce Light.—According to the quantity of energy, measured in watts, required to produce a given candle-power, measured by the light given out by a lamp, follows for different light-giving substances:

1 watt	Coal gas.....	68 watts.
4 "	Cannel gas.....	48 "
5 "	Incandescent lamp.,	15 "
6 "	Arc lamp.....	3 "
7 "		

production are about 1 for the arc lamp; 6 for the mineral-oil lamp; 10 for the gas-light; 67 for the

At Lamps. (*Eng'g*, Sept. 1, 1893, p. 382.)—From tests by Siemens and Halske, Berlin, it appears that the most economical lamps at different expenditure of watts per

Power.....	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5
.....	45	200	450	1000	1000

Tests of Lamps. (P. G. Gossler, *Electric Lamps* burning at a voltage above that for which a greater illuminating power than 10 candles, but the life is very considerably shortened. It has been observed from the factory do not average the same candle-power in different invoices; that is, lamps which are received quite uniform throughout that lot, but they vary made at other times.

Now the different illuminating-powers of a 16 c.p., various voltages from 25 to 80 volts:

20	53.5	55.0	56.5	58	59.2	72.5	80
1.055	1.007	1.161	1.220	1.29	1.419	1.484	1.58
15.8	20.5	29.4	39.3	50.7	74.5	103.2	141
52.75	57.57	64.55	72.02	79.98	96.78	107.5	
3.84	2.81	2.30	1.96	1.58	1.39		

(*Robinson*, M. I. C. E., *Eng'g News*, 1893, p. 1051.)
Arc-lamp is the most economical.

minating-power of an arc. It is now generally 10 amperes and not less than 45 volts between

The quality of the carbons will determine the results obtained in obtaining the most light or not, or the maximum intensity at one angle or another. The greater the current passing in an arc, the less is the resistance of the area with 4 amperes will have about 11 ohms, with 100 amperes .45 ohm.

From 50 to 60 lights in a series, each demanding a current of, say, 5000 volts. In going beyond this the results are greatly increased.

Electric Lighting.—Noll, How to Wire Industrial Electric Light Central Stations, \$6.00; Transformers in Theory and Practice, 2 vols., \$1.50; Electric Lighting, \$1.50; Algrave and Boulard, Production, and Application, \$5.00

ELECTRIC WELDING.

Electric welding generally used consists of an alternating-current transformer, the secondary of which is made so short in length as to supply the work currents of 100 volts, and of very large volume or rate of flow attached to the secondary terminals. Other forms of transformers constructed to yield alternating currents are used to the welding-clamps, are used to a limited

extent of the metal to be welded has a decided influence in welding from its comparatively low heat conductivity. (See papers by Sir F. Bramwell, Proc. Inst. Mech. Engrs., 1892, p. 1; and Elmh Thomson, Trans. A. I. M. E., xix.

page, Nov. 28, 1892, gives the following figures showing the time and power required to weld axles and tires:

AXLE-WELDING.

	Seconds.
requires 25 H.P. for.....	45
requires 30 H.P. for.....	48
requires 35 H.P. for.....	50
requires 40 H.P. for.....	70
requires 55 H.P. for.....	95
requires 90 H.P. for.....	100

The time and power required for welding the square of the extra metal in it, but in part to the care which it is given to perfect alignment.

TIRE-WELDING.

	Seconds.
requires 11 H.P. for.....	15
requires 25 H.P. for.....	25
requires 30 H.P. for.....	30
requires 35 H.P. for.....	40
requires 50 H.P. for.....	55
requires 42 H.P. for.....	65

The time and power required for welding the square of the extra metal in it, but in part to the care which it is given to perfect alignment.

The cost of the fuel used under the boilers for producing steam for electric welding is practically the same as the cost of fuel used in the machine, the removal of the upset and the cost of welding. From the data thus submitted, the cost of welding for any locality where the price of fuel and cost of

power is found that 2½-inch iron tires, 1 inch diameter, require a net horse-power required at this speed (power) per square inch of section, 30

size of arc-lamp at present manufactured requires a current of 6 amperes; but for steadiness and efficiency it is desirable to use not less than 6 amperes. The candle-power of arc-lamps varies considerably with the angle at which it is measured. The greatest intensity of candle-power is found at an angle of about 40° below the horizontal. The following table gives the approximate candle-power at various angles. The height of the lamps should be arranged so as to give an angle of less than 7° to the most distant point it is intended to serve.

Lighting-power of Arc-lamps.

Current in Amperes.	Candle-power.			
	Horizontal	At Angle of 7°.	At Angle of 10°.	At Angle of 30°.
6	92	175	307	332
8	126	300	360	546
10	220	420	495	770

The following data enable the coefficient of minimum lighting for streets to be determined:

Let P = candle-power of lamps;

L = maximum distance from lamp in feet;

H = height of lamp in feet;

X = a coefficient.

The light falling on the unit area of pavement varies inversely as the square of the distance from the lamp, and is directly proportional to the height at which it falls. This angle is nearly proportional to the height divided by the distance. Therefore

$$X = \frac{P}{L^2} \times \frac{H}{L} \text{ or } X = \frac{PH}{L^3}.$$

The usual standard of gas-lighting is represented by the amount falling on the unit area of pavement 50 feet away from a 12-c.p. lamp 9 feet high, which gives a coefficient as follows:

$$X = \frac{12 \times 9}{50^3} = 0.000864.$$

The minimum standard represents the amount of light on a unit area 50 feet away from a 24-c.p. lamp, 9 ft. high, and gives the coefficient .000864.

Adopting the first of the above coefficients, Mr. Robinson calculates the before-mentioned sizes of arc-lights will give the same amount of light at the heights and distances stated in Table A. Table B gives the corresponding distances, assuming the minimum standard to be adopted.

TABLE A.					TABLE B.		
Hgt. of Lamps.	30 ft.	35 ft.	40 ft.	45 ft.	Height ...	30 ft.	35 ft.
Current in Amperes.	Max. distances served from lamp, in ft.				Amperes.	Max. distance from Lamp	
6	160	175	190	202	6	180	144
8	185	202	220	235	8	150	105
10	205	225	243	260	10	120	72

The distances the lamps are apart would, of course, be about twice those mentioned in Tables A and B. One arc-lamp will take the place of 3 to 6 gas lamps, according to the locality arrangement and the standard of light adopted. A scheme of arc lighting, based on the standard of light on the average for 3½ to 4 gas-lamps, would double the standard of light, while the average standard would be increased 50 per cent.

Candle-power of the Arc-light. (Edwin Thompson, *Proc. Inst. Elec. Engrs.*, 1901.) With the lamp at the maximum intensity (12 c.p.) the beam of light is directed at an angle of 40° towards the horizontal. The spherical area of light is a cone of the rated c.p., which is generally taken at the base of the cone in the horizontal direction. For this reason the term "candle-power" is used.

BOND.

power of an arc. It is now generally known that not less than 45 volts between the carbons will determine the intensity of the light or heat, or the obtaining the most angle or another intensity at one angle or another. A current passing in an arc, this loss is with 4 amperes will have about 11 ohms, 100 amperes 45 ohms, 60 lights in a series, each demanding 3,000 volts. In going beyond this the increased

Electric Lighting.—Noll, How to Wire Electric Light Central Stations, \$6.00; Formers in Theory and Practice, 2 vols., \$1.50; Lighting, \$1.50; Algrave and Boulard, 1 vol., and Application, \$5.00

WELDING.

used consists of an alternating-current high-potential current to the primary coil, the secondary of which is made so long as to supply to the work currents of very large volume or rate of flow, and of secondary terminals. Other forms constructed to yield alternating currents the welding-clamps, are used to a limited

the metal to be welded has a decided influence on its comparatively low heat conductivity. (See papers by Sir F. Bramwell, Proc. Roy. Soc., and Elisha Thomson, Trans. A. I. M. E., xix.

iv., 38, 1892, gives the following figures shown for weld axes and tires:

AXLE-WELDING.	Seconds.
Requires 25 H.P. for.....	45
Requires 30 H.P. for.....	48
Requires 35 H.P. for.....	60
Requires 40 H.P. for.....	70
Requires 55 H.P. for.....	96
Requires 60 H.P. for.....	100

time and power required for welding the square extra metal in it, but in part to the care which it perfect alignment.

TIRE-WELDING.	Seconds.
Requires 11 H.P. for.....	15
Requires 28 H.P. for.....	25
Requires 20 H.P. for.....	30
Requires 33 H.P. for.....	40
Requires 29 H.P. for.....	55
Requires 42 H.P. for.....	63

for welding is of course that required for the actual current only, and does not include that consumed by tires in the machine, the removal of the upset and loss. From the data thus submitted, the cost of welding for any locality where the price of fuel and cost of

The cost of the fuel used under the boilers for producing welding is practically the same as the cost of fuel of same amount of work, taking into consideration the fuel used in either case. It was found that 2½-inch iron tubes ¼ inch thick were the net horse-power required at this speed being 24.4 (horse-power) per square inch of section. Brass tubes

at the radiator per pound of coal burned in the $10 + 2\frac{1}{2} = 872$ H.U. An ordinary steam-heating per lb of coal for heating; hence the efficiency of the steam-heating system as 872 (Eng'g News, Aug. 9, '00; Mar. 30, '02; May 15, '03.)

ACCUMULATORS OR STORAGE-BATTERIES.

divided into two classes; viz., those in which the from the substance of the element itself, either electro-chemical action, and those in which the derated by the application of some easily reducible of the former type are usually called Planté, and "or" "pasted."

ing a solution of acetate of lead found that per- at the positive and metallic lead at the negative elements in a newly and fully charged Planté cell peroxide of lead, PbO_2 , and spongy metallic lead, positive and negative plates.

or if the cell be allowed to remain at rest, the sul- the solution enters into combination with the per- and partially converts it into sulphate. The acid icted from the electrolyte as the discharge proceeds, ion becomes less. In the charging operation this the reducible sulphates of lead which have been decomposed, the acid being reinstated in the liquid n increase in its density.

ntial developed by lead and lead peroxide immersed arly as may be, two volts.

gradually loses its electrical energy by local action, ying according to the circumstances of its prepara- f the cell. Various forms of both Planté and Faure in "Practical Electrical Engineering."

ed cells lead plates are coated with minium or ate with acidulated water. When dry these plates dilute H_2SO_4 and subjected to the action of the side on the positive plate is converted into peroxide negative plate reduced to finely divided or porous

found that the initial electro-motive force of the 1 volta, but after being allowed to rest some little about 2.0 volts. The following tables show the size es of Faure cells, known as the E. P. S. cells. (Eng-

"E. S." Storage-cells, L Type.

Working Rate.		Capacity. Ampere hours.	Approximate Exter- nal Dimensions.				Weight of Cell complete with Acid.
Charge	Dis- charge.		Length.	Width.	Height.	Height over all.	
Amper.	Amper.		in.	in.	in.	in.	Lbs.
10 to 13	1 to 13	130	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	74
10 " 13	1 " 13	130	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	68
16 " 22	1 " 22	220	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	107
16 " 22	1 " 22	220	8	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	101
25 " 30	1 " 30	330	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	149
25 " 30	1 " 30	330	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	100
38 " 46	1 " 46	500	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	
38 " 46	1 " 46	500	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	
60 " 60	1 " 60	660	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	
60 " 60	1 " 60	660	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	

"E. P. S." Cells, T Type.

No. of Plates.	Description of Cell.	Weight of Electrolyte.	Working Rate		Capacity, ampere hours.	Approx. External Dimensions			
			Charge	Discharge		Length.	Width.	Height.	Height over all.
		lbs.	Ampers.	Ampers.		in.	in.	in.	in.
11.	Wood (no lid) ...	10	16 to 20	1 to 20	66	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	" (with lid) ...	10	16 " 20	1 " 20	66	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	Ebonite (no lid) ...	10	16 " 20	1 " 20	66	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
15.	Wood (no lid) ...	14	24 " 32	1 " 30	96	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	" (with lid) ...	14	24 " 32	1 " 30	96	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	Ebonite (no lid) ...	14	24 " 32	1 " 30	96	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
19.	Wood (no lid) ...	18	30 " 35	1 " 40	120	11	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	" (with lid) ...	18	30 " 35	1 " 40	120	11	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	Ebonite (no lid) ...	18	30 " 35	1 " 40	120	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	23
23.	Wood (no lid) ...	22	38 " 42	1 " 50	145	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	" (with lid) ...	22	38 " 42	1 " 50	145	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
	Ebonite ...	22	38 " 42	1 " 50	145	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	23

For a very full description of various forms of storage battery, see "Practical Electrical Engineering," part xii. For theory of the battery practice with the Julien battery, see paper on Electrical Accumulators, P. G. Salom, Trans. A. I. M. E., xviii, 348.

Use of Storage-batteries in Power and Light Stations. (From *Eng. Rec.*, Nov. 2, 1903.)—The storage-batteries in the Edison Station, Fifty-third Street, New York, relieve the other stations at the hours of load, by delivering into the mains a certain amount of current the otherwise have to come, and at greater loss or "drop," from one of the stations connecting with the network of mains. Hence the load may be varied more or less arbitrarily at these stations according to the time of day, and the larger stations are desired or able to carry.

The battery consists of 140 cells each of about 1000 ampere-hours capacity, weighing some 750 lbs., and of about 48 inches in length, 21 inches in width and 15 inches in depth. The battery has a normal discharge rate of 200 amperes, but can be discharged, if necessary, at 500 amperes.

A test made when the station was running only 12 hours per day, from noon to midnight, showed that the battery furnished about 23,000 ampere-hours of energy delivered to the mains. The maximum rate of discharge of the battery was about 270 amperes. Thus, in this case, we have an ample of a battery which is used for the purpose: 1. Of giving a station machinery that would otherwise be idle. 2. Utilizing the energy to increase the rate of output of the station at the time of load, which would otherwise necessitate greater dynamo capacity.

The Working Current, or Energy Efficiency, of a cell is the ratio between the value of the current or energy expended in charging operation, and that obtained when the cell is discharged at specified rate.

In a lead storage cell, if the surface and quantity of active material are accurately proportioned, and if the discharge be commenced immediately after the termination of the charge, then a current efficiency of about 98% may be obtained, provided the rate of discharge is low and uniform. In practice it is found that low rates of discharge are not used, and as the current efficiency always decreases as the discharge rate increases, it is found that the normal current efficiency seldom rises and averages about 85%.

As the normal discharging electro-motive force of a lead storage battery never exceeds 2 volts, and as an electro-motive force of from 2 to 2.5 volts is required at its poles to overcome both its opposing internal resistance and its internal resistance, there is an initial loss of 25% between the normal discharging potential and that given out during its discharging. As the normal discharging potential is continually being reduced as the discharge increases, it follows that an energy efficiency of

fact, a maximum of 75% and a mean of 62% of lead-sulphuric-acid storage-cells.

CHEMICAL EQUIVALENTS.

Atomic Weight.	Chemical Equiv. atom.	Electro-chemical Equivalent (milligrammes per coulomb).	Coulombs per gramme.	Grammes per ampere hour.
1.00	1.00	.010384	96323.00	0.03738
2.04	38.04	.40589	2467.50	1.46960
2.09	22.99	.28673	4188.90	0.85942
7.8	9.1	.09449	1058.30	3.40180
11.94	11.97	.12430	804.03	4.47470
16.2	16.4	.07911	1478.50	2.44480
17.66	107.66	1.11800	804.41	4.02500
5.00	31.5	.32709	3058.60	1.17700
8.00	63.00	.65419	1525.30	2.35500
9.8	20.9	1.08740	963.90	3.73150
9.8	190.8	2.07470	481.90	2.46900
7.8	29.45	.30581	3270.00	1.10060
7.8	58.9	.61162	1635.00	2.20180
5.9	18.64	.19356	5166.4	0.69681
5.9	27.95	.29035	3445.60	1.04480
8.6	29.3	.30425	3286.60	1.03590
4.9	32.45	.33606	2967.10	1.21330
6.4	103.2	1.07160	983.26	3.85780
5.90	7.98	.08266		
5.37	25.37	.26723		
6.63	126.63	1.31390		
10.75	79.75	.82812		
4.01	4.07	.04849		

atom-replacing power of an element commonly is unity.

of one atom of each element compared with its unity.

Today's law showed that the electro-chemical is proportional to its chemical equivalent. The weight, and not to atomic weight + valency, matter, and others who have copied their salt is an exception to Thompson's rule, as

HYDROLYSIS.

compound into its constituents by means of the nomenclature relating to electrolysis he decomposed the Electrolyte, and the poles of the battery he called Electrodes. If a measure exists he called the Anode, and the products of decomposition he called Ions.

current of one ampere will deposit 0.017255 gram per second on one of the plates of a silvered being a solution of silver nitrate con-

is set free by a current of one

Knowing the amount of hydrogen thus set free, and the chemical equivalents of the constituents of other substances, we can calculate what weight of their elements will be set free or deposited in a given time by a given current.

Thus the current that liberates 1 gramme of hydrogen will liberate 8 grammes of oxygen, or 107.5 grammes of silver, the numbers 8 and 107.5 being the chemical equivalents for oxygen and silver respectively.

To find the weight of metal deposited by a given current in a given time, find the weight of hydrogen liberated by the given current in the same time, and multiply by the chemical equivalent of the metal.

Thus: Weight of silver deposited in 10 seconds by a current of 10 amperes = weight of hydrogen liberated per second \times number seconds \times strength \times 107.5 = .00001038 \times 10 \times 10 \times 107.5 = .11178 grammes.

Weight of copper deposited in 1 hour by a current of 10 amperes = .00001038 \times 3600 \times 10 \times 31.5 = 11.77 grammes.

Since 1 ampere per second liberates .00001038 grammes of hydrogen, strength of current in amperes

$$= \frac{\text{weight in grammes of H. liberated per second}}{.00001038}$$

$$= \frac{\text{weight of element liberated per second}}{.00001038 \times \text{chemical equivalent of element}}$$

The table on page 1057 (from "Practical Electrical Engineering") is calculated upon Lord Rayleigh's determination of the electro-chemical equivalents and Roscoe's atomic weights.

ELECTRO-MAGNETS.

Units of Electro-magnetic Measurements.

C.G.S. unit of force = 1 dyne = 1.01936 milligrammes in localities where the acceleration due to gravity is 981 centimetres, or 32.185 feet, per second.

C.C.S. unit of energy = 1 erg = energy required to overcome the resistance of 1 dyne at a speed of 1 centimetre per second. 1 watt = 10^7 ergs.

Unit magnetism = that amount of magnetic matter which, if concentrated in a point, will repel an equal amount of magnetic matter concentrated at another point one centimetre distant with the force of one dyne.

Unit strength of field = that flow of magnetic lines which will exert mechanical force upon unit pole, or a density of 1 line per square centimetre.

The following definitions of practical units of the magnetic circuit are given in Houston and Kennelly's "Electrical Engineering Leaflets."

Gilbert, the unit of magneto-motive force; such a M.M.F. as would be produced by $\frac{10}{4\pi}$ or 0.7958 ampere-turn.

If an air-core solenoid or hollow anchoring-ring were wound with 1000 ft. of insulated wire carrying a current of 5 amperes, the M.M.F. exerted would be 500 ampere-turns = 628.5 gilberts.

Weber, the unit of magnetic flux; the flux due to unit M.M.F. when reluctance is one oersted.

Gauss, the unit of magnetic flux-density, or one weber per normal centimetre.

The flux-density of the earth's magnetic field in the neighborhood of New York is about 0.6 gauss, directed downwards at an inclination of 72° .

Oersted, the unit of magnetic reluctance; the reluctance of a cubic metre of an air-pump vacuum.

Reluctance is that quantity in a magnetic circuit which limits the flux under a given M.M.F. It corresponds to the resistance in the electric circuit.

The *reluctivity* of any medium is its specific reluctance, and in the C.G.S. system is the reluctance offered by a cubic centimetre of the body between two opposed parallel faces. The reluctivity of nearly all substances, other than the magnetic metals, is sensibly that of vacuum, is equal to unity, and is independent of the flux density.

Permeability is the reciprocal of magnetic reluctivity.

netic circuit is

$$\frac{\text{gilberts}}{10^8} = \frac{\text{ersteds}}{10^9}$$

res + magnetic reluctance,

ersteds = gilberts ÷ webers.

creasing the magnetic flux: 1. by increasing the reluctance.

In discussing magnetic and electrical circuits, it is assumed that the attractions and repulsions of a conductor upon iron filings are the same as for a magnet or conductor. The "number" of the forces acting. As the iron filings form circles, we may assume that the lines of force are "loops of force." The following assumptions are made:

1. The lines of force are parallel to the axis of the conductor.

2. The lines of force are proportional in number to the current in the conductor.

3. The lines of force are at right angles to the axis of the conductor.

4. The magnetic field is equal at all points on the surface of a given radius about that surface of 4π square centimetres. If the number of lines of force emanating from a magnetic matter,

$$F = \frac{M}{4\pi}.$$

Product of strength of pole M and its distance r .

$$\text{Magnetic moment} = \frac{LF}{4\pi}.$$

5. The magnetic induction, B , is the number of lines of force per square centimetre of cross-section, and A = cross-section,

$$B = \frac{LA}{4\pi}.$$

6. The magnetic field whose induction is H , is all horizontal and at right angles to the direction of the current. The lines of force will be pulled forward, that is, in the direction of the current. The south pole will be pulled in the direction of the current, producing a torsional moment or torque.

7. The magnetic field is 4π , in dyne-centimetres.

8. The magnetic field from a point varies inversely as the square of the distance from the point. The law of inverse squares, as applied to the magnetic field, is not strictly correct, as the lines of force are small, as in dynamo-electric induction of heat," page 467.)

9. The magnetic field. In an electric magnet made by winding a coil of wire around a core of soft iron, the space between the poles is called the magnetic field, and the length of the field is proportional to the length of the core surrounding the magnet. Under the influence of the current passing through a given number of magnetic loops will depend upon the strength of the current with a given pressure upon the resistance of the circuit.

10. The most important principles concerning the construction of an electro-magnet is nearly proportional to the strength of the magnetizing current, provided the core is of soft iron.

(c) The magnetic strength is proportional to the number of turns in the magnetizing coil; that is, to the number of ampere turns.

(d) The magnetic strength is independent of the thickness or of the number of the conducting wires.

These laws may be embraced in the more general statement: The strength of an electro-magnet, the size of the magnet being the same, is proportional to the number of its ampere turns.

Force in the Gap between Two Poles of a Magnet. F = force exerted by one of the poles upon a unit pole in the gap; density of lines in the field (that is, that there are m absolute or C on each square centimetre of the polar surface of the magnet, the surface being large relative to the breadth of the gap, $F = 2\pi m$, the force exerted upon the unit pole by both north and south pole magnet is $2F = 4\pi m$, in dynes = B , or the induction in lines of force per square centimetre. If S = number of square centimetres in the surface, SB = total flow of force, or field strength = F ; $Sm = 1$, strength = M , spread over each of the polar surfaces. We then have $4\pi M$, as before; that is, the total field is 4π times the total pole strength.

Total attractive force between the two opposing poles of a magnet, the distance apart is small, $= \frac{SB^2}{8\pi}$, in dynes.

This formula may be used to determine the lifting-power of a magnet, thus:

A bent magnet provided with a keeper is 3 cm. square on each end; the induction $B = 20,000$ lines per square centimetre. The attraction of each limb on the keeper in dynes $= \frac{9 \times 20000^2}{8 \times 8.14}$, or in kilograms both limbs, $\frac{9 \times 400 \times 10^6}{25.12 \times 981000} \times 2 = 292$ kilogrammes.

The Magnetic Circuit.—In the conductive circuit we have

$$\text{Current} = \frac{\text{electro-motive force}}{\text{resistance}} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{ohms}}.$$

In the magnetic circuit we have
Number of lines, or loops, of force, or magnetism

$$= \frac{\text{Current} \times \text{conductor turns}}{\text{Resistance of magnetic circuit}} = \frac{\text{Ampere turns}}{\text{Resistance of magnetic circuit}}.$$

Or, in the new notation, webers = $\frac{\text{gilberts}}{\text{oerstedes}}.$

Let N = No. of lines of force, R_m = total magnetic resistance, in ampere turns, then $N = \frac{At}{R_m}.$

The magnetic pressure due to the ampere turns $= \frac{4}{10} \pi TC$, where T = turns and C = amperes, whence $N = \frac{.4\pi TC}{R_m} = \frac{1.257 TC}{R_m}.$

If R_m = total magnetic resistance, and R_a, R_A, R_F the magnetic resistances of the air-spaces, the armature, and the field-magnets, respectively,

$$R_m = R_a + R_A + R_F; \text{ and } N = \frac{.4\pi TC}{R_a + R_A + R_F}.$$

Determining the Polarity of Electro-magnets.—If a wire is wound around a magnet in a right-handed helix, the end at which the current flows into the helix is the south pole. If a wire is wound around an ordinary wood screw, and the current flows around the helix in a direction from the head of the screw to the point, the head of the screw is the south pole. If a magnet is held so that the south pole is opposite the observer, the wire being wound as a right-handed helix around the magnet, the current flows in a right-handed direction, with the hands of a clock.

ELECTRIC MACHINES.

Electric machines, viz.:

1. Mechanical energy of rotation is converted into

2. Electrical energy of rotation is converted into

3. A direct current is converted into

4. Which the energy of one or more alter-

5. Chemical energy of rotation.

6. Effect of the potential difference and the

7. If the energy given off. With alternat-

8. Its current strength is greater than the

9. The property of reacting upon itself.

Electric Machines as regards Man-

Electrical Dictionary.

1. Machine for the conversion of mechan-

2. Means of magnetoelectric induction.

3. The field-magnets are excited by more

4. Than a single electric source.

5. Arm-coils are grouped in sections com-

6. A collector, so as to be connected con-

7. Arm-coils, though connected to the suc-

8. Not connected continuously in a closed

9. All-magnets are excited by means of

10. Distinct from those which furnish cur-

11. The field magnet coils have no connec-

12. Receive their current from a separate

13. Direct-current and the external circuit are

14. The circuit, so that the entire armature

15. Coils.

16. In armature coils, the field, and the ex-

17. Increase in the resistance of the ex-

18. Electro-motive force from the decrease in

19. Is in the resistance of the external cir-

20. The electro-motive forces from the in-

21. The use of a regulator avoids these

Compound-wound Dynamo.

1. There are

2. Magnet cores, one of which is connected

3. The external circuit, and the other with

4. Is excited.

5. Field-magnet coils are placed in a shunt

6. A portion of the circuit generated

7. Is, but all the difference of potential of

8. Of the field-circuit.

9. Increase in the resistance of the external

10. Force, and a decrease in the resistance

11. Electro-motive force. This is just the

12. Continuous balancing of the current occurs.

13. Between the field and the external cir-

14. Resistance of these circuits, if the resist-

15. Is greater, a proportionately greater

16. Acts, and so causes the electro-motive

17. Contrary, the resistance of the external

18. Is through the field, and the electro-

19. Based.

Compound-wound Dynamo.

1. The

2. Coils, one of which is in a

3. And the other in shunt w

4. Compound-wound machine.

5. Compound-wound Dyna

$$P_h = \frac{1CB}{9810000} = 10.19371CB10^{-3} \text{ kilogram}$$

EXAMPLE.—The mean strength of field, B , of a dynamo a current of 100 amperes flows through a wire; the force metres of the wire = $10.1937 \times 10 \times 100 \times 5000 \times 10^{-8}$.

In the "English" or Kapp's system of measurement C.G.S. lines is taken to equal one English line. Calling English, or Kapp's, lines per square inch, and B the induction per square centimetre, $B_E = B + 980.04$; and taking P_p pounds, $P_p = 531 C l'' B_E 10^{-6}$ pounds.

Torque of an Armature.— P_p in the last formula to move one wire of length l'' , which carries a current of the field whose induction is B_E English lines per square inch through a drum-armature splits at the commutator each half going through half of the wires or bars upon one of the wires under the influence of a pole-piece, number of wires under the pole-pieces, then the total force radius of the armature to the centre of the conductor then the torque = $\frac{1}{2} P_p r$, = $\frac{1}{2} \times 531 \times C l'' B_E \times 10^{-6}$ moment, or pounds acting at a radius of 1 foot.

EXAMPLE.—Let the length l of an armature = 20 in., .5 ft., number of conductors = 120, of which $t = 60$ are of the two pole-pieces at one time, the average induction through the armature-field $B_E = 5$ English lines per inch, current passing through the armature = 400 amperes;

$$\text{Torque} = \frac{1}{2} \times 531 \times 400 \times 90 \times 5 \times 80 \times .5 \times$$

The work done in one revolution = torque \times circumference of 1 foot radius = $424.8 \times 6.28 = 2670$ foot-pounds.

Let the revolutions per minute = 500, then the horse-power

$$= \frac{2670 \times 500}{33000} = 40.5 \text{ H.P.}$$

Electro-motive Force of the Armature C
horse-power, calculated as above, together with the ad-

$\left. \begin{array}{l} 10^{-6} \\ 10^{-6} \end{array} \right\}$ for two-pole machines.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} 10^{-1} \\ 10^{-6} \end{array} \right\}$ for multipolar machines with series-wound armature.

$1.615FvC10^{-10}$ } for two-pole machines.
 $7.052rC10^{-6}$ }
 $8.23Fvcp10^{-10}$ } for multipolar machines.
 $14.10Zrtp10^{-6}$ }

length of armature $l = 20$ in., diameter $d = 240$ sq. in., induction per sq. in. $B_g = 240 \times 5 = 1200$; then

$$190 \times 500 \times 10^{-6} = 78 \text{ volts.}$$

by Kapp is

$$ZN\pi m10^{-6}C_a$$

$$2abmN\pi m10^{-6}C_a.$$

per min., $2ab =$ sectional area of armatures per sq. in. of armature-core, $N\pi =$ lines all around the circumference, $l =$ length of plate in the commutator, $N =$ number of English lines of force.

shown that the density of lines m in the air which is reached when the core is saturated is reached when $m = 30$. A fair average for iron is $m = 30$, and the area ab must be the gross area of the core. 20 C.G.S. lines per square centimetre. Silverside in continuous-current machines than $B = 17,000$ C.G.S. lines per square

for the magnetic field in the gap-space of sq. cm., or 40,000 lines per sq. in., and 1 lb. for each ampere of current carried.

$$H.P. \times 33,000$$

$$or = \frac{ft. \text{ per min.} \times C}{C}, \text{ in which } C \text{ is the armature.}$$

Field.—Kapp gives for the total number of C.G.S. lines $(+ 0000)$ in the magnetic circuit

$Z =$ number of magnetic lines, $X =$ the

turns $= .4\pi TC$, R_a , R_A , and $R_F =$ resistances, the armature, and the field-magnet.

values of R_a , R_A , and R_F for dynamos of wrought iron, with a permeability of $\mu =$

$$d = \frac{l}{ab}; R_F = 2 \frac{L}{AB};$$

span between armature-core and polar measured parallel to axis, $L =$ length of that $ab =$ the polar area out of which length of armature-core, so that $ab =$ section occupied by iron only being subtracted, a length of magnetic circuit in field magnet, a

$$\text{For cast-iron magnets, } Z = \frac{0.8X}{1800 \frac{28}{\lambda b} + \frac{2l}{ab} + \frac{8L}{AB}}$$

For double horse-shoe magnets of wrought iron,

$$\frac{Z}{2} = \frac{X}{1440 \frac{28}{\lambda b} + \frac{2l}{ab} + \frac{2L}{AB}}$$

$$\text{and of cast iron, } \frac{Z}{2} = \frac{0.8X}{1800 \frac{28}{\lambda b} + \frac{2l}{ab} + \frac{8L}{AB}}$$

These formulæ apply only to cases in which the intensity of magnetism is not too great—say up to 10 Kapp's lines per square inch.

Silvanus P. Thompson gives the following method of calculating the strength of the field, or the magnetic flux, MF , or the whole number of magnetic lines flowing in the circuit in C.G.S. lines:

The magnetic resistance of any magnetic conductor is proportionally to its length and inversely to its cross-section and its permeability.

Magnetic resistance = $\frac{L}{S\mu}$, in which L = length of the magnetic part passing through any piece of iron, S = section of the magnetic part passing through any piece of iron, μ = permeability of that piece of iron. In a dynamo-machine in which the resistances are three, viz.: 1. The field-magnet cores; 2. The armature-core; 3. The gaps or air-spaces between them,—

let L_m, S_m, μ_m refer to the field-magnet part of the circuit;

L_{as}, S_{as}, μ_{as} refer to the air-space part of the circuit;

L_a, S_a, μ_a refer to the armature part of the circuit:

the lengths across each of the air-spaces being L_{as} , and the exposed polar surface at either pole being S_{as} .

$$\text{Total magnetic resistance} = \frac{L_m}{S_m \mu_m} + \frac{L_{as}}{S_{as} \mu_{as}} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a}$$

Magnetic flux, or total number of magnetic lines, =

$$MF = \frac{1.257 T_w C}{\frac{L_m}{S_m \mu_m} + \frac{L_{as}}{S_{as} \mu_{as}} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a}}$$

T_w = turns of wires, or number of turns in the spiral;

C = current in amperes passing through spiral.

Application to Designing of Dynamos. (S. P. Thompson.)

Suppose in designing a dynamo it has been decided what will be the speed, how many conductors shall be wound upon the armature, what quantity of magnetic lines there must be in the field, it then becomes necessary to calculate the sizes of the iron parts and the quantity of iron to be provided for by the field-magnet coils. It being known what is to be, the problem is to design the machine so as to get the best value. Experience shows that in every type of dynamo there is leakage; also, that it is not wise to push the saturation of the armature to more than 16,000 lines to the square centimetre at the most highly rated part, and that the induction in the field-magnet ought to be greater than this, even allowing for leakage. Leakage may amount to the whole; hence, if the magnet-cores are made of same quality as the armature-cores, their cross-section ought to be at least 5/4 as that of the armature-core at its narrowest point. If the field-cores are of cast iron, the section ought to be at least twice as great.

Now, B_a (the induction in the armature-core) = $M_a + S_a$ (or magnetic flux through armature ÷ cross-sectional area of the armature; hence B_a is fixed at 16,000 lines per centimetre of cross-section, we at once have $M_a + B_a$. This fixes the cross-section of the armature-core. (If $M_a = 4,000,000$ of lines, then there must be a cross-section equal to $\frac{4,000,000}{16,000} = 250$.)

Circuit.—The size of wires on the armatures which it must carry without risk, current (in ring or drum armatures) passes number is supposed to have been fixed (i.e., the quantity of copper that must be put on takes that the core should be made so large winding does not exceed 1/6 of the radial ties the size of the armature-core, from cage length of path of the magnetic lines

Area of Air-space.—Experience further and the advantage of making the pole-machines) of at least 135° each, so as to ties L_{as} and S_{as} .

cores, etc.—As shown above, the minimum and materials; L_m therefore remains to magnet-cores must be long enough to allow is, but should not be longer. As a rule, ly in the yoke part, that they do not add of the circuit, then a little extra length as it matter much. It now only remains to turns of excitation for which it will be

to rewrite the formula of the magnetic

$$\frac{L_m}{S_m \mu_m} + 2 \frac{L_{as}}{S_{as} \mu_{as}} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a} \div 1.257$$

passing through the field-magnet coils;

net wire;

ay 5/4).

$$M_a = \frac{\lambda K_m + R_{as} + R_a}{1.257}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{A \times T_{m10}}{\lambda K_m + R_{as} + R_a}$$

the magnetic resistance of magnets, air-

yet, because the values of μ in it depend on on in the various parts. These have to be given below; and, indeed, it is preferable once more, by dividing it into its separate y the ampere-turns requisite to force the es through the separate parts, and then

$$\text{magnet-cores} = \lambda \frac{M_a}{S_m} \times \frac{L_m}{\mu_m} \div 1.257$$

$$\text{air-spaces} = \frac{M_a}{S_{as}} \times 2 \frac{L_{as}}{\mu_{as}} \div 1.257$$

$$\text{armature-core} = \frac{M_a}{S_a} \times \frac{L_a}{\mu_a} \div 1.257$$

the magnet-cores, and reference to the table

the corresponding value of μ_m must be.

0 μ_a . When the total number of ampere-

determined, the size and length c^p

the rise of temperature, and t^s

ther in series, or as a shunt

Permeability.—Materials differ in regard to the resistance to the passage of lines of force; thus iron is more permeable than steel. The permeability of a substance is expressed by a coefficient μ , which is its relation to the permeability of air, which is taken as 1. If H = number of magnetic lines per square centimetre which will pass through space between the poles of a magnet, and B the number of lines which pass through a certain piece of iron in that space, then $\mu = B/H$. Permeability varies with the quality of the iron, and the degree of magnetization, reaching a practical limit for soft wrought iron when $B = 20,000$ and for cast iron when $B =$ about 10,000 C.G.S. lines per square centimetre.

The following values are given by Thompson as calculated from Jamieson's experiments:

Annealed Wrought Iron.			Gray Cast Iron.	
B	H	μ	B	H
5,000	2	2,500	4,000	5
9,000	4	2,250	5,000	10
10,000	5	2,000	6,000	21.5
11,000	6.5	1,692	7,000	42
12,000	8.5	1,412	8,000	80
13,000	12	1,083	9,000	137
14,000	17	823	10,000	186
15,000	28.5	526	11,000	292
16,000	52	308		
17,000	105	161		
18,000	200	90		
19,000	350	54		

Permissible Amperage and Permissible Depth of Insulation for Magnets with Cotton-covered Wire. (Walter H. Engineer, Dec. 31, 1892.)—The tables on pp. 1008, 1009, showing those of Mr. Dix, are calculated from the formula

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{12 \times W}{\frac{\omega_m f}{M} \times T \times L}}$$

where C = current;

W = emissivity in watts per square inch;

$\omega_m f$ = ohms per mil-foot;

M = circular mils;

T = turns per linear inch;

L = number of layers in depth.

The emissivity is taken at 3 watt per sq. in. for stationary magnets, and at 1 watt per sq. in. for rotating magnets. For armatures, according to experiments, it is approximately correct to say that 9 watt per sq. in. will be dissipated for a rise of 35° C.

The insulation allowed is .007 inch on No. 0 to No. 11 B. & S.; .005 inch on No. 12 to No. 24; and .0045 inch on No. 25 to No. 31 single. The values for insulation of double-covered wires. Fifteen per cent is allowed for imbedding of the wires.

The standard of resistance employed is 0.612 ohms per mil-foot at a running temperature of tables is taken at 25° + 35° = 60° C. The giving the depth for one layer is the diameter over insulation.

Formulas of Efficiency of Dynamos.

(S. P. Thompson in "Munro and Jamieson's Pocket-Book.")

Total Electrical Energy (per second) of any dynamo (expressed in watts) is the product of the whole E.M.F. generated by armature-coils and the whole current which passes through the armature.

Useful Electrical Energy (per second), or useful output of the dynamo, is the product of the useful part of the E.M.F. (i.e., that part which is available for the machine) into the useful part of the current which flows from the terminals into the load.

Arm. Barre, Inches.	Circu- lar Mils.	Ohms per foot at 60°C.	Lvs. per foot.	Layers.													
				Barre.	Cover'd	Turns per linear inch.		1		6		10		20			
						Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.		
3	394	6066	0001435	341	3.30	97.8	300	49.7	1.334	31.0	9.68	91.9	6.33				
3	350	67081	000180	331	3.00	80.4	373	39.1	1.022	27.1	8.41	10.1	4.70				
4	3576	6873	000189	331	3.08	81.0	3710	37.7	1.016	26.8	8.40	10.0	4.70				
4	3298	59644	000218	172	3.07	79.4	300	33.6	1.136	23.9	9.91	10.8	4.47				
5	3284	62634	000250	150	4.11	71.6	3334	31.0	1.064	23.7	9.16	10.6	4.27				
5	322	48400	000730	140	4.37	67.3	3334	30.0	1.016	23.3	9.07	10.5	4.10				
6	3043	41749	000980	126	4.78	60.3	3183	30.0	1.093	20.1	1.03	13.0	3.84				
6	303	41200	000992	125	4.61	60.8	3217	30.0	1.074	18.9	1.09	13.0	3.80				
7	31619	33102	000305	100	5.19	50.0	3100	32.7	860	16.1	1.23	11.4	3.16				
7	3185	37325	000113	0825	5.16	50.0	3103	32.3	871	15.8	1.21	11.9	3.16				
8	3162	36251	000150	0751	5.59	44.1	1719	19.7	834	13.0	1.06	9.91	3.100				
8	3148	31901	000551	0633	5.68	42.0	1719	19.7	834	13.0	1.06	9.91	3.100				
9	3443	30817	000575	0638	6.17	37.0	1163	10.6	737	11.9	1.35	8.41	3.100				
10	3134	17366	000072	0544	6.32	36.3	1585	10.1	712	11.3	1.40	8.10	3.18				
10	1285	10510	000731	0501	6.70	30.0	1325	13.6	640	9.78	1.36	6.84	3.100				
11	12	14400	000398	0136	7.40	27.7	134	12.5	602	8.70	1.10	6.84	3.100				
	1144	13091	000022	0303	7.79	25.7	1384	11.5	577	8.14	1.13	6.75	3.100				

Permissible Amperage and Permissible Depth of Winding for Magnets with Single Cotton-covered Wire.

[illegible]

B. & S.	Bir.	Diam. Barrel, inches.	Circu- lar, Barrel, inches.	Girth, per foot at 60° C.	LINES PER INCH.			Cover'd	Turns per linear inch.		1			2			Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.		
					Bare.	Lines per inch.	Turns		Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.									
2	3	284	80655	0.007405	.344	3.36	97.8	.366	483.7	1.384	31.0	2.63	31.0	2.63	31.0	2.63	31.0	2.63	31.0	2.63	31.0	2.63	31.0	2.63
2	3	289	80581	0.00740	.293	3.68	85.4	.373	381.1	1.352	27.1	3.41	10.1	3.41	10.1	3.41	10.1	3.41	10.1	3.41	10.1	3.41	10.1	3.41
2	4	376	69573	0.00782	.301	3.67	84.6	.371	371.0	1.316	20.8	3.40	16.8	3.40	16.8	3.40	16.8	3.40	16.8	3.40	16.8	3.40	16.8	3.40
3	3	338	56634	0.00713	.172	4.11	75.4	.372	333.6	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75
3	3	334	56634	0.007259	.150	4.11	71.6	.364	330.4	1.135	22.7	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0	3.75	16.0					

Alternating Currents, Multiphase Currents, Transformers, etc.—The proper discussion of these subjects would take more space than can be afforded in this work. Consult S. P. Thompson's "Dynamo-Electric Machinery," Bedell and Crehore on "Alternating Currents," Fleming on "Alternating Currents," and Kapp on "Dynamoes, Alternators and Transformers."

The Electric Motor.—The electric motor is the same machine as the dynamo, but with the nature of its operation reversed. In the dynamo mechanical energy, such as from a belt, is converted into electric current; in the motor the current entering the machine is converted into mechanical energy, which may be taken off by a belt. The difference in the action of the machine as a dynamo and as a motor is thus explained by Prof. F. E. Crocker, (*Cassier's Mag.*, March, 1895):

In the case of the dynamo there exists only one E.M.F., whereas in the motor there must always be two.

One kilowatt dynamo, $C = E \div R$; 10 amperes = 100 volts \div 10 ohms.

One kilowatt motor, $C = \frac{E - e}{R_1}$; 10 amperes = $\frac{100 \text{ volts} - 90 \text{ volts}}{1 \text{ ohm}}$.

C is the current; E , the direct E.M.F.; e , the counter E.M.F.; R , the total resistance of the circuit; R_1 , the resistance of the armature. The current and direct E.M.F. are the same in the two cases, but the resistance is only one tenth as much in the case of the motor, the difference being replaced by the counter E.M.F., which acts like resistance to reduce the current. In the case of the motor the counter E.M.F. represents the amount of the electrical energy converted into mechanical energy. The so-called electrical efficiency or conversion factor = counter E.M.F. \div direct E.M.F. The actual or commercial efficiency is somewhat less than this, owing to friction, Foucault currents, and hysteresis.

For full discussions of the theory and practice of electric motors see S. P. Thompson's "Dynamo-Electric Machinery," Kapp's "Electric Transmission of Energy," Martin and Wetzler's "The Electric Motor and its Applications," Cox's "Continuous Current Dynamoes and Motors," and Crocker and Wheeler's "Practical Management of Dynamoes and Motors."

IS QUOTED IN THIS BOOK.

ice or a few times only, the page or pages
writers of text-books, who are quoted fre-
" affixed in place of the page-number,
both as to names and page numbers.

128 Buel, Richard H., 606, 834
Buffalo Forge Co., 519, 529
Builders' Iron Foundry, 874
Burr, Wm. A., 565
Burr, Wm. H., 247, 259, 290, 381

133 Calvert, F. Crace, 386
Calvert & Johnson, 409
Campbell, H. H., 398, 450, 650
Campredon, Louis, 403
Carnegie Steel Co., 177, 272, 277, 391
Carpenter, R. G., 454, 615, 718, etc.
Chadwick Lead Works, 201, 615
Chamberlain, P. M., 474

Chance, H. M., 631
Chandler, Chas. F., 532
Chapman Valve Mfg. Co., 193
Chauvenet, S. H., 370
Chase, Chas. P., 312
Chevandier, Eugene, 640

Christie, James, 304
Church, Irving P., 415
Church, Wm. Lee, 784, 1050
Clapp, Geo. H., 397, 403, 551
Clark, Daniel Kinnear, various
Clarke, Edwin, 740

Claudel, 455
Clay, F. W., 291
Clerk, Dugald, 847
Cloud, John W., 351
Coddman, J. E., 193
Coffey, B. H., 510

Conlin, Freeman C., 203
Cogswell, W. B., 554
Cole, Romaine C., 329
Coleman, J. J., 470

Cooper, John H., 876, 900
Cooper, Theodore, 262, 263, 359
Cotterill and Slade, 432, 574
Cowles, Eugene H., 320, 331

Cox, A. J., 290
Cox, E. T., 629
Cox, William, 575
Coxe, Eckley B., 632

Craddock, Thomas, 473
Cramp, E. S., 405
Crimp, Santo, 564
Crocker, F. B., 1070
Cummins, Wm. Russell, 773

700 Daelen, R. M., 617
Dagger, John H. J., 320
Daniel, Wm., 492
D'Arcy, 563
Davenport, R. W., 630

Dny, R. E., 1^{non}
Dean, F. W.

Deceaur, P., 600
 DeMeritens, A., 386
 Denton, James E., 730, 761, 781, 932
 Dinmore, R. E., 903
 Dix, Walter S., 308, 1066
 Dodge Manufacturing Co., 844
 Donald, J. T., 235
 Donkin, B., Jr., 491, 783
 Dudley, Chas. B., 327, 333
 Dudley, P. H., 401, 623
 Dudley, W. D., 167
 Dulong, M., 458, 476
 Dunbar, J. H., 793
 Durand, Prof., 56
 Dweishauvers-Dery, 668

Egleston, Thomas, 335, 641
 Emery, Chas. E., 608, 613, 830
 Engsthardt, F. E., 468
 Ellis and Howland, 577
 English, Thos., 753
 Ericsson, John, 236
 Eytelwein, 564

Fairbairn, Sir Wm., 240, 304, 308, 354
 Fairley, W., 531, 533
 Falkenau, A., 609
 Fanning, J. T., 364, 570
 Favre and Silbermann, 621
 Felton, C. E., 643
 Fernow, B. E., 640
 Field, C. J., 30, 937
 Flitts, James H., 844
 Flather, J. J., 961, 964
 Flynn, E. J., 463, 569
 Foley, Nelson, 700
 Forbes, Prof., 1033
 Forney, M. N., 355
 Forsyth, Wm., 630
 Foster, R. J., 631
 Francis, J. B., 586, 739, 867
 Frazer, Persifer, 624
 Freeman, J. R., 581, 584
 Frith, A. J., 874
 Fulton, John, 687

Ganguillet & Kutter, 565
 Gautt, H. L., 406
 Garrison, F. L., 326, 331, 406
 Garvin Machine Co., 955
 Gause, F. T., 601
 Gay, Paulin, 966
 Gill, J. P., 667
 Gilmore, E. P., 241
 Glatisher, 483
 Glasgow, A. G., 654
 Goodman, John, 934
 Gordon, F. W., 639, 740
 Gordon, 347
 Goss, W. F. M., 863
 Gossler, P. G., 1051
 Graft, Frederick, 386
 Graham, W., 250
 Grant, George B., 898
 Grant, J. J., 960
 Grashof, Dr., 284
 Gray, J. McFarlane, 661
 Gray, J. M., 958
 Greene, D. M., 507

Greig and Eyth, 363
 Grosseteste, W., 715
 Gruner, L., 623

Hadfield, R. A., 391, 409
 Halpin, Drutt, 789, 954
 Halsey, Fred'k A., 490, 817
 Harkness, Wm., 900
 Harrison, W. H., 939
 Hart, F. R., 1047
 Hartig, J., 961
 Hartman, John M., 364
 Hartnell, Wilson, 344, 818, 888
 Hasson, W. F. C., 1047
 Hawksley, T., 485, 513, 564
 Hazen, H. Allen, 404
 Henderson, G. R., 247, 851
 Henthorn, J. T., 965
 Hering, Carl, 1045
 Herschel, Clemens, 583
 Hewitt, G. C., 630
 Hewitt, Wm., 917
 Hildenbrand, Wm., 913
 Hill, John W., 17
 Hiseux, G. D., 908
 Hoadley, John C., 451, 698
 Hobart, J. J., 962
 Hodgkinson, 248
 Holley, Alexander L., 377
 Honey, F. R., 47, 52
 Hoopes & Townsend, 210
 Houston, Edwin J., 1061
 Houston & Kennelly, 1058
 Howard, James E., 242, 322, 325
 Howden, James, 714
 Howe, Henry M., 402, 407, 451, 514
 Howe, Malverd A., 170, 312
 Howland, A. H., 292
 Hudson, John G., 465
 Hughes, D. E., 396
 Hughes, H. W., 909
 Hughes, Thos. E., 917
 Humphreys, Alex. C., 652
 Hunsicker, Millard, 307
 Hunt, Alfred E., 325, 317, 392, 653
 Hunt, Chas. W., 340, 922
 Huston, Charles, 383
 Hutton, Dr., 84
 Huyghens, 58

Ingersoll-Sergeant Drill Co., 553
 Isherwood, Benj. F., 472

Jacobus, D. S., 511, 689, 726, 780
 Johnson, J. B., 309, 314
 Johnson, W. B., 475
 Johnson, W. R., 390
 Jones, Horace K., 387
 Jones & Lamson Machine Co., 954
 Jones & Laughlin, 867, 886

Kapp, Gisbert, 1033
 Keep, W. J., 365, 951
 Kennedy, A. B. W., 355, 525, 764
 Kernot, Prof., 404
 Kerr, Walter C., 781
 Kiersted, W., 292
 Kimball, J. P., 493, 632, 657
 Kinealy, J. H., 637

Nau, J. B., 367, 409
 Newberry, J. S., 634
 Newcomb, Simon, 482
 New Jersey Steel & Iron Co., 253, 310
 Newton, Sir Isaac, 475
 Nichol, B. C., 473
 Nichols, 285
 Norris, R. Van A., 521
 Norwalk Iron Works Co., 488, 504
 Nystrom, John W., 365

Ordway, Prof., 469

Paret, T. Dunkin, 267
 Parker, W., 354
 Parsons, H. de B., 361
 Passburg, Emil, 463
 Pattinson, John, 629
 Pecllet, M., 471, 478, 731
 Pelton Water Wheel Co., 191, 574, 585
 Pence, W. D., 294
 Pencoyd Iron Works, 179, 232, 868
 Pennell, Arthur, 555
 Pennsylvania R. R. Co., 307, 375, 399
 Philadelphia Engineering Works, 533
 Philbrick, P. H., 440
 Phillips, W. B., 629
 Phoenix Bridge Co., 263
 Phoenix Iron Co., 181, 257
 Pierce, C. S., 494
 Pierce, H. M., 641
 Pittsburg Testing Laboratory, 343
 Platt, John, 617
 Pocock, F. A., 505
 Porter, Chas. T., 662, 787, 820
 Potter, E. C., 646
 Pottsville Iron & Steel Co., 250
 Pouillet, 455
 Pourcel, Alexandre, 404
 Poupardin, M., 687
 Powell, A. M., 975
 Pratt & Whitney Co., 802, 972
 Price, C. S., 638
 Prony, 564
 Prybil, P., 977

Quereau, C. H., 663, 863

Ramsey, Erskine, 638
 Rand Drill Co., 490, 505
 Randolph & Cloves, 198
 Rankine, W. J. M., various
 Ransome, Ernest L., 241
 Raymond, R. W., 631, 650
 Reese, Jacob, 966
 Regnault, M., various
 Reichhelm, E. P., 651
 Ronnie, John, 928
 Renleaux, various
 Richards, Frank, 488, 491, 500
 Richards, John, 965, 976
 Richards, Windsor, 404
 Riedler, Prof., 507
 Rites, F. M., 783, 818
 Roberts-Austen, Prof., 451
 Robinson, H., 1051
 Robinson, S. W., 583
 Rockwood, G. J., 78
 John A. Roebling's

- Roelker, C. R., 365
 Roney, W. R., 711
 Roota, P. H. & F. M., 526
 Rose, Joshua, 414, 860, 970
 Rothwell, R. P., 537
 Rowland, Prof., 456
 Royce, Fred. P., 1053
 Rudiger, E. A., 671
 Runkles, W. B. Jr., 361
 Russell, S. Bent, 567
 Rust and Coolidge, 290

 Sadler, S. P., 689
 Saint Venant, 283
 Salom, P. G., 406, 1056
 Sandberg, C. P., 384
 Saunders, J. L., 544
 Saunders, W. L., 506
 Scheffler, F. A., 681
 Schröter, Prof., 788
 Schutte, L., & Co., 527
 Seaton, various
 Sellers, Coleman, 890, 953, 975
 Sellers, Wm., 304
 Sharpless, S. P., 311, 639
 Shelton, F. H., 653
 Shock, W. H., 307
 Simpson, 56
 Sinclair, Angus, 863
 Sloane, T. O'Connor, 1027
 Smeaton, Wm., 493
 Smith, Chas. A., 537, 874
 Smith, C. Shaler, 256, 865
 Smith, Hamilton, Jr., 556
 Smith, Jesse M., 1050
 Smith, J. Bucknall, 225, 308
 Smith, Oberlin, 865, 978
 Smith, R. H., 962
 Smith, Scott A., 874
 Snell, Henry I., 514
 Stahl, Albert W., 599
 Stanwood, J. B., 802, 800, 812, 815
 Stead, J. E., 409
 Stearns, Albert, 465
 Stein and Schwarz, 410
 Stephens, B. F., 392
 Stillman, Thos. B., 944
 Stockalper, E., 403
 Stromeyer, O. E., 396
 Struthers, Joseph, 451
 Sturtevant, B. F., Co., 487, 578
 Sut, J. C. H., 344
 Styffe, Knut, 383
 Suplee, H. H., 769, 773
 Suter, Geo. A., 524
 Sweet, John E., 686

 Tabor, Harris, 751
 Tatham & Bros., 201
 Taylor, Fred. W., 880
 Taylor, W. J., 646
 Theiss, Emil, 818
 Thomas, J. W., 369
 Thompson, Silvanus P., 1064, 1065
 Thomson, Elihu, 1052
 Thomson, Sir Wm., 461, 1060
 Thurston, R. H., various
 Tilghman, B. F., 966
 Tompkins, C. R., 336

 Torrance, H. C., 401
 Torrey, Joseph, 582, 830
 Tower, Beauchamp, 931, 934
 Towne, Henry R., 876, 907, 911
 Townsend, David, 953
 Trautwine, J. C., 59, 118, 311, 482
 Trautwine, J. C., Jr., 255
 Trenton Iron Co., 216, 223, 320, 915
 Tribe, James, 765
 Troitz, E., 453
 Trowbridge, John, 467
 Trowbridge, W. P., 478, 513, 783
 Tull, J. E., 616
 Tweddell, R. H., 619
 Tyler, A. H., 940

 Uchatius, Gen'l, 321
 Unwin, W. Cawthorne, various
 Urquhart, Thos., 645
 U. S. Testing Board, 308

 Vacuum Oil Co., 943
 Vair, G. O., 950
 Violette, M., 640, 642
 Vladimiroff, L., 316

 Waide, Major, 321, 374
 Wallis, J. W., 404
 Walker Mfg. Co., 905
 Wallis, Philip, 855
 Warren Foundry & Mach. Co., 704
 Weaver, W. D., 1043
 Webber, Samuel, 591, 963
 Webber, W. O., 408
 Webster, W. R., 349
 Weidemann & Franz, 469
 Weightman, W. H., 762
 Weissbach, Dr. Julius, various
 Wellington, A. M., 200, 928, 933
 West, Chas. D., 916
 West, Thomas D., 328
 Westinghouse & Gulton, 928
 Westinghouse El. & Mfg. Co.,
 Weston, Edward, 1029
 Whitham, Jay M., 472, 789, 790
 Whitney, A. J., 380
 Willett, J. R., 538, 540
 Williamson, Prof., 68
 Wilson, Robert, 284
 Wheeler, H. A., 908
 White, Chas. F., 714
 White, Mansel, 408
 Wobler, 238, 240
 Wolcott, F. P., 949
 Wolff, Alfred R., 494, 517, 522
 Wood, De Volson, various
 Wood, H. A., 9
 Wood, M. F., 386, 390
 Woodbury, C. J. H., 537, 931
 Wootten, J. E., 865
 Wright, C. R. Alder, 831
 Wright, A. W., 289

 Yarrow, A. F., 710
 Yarrow & Co., 307
 Yates, J. A., 287

 Zahner, Robert, 496
 Zeuner, 821

INDEX.

- Analyses of alloys (*see* Alloys)
 of asbestos, 235
 of coals (*see* Coal)
 of fire-clay, 234
 of magnesite, 235
 of steel (*see* Steel)
 of water, 553
 Analytical geometry, 69
 Anemometer, 491
 Angle bars, sizes and weights, 171
 weight and strength, 479
 Angle, the economical, 447
 Angles, plotting without protractor, 52
 problems in, 37-38
 Angular velocity, 425
 Animal power, 433
 Annealing, effect on conductivity,
 1049
 iron, effect of on magnetic capacity,
 390
 non-oxidizing process of, 337
 of steel, 394, 413
 Annuities, 15-17
 Annular gearing, 606
 Anthracite, analyses of, 634
 gas, 647
 space occupied by, 625
 value of sizes of, 632
 Anti-friction metals, 932
 Antimony, 167
 alloys, 396
 Apothecaries' measure and weight,
 18, 19
 Arc lamps, lighting power of, 1032
 Arches, tie-rods for, 281
 Area of circles, 103, 108
 of irregular figures, 55, 56
 Arithmetic, 2
 Arithmetical progression, 11
 Armature circuit, E. M. F. of, 1062
 Asbestos, 235
 Asymptotes of hyperbola, 71
 Atmosphere, moisture in, 483
 Atomic weight of elements, 183
 Avoirdupois weight, 19
 Axles, steel, specifications for, 401
 strength of, 399
 Babbitt metals, 396
 Babcock & Wilcox boiler
 different coals, 636

- Bagasse as fuel, 643
 Balance, to weigh on an incorrect, 19
 Ball bearings, 210
 Bands and belts, theory of, 876
 Bands for carrying grain, 911
 Barometric readings, 482
 Barrels (see Casks), 64
 • No. of in tanks, 126
 Baumé's hydrometer, 166
 Bazin's experiments on weirs, 587
 formula, flow of water, 563
 Beams and channels, Trenton, 278
 Beams, flexure of, 267
 of uniform strength, 271
 safe load of pine, 1023
 safe loads, 269
 strength of, 268
 Bearing-metal alloys, 333
 Bearing metals, anti friction, 683
 Bearings (see Journal-bearings)
 ball, 340
 for high speeds, 941
 pivot, 939
 Bed-plates of engines, 817
 Belt cement, 887
 conveyors, 911
 dressings, 887
 Belting, 876-887
 strength of, 902, 906
 Belts, open and crossed, 874, 884
 Belts and curves, effect of on flow of
 water, 878
 Bends, valves, etc., resistance to flow
 in, 488, 622
 Bessemer steel, 391
 Bessemerized cast-iron, 375
 Bevel wheels, 808
 Binomials, theorem, 33, 35
 Birmingham Gauge, 29
 Birnouth, 167
 alloys, 392
 Bituminous coal (see Coal)
 Blast-furnace boilers, 680
 Blocks or pulleys, 438
 strength of, 906
 Blowers and fans, 511-536
 experiments with, 514
 for emulsion, 519, 950
 positive rotary, 536
 steam-jet, 527
 Blowing engines, 526
 Blue heat, effect on steel, 395
 Board measure, 20
 Boiler compounds, 717
 explosions, 720
 furnaces, height of, 711
 heads, 706
 heads, strength of, 284-286
 seals, 732
 ship, and tank plates, 399
 the steam, 677-741
 tubes, 196
 tubes, holding power of, 307
 Boilers (see steam-boilers)
 for steam-heating, 528
 locomotive, 925
 Boiling point of water, 550
 Boiling points, 455
 Bolts and nuts, 309, 311
 Bolts, holding power of, 290
 strength of, 302
 Brass alloys, 325
 composition of rolled, 303
 sheet and bar, 303
 tubing, 198, 300
 wire and plates, 302
 Brick, fire, sizes of, 233, 234
 strength of, 302, 312
 Bricks, absorption of water by, 312
 magnesia, 235
 Brickwork, weight of, 169
 Bridge members, working stress,
 392
 proportioning materials in,
 trusses, 443
 Brine, specific gravity, etc., 404, 268
 Bronze (see Alloys), 319
 Bronzes, ancient, 323
 Building construction, 1019
 materials, sizes and weights, 184
 Buoyancy, 550
 Burr truss, 443
 Cables, electric, insulated, 1093
 wire, 222, 223
 Cable-ways, suspension, 915
 Cadmium, 167
 Calculus, differential, 72
 Caloric engines, 854
 Calorimeters, steam, 728
 Calorimetric tests of coal, 636
 Canals, the, 438
 Canals, speed of vessels on, 1008
 Canvas, strength of, 302
 Carbon, burned out of steel, 402
 effect of on strength of steel, 306
 Car-heating by steam, 538
 Casks, 64
 Castings, iron, analyses of, 373
 shrinkage of, 951
 steel, 405
 weight of, from pattern, 902
 Cast-iron, 365, 375
 and steel mixtures, 375
 bad, 375
 malleable, 375
 specific gravity, 374
 specifications, 374
 strength of, 369, 374
 Catenary, construction of, 51
 the wire-rope, 610
 Cement, weight of, 170
 for belts, 887
 mortar strength of, 313
 Centigrade and Fahrenheit table,
 Centis of gravity, 415
 of gyration, 420
 of oscillation, 421
 of percussion, 421
 Centrifugal fans, 511
 force, 420
 force in fly-wheels, 420, 922
 tension of belts, 579
 Ceramium alloys, 319
 Chain-blocks, 267
 cables, 298, 303
 Chains, crane, 222

- Compound units of weight and measure, 27
 Compressed air, 483, 490
 cranes, 512
 motors, 507
 transmission, 493
 steel, 410
 Compression and expansion of air, 502
 in steam engines, 751
 unit strains, 590
 Compressive strength, 244
 of iron bars, 594
 Compressors, air, 503
 Condenser, evaporative surface, 844
 Condensers, 839-846
 Condenser-tubes, transmission of heat in, 473
 Condensing water, continuous use of, 844
 Conduction of heat, 468
 Conductivity, electrical, 1028
 of steel, influence of composition on, 463
 Conductors, electrical, 1029
 Cone, measures of, 61
 pulleys, 874
 Conic sections, 71
 Conoid, parabolic, 63
 Connecting rods, 790
 rods, tapered, 801
 Conservation of energy, 492
 Construction of buildings, 1019
 Convection of heat, 471
 Conveyors, belt, 911
 Cooling of air for ventilation, 531
 Co-ordinate axes, 69
 Copper, 167
 at high temperatures, strength of, 309
 balls, hollow, 280
 round bolt, 263
 strength of, 300
 tubing, 230
 wire and plates, 202
 wire, tables of, 218-230
 wire, resistance of hot and cold, 1034, 1035
 wire, cost of for long-distance transmission, 1045
 Cordage, 341, 344, 006
 Cork, properties of, 316
 Corrosion of iron, 385
 of steam-boilers, 716, 719
 Corrosive agents in atmosphere, 386
 Corrugated iron, 181
 furnaces, 266, 702, 709
 Coscant of an angle, 65
 Cosine of an angle, 65
 Cosines, tables of, 159
 Cost of coal for steam-power, 789
 of steam-power, 790
 Cotangent of an angle, 65
 Counterbalancing engines, 768
 locomotives, 864
 of winding engines, 900
 Couples, 418
 Coverings for steel
 Cox's formula
 Cranes, classif

- Cranes, compressed-air, 912
 stress in, 440
 Crank angles, 830
 arms, 805, 806
 pins, 801, 804
 shafts, 813
 Cross-head guides, 798
 pins, 804
 Crushing steel, 410
 Crushing strength of masonry materials, 312
 Cubature of volumes of revolution, 75
 Cubes root, 8
 Cubes and cube-roots, table of, 86
 Cubic measure, 18
 Cylinders, blast-pipes for, 519
 blowers for, 519
 practice, 448
 Current motors, 580
 Currents, electric, 1030
 Cutting stone with wire, 966
 Cylind, construction of, 49
 differential equation of, 79
 measure of, 60
 Cylindrical teeth of gears, 892
 Cylinders and pipes, contents of, 120, 121
 condensation, 732, 733
 engine, dimensions of, 792
 hollow, resistance of, 354
 hollow, strength of, 287-289
 measures of, 61
 Cylindrical ring, 62
 Dangerous steam-boilers, 730
 Dam, stability of a, 417
 D'Arcy's formula, flow of water, 568
 Decimal equivalents of fractions, 3, 4
 Decimals, 3
 squares and cubes of, 101
 Deck beams, sizes and weights, 177
 Delta metal, 336
 wire, 235
 Denominate numbers, 5
 Deoxidized bronze, 327
 Derivicks, stresses in, 441
 Diametral pitch, 888
 Differential calculus, 72
 forms, integrals of, 73, 79
 gearing, 896
 pulley, 439
 screw, 439
 screw, efficiency of, 974
 windlass, 429
 Discount and interest, 13
 Disk fans, 524
 Displacement of vessels, 1001, 1008
 Draught of chimneys, 731
 Drawing-presses, blanks for, 973
 Drilling holes, speed of, 956
 machines, electric, 956
 Drop-press, pressure of, 973
 Drums for hoisting-ropes, 917
 Drying and evaporation, 462
 Drying in vacuum, 466
 Dry measure, 18
 Ductility of metals, 169
 Dust explosions, 642
 fuel, 642
 Durability of iron, 385
 Duroid's rule, 56
 Duty trials of pumping-engines, 609
 Dynamo and engine, efficiency of, 1048
 electric machines, 1061
 Dynamos, designing of, 1064
 efficiency of, 1066
 Dynamometers, 978-980
 Earths, weight of, 170
 Earth-filling, weight of, 170
 Eccentric loading of columns, 355
 Eccentrics, steam-engine, 816
 Economizers, fuel, 115
 Edison or circular mill wire gauge, 29, 30
 Efficiency of a machine, 423
 of boilers, 683, 689
 of electric transmission, 1047
 of pumps, 608, 609
 of steam-engines, 749, 775
 Effort, definition of, 429
 Elastic limit, 286
 elevation of, 288
 Elastic resilience, 270
 Elasticity, modulus of, 237, 314
 Electric accumulators, 1055
 conductivity of steel, 403
 generator, efficiency of, 1048
 heating, 546, 1054
 lighting, 1051
 motor, 1070
 pumping-plant, 1049
 railways, 1050
 transmission, 1038
 transmission, economy of, 1039
 welding, 1053
 Electrical engineering, 1034
 horse-powers, table of, 1042
 resistance, 1023
 standards of measurement, 1024
 units, 1024
 Electricity, analogy with flow
 water, 1027
 heating by, 546, 1054
 Electro-chemical equivalents, 1059
 magnetic measurements, 1058
 magnets, 1058
 magnets, polarity of, 1060
 Electrolysis, 1057
 Elements, chemical, 163
 of machines, 435
 Ellipse, construction of, 45
 equation of, 70
 measures of, 59
 Ellipsoid, 68
 Elongation, measure of, 243
 Emery, grades of, 968
 wheels, 967-969
 Endless screw, 440
 Energy, conservation of, 433
 of recoil of guns, 431
 or stored work, 429
 sources of, 432
 Engine-frames or bed-plates, 817
 Engines (see Steam-engines)
 blowing, 523
 gas, 847

INDEX.

- Flow of metals, 973
 of steam in pipes, 660
 of water from offices, 553, 544
 of water in house service pipes, 578
 of water over weirs, 526
 Flues, collapse of, 355
 corrugated, British rules, 596, 702
 corrugated, U. S. rules, 702
 (see also Tubes and Boilers)
 Fly-wheels, 417, 524
 arms of, 520
 wire-wound, 524
 wooden, 523
 Flynn's formula, flow of water, 592
 Foot, decimals of in fractions of inch,
 112
 pound, unit of work, 100
 Forced draught in marine practice,
 1015
 Force of a blow, 430
 of acceleration, 427
 unit of, 415
 Forces, composition of, 415
 equilibrium of, 416
 parallel, 417
 parallelogram of, 410
 parallelepipedon of, 416
 polygon of, 416
 resolution of, 415
 Forcing and shrinking fits, 973
 Forging, hydraulic, 618, 620
 tool-steel, 413
 Foundry, the, 945-950
 Fractions, 2
 Francis's formula for weirs, 590
 Freezing of water, 550
 French measures and weights, 21-23
 Friction and lubrication, 928-945
 brakes, 930
 of air in passages, 931
 of steam-engines, 941
 rollers, 910
 work of, 938
 Frictional heads, flow of water, 577
 Fuel, 690-691
 economizers, 715
 gas, 646
 pressed, 633
 theory of combustion of, 620
 weight of, 170
 Fuels, classification of, 621, 624
 Furnace, downward draught, 625, 712
 kinds of for different coals, 635
 formulas, 702
 Furnaces, corrugated, 596, 702, 709
 for boilers, 711
 gas-fuel, 651
 use of steam in, 650
 Fusible alloys, 333
 plugs for boilers, 710
 Fusibility of metals, 169
 Fusing-disk, Reese's, 906
 Fusing of wires by electric currents,
 1037
 temperatures, 455
 feet, table, 121
 in, 538

- Gas, ammonia, 992, 993
 -engines, 847
 -fired steam-boilers, 714
 flow of in pipes, 637
 fuel, 666
 illuminating, 651
 illuminating, fuel value of, 653
 pipe, sizes and weights, 183, 184
 producers, 649, 650
 sulphur-dioxide, 992
 Gases, expansion of by heat, 459
 heat of combustion of, 456
 weight and specific gravity of, 166
 properties of, 479
 specific heat of, 458
 waste, use under boilers, 689, 690
 Gasoline-engines, 850
 Gages, wire and sheet-metal, 38-31
 Gearing, efficiency of, 899
 frictional, 902
 of lathes, 955
 speed of, 905
 toothed-wheel, 439, 887-900
 Gear-teeth, strength of, 900-905
 -wheels, size and speed of, 891
 Geometrical problems, 37
 progression, 11
 propositions, 33
 German silver, 326, 333
 silver, strength of, 300
 Girders for boilers, 708
 Glass, skylight, 184
 strength of, 308
 Gold, 157
 Gordon's formula, 347
 Governors, 820
 Grain, weight of, 150
 Granite, strength of, 319
 Grate and heating surface of a boiler, 678
 Graphite as a lubricant, 945
 paint, 389
 Gravity, acceleration due to, 434
 centre of, 418
 specific, 163
 Greatest common measure, 2
 Greenhouse heating by hot water, 542
 by steam, 541
 Green's fuel economizers, 712
 Grindstones, 968, 970
 Gyration, centre and radius of, 247, 249, 430, 431
 Haulage, wire-rope, 912
 Hawley down-draught furnace, 712
 Heads of boilers, 706
 Heat, 448-478
 boiling-points, 455
 conduction of, 468
 convection of, 471
 expansion by, 459
 generated by electric currents, 1083
 latent, 461
 latent, of evaporation, 462
 latent, of fusion, 461
 melting-points, 455
 of combustion, 456
 radiation of, 467
 specific, 457
 Heat, storing of, 789
 transmitting powers of substances, 478
 unit, 455, 680
 Heaters, feed-water, 727
 Heating a building to 70° F., 545
 and ventilation, 532-546
 blower system of, 545
 by electricity, 546, 1054
 by exhaust-steam, 789
 by hot water, 542
 of electric conductors, 1083
 of large buildings, 534
 surface of boilers, 658
 Heine boiler, test with different coils, 688
 Helix, 60
 Hodgkinson's formula, 345
 Hoisting, 906-916
 coal, 343
 engines, power of, 908
 pneumatic, 909
 rope, 340
 Hooks, hoisting, 907
 Horse-gin, 434
 work of a, 434
 Horse power, 429
 constants, 757, 758
 of flowing water, 689
 of steam-boilers, 677, 679
 of steam engines, 755
 power-hours, 429
 Howe, friction losses in, 689
 Hot-air engines, 851
 water heating, 542
 Howe truss, 445
 Humidity in atmosphere, 483
 Hydraulic apparatus, 616
 engine, 619
 Hydraulics, flow of water, 555-580
 forging, 618
 grade line, 578
 power, 617
 pressure transmission, 616
 ram, 614
 Hydrometer, 165
 Hygrometer, dry and wet bulb, 60
 Hyperbola, equation of, 71
 construction of, 49
 Hyperbolic logarithms, 150
 curve in indicator diagrams, 750
 Hypocycloid, 50
 I-beams, sizes and weights, 177
 properties of, 274
 spacing of, 273, 290
 Ice and snow, 550
 Ice-making machines, 981-1001
 manufacture, 929
 Illuminating gas, 651
 Impact of bodies, 431
 Incandescent lamps, 1051
 Inches and fractions, decimals
 foot, 112
 Inclined plane, 437
 planes, hauling on, 913, 915
 planes, motion on, 423
 Incrustation and scale, 337, 338
 India rubber, tests of, 335

- Leakage of steam in engines, 761
- Least common multiple, 2
- Leather, strength of, 302
- Le Chatelier's pyrometer, 451
- Levelling by barometer, 483
- Lever, the bent, 436
- Lever, 435
- Lignites, Western, 631
- Lime, weight of, 170
- Limestone, strength of, 313
- Limit gauges for screw-threads, 205
- Lines of force, 1069
- Links, engine, 816
- Link-motion, 834
- Liquation of alloys, 323
- Liquid measure, 18
- Liquids, weight and sp. gr., 164
- Locomotive, fireless, 866
- Locomotives, 851-866
 - dimensions of, 860
 - tests of, 863
- Logarithmic curve, 71
 - sines, etc., 162
- Logarithms, hyperbolic, 156
 - differential of, 77
 - of numbers, 127-155
- Logs, lumber, etc., weight of, 232
- Loop, the steam, 870
- Loss of head in pipes, 573
- Lubricants, 942
- Lubrication, 942
- Lumber, weight of, 232
- Machines, elements of, 435
- Machine-shop, the, 953-978
 - shop practice, 953
 - shops, power used in, 965
 - screws, 308, 200
 - tools, power required for, 960-965
 - tools, proportioning sizes of, 975
- Maclaurin's theorem, 76
- Magnesia bricks, 235
- Magnesium, 168
- Magnetic balance, 396
 - capacity of iron, effect of annealing on, 396
 - circuit, 1060
 - circuit, units of, 1068
 - field, strength of, 1063
- Magnets, winding of, 1068
- Malleability of metals, 169
- Malleable castings, rules for, 376
 - cast-iron, 375
- Mandrels, sizes of, 972
- Manganese, 168
 - bronze, 381
 - influence of on cast-iron, 368
 - influence of on steel, 382
 - plating of iron, 387
 - steel, 407
- Mannesmann tubes, 206
- Manometer, air, 481
- Man-power, 433
- Manure as fuel, 643
- Mau-wheel, 434
- Marble, strength
- Marine engine
- engine, 10
- engine p

- Marine engine, ratio of cylinders, 766,**
 773
Marriotte's law, 470, 742
Masonry materials, strength of, 312
materials, weight and sp. gr., 166
Materials, 103-335
 strength of, 230-412
 Maxima and minima, 76
Measures and weights, 27
 of work, power, and duty, 27
Mechanical equivalent of heat, 456
powers (see Elements of Machines),
 435
 stokers, 711
Mechanics, 415-447
McKarski compressed-air tramway, 509
Melting-points of substances, 455
Memphis bridge, strains on steel, 381
Mensuration, 54
Mercury, 168
 bath pivot, 340
Merriman's formula for columns, 260
Mesuré and Nouel's pyrometer, 453
Metaline, 945
Metals, properties of the, 167
 table for calculating weight of, 169
 weight and sp. gr. of, 164
Metric conversion tables, 22-26
measures and weights, 21-22
Meters, water, 579
Mil, circular, 18, 20
Milling cutters, 367
 cutters for gears, 392
 machines, results with, 369
Mill power, 580
Miller's inch, 18
 inch measurement, 585
Mine-ventilating fans, 521
 ventilation, 531
Modulus of elasticity, 287, 314
Moisture in steam, 728
Molesworth's formula, flow of water,
 562
Moment of force, 416
 of inertia, 247, 419
 statical, 417
Momentum, 428
Morin's laws of friction, 333
Mortar, strength of, 313
Motion, Newton's laws of, 415
Motor, electric, 1070
Motors, compressed-air, 507
Moulding sand, 352
Moving strut, 426
Mules, power of, 435
Multiphase currents, 1070
Musket steel, 409

Nails, 213, 215
 screws, etc., holding power, 289-291
Naphtha-engines, 351
Napier's rule for flow of steam, 669
Natural gas, 640
Nautical measure, 17
Newton's laws of motion, 415
Nickel, 168
 alloys, 326, 338
 steel, 406
Nozzles, measurement of water by, 584
- Nuts and bolts, 209, 211**

Ohm, definition of, 1025
Ohm's law, 1030
Oil needed for engines, 943
Oils and coal as fuel, 646
 lubricating, 944
Open-hearth steel, 391
Ores, weight of, 170
Oscillation, centre of, 421
Oxen, power of, 435
Ordinates, 69

 π , value of, 57
Packing-rings, engines, 796
Paddle-wheels, 1013
Paint, qualities of, 329
Painting wood and iron structural,
Parabola, construction of, 49
 equation of, 70
Parabolic conoid, 63
Parallel forces, 417
Parallelogram, 54
 of forces, 416
Parentheses, 39
Partial payments, 15
Peat or turf, 643
Pelton-wheel table, 596
 water wheel, 597
Pendulum, 422
 conical, 423
Percussion, centre of, 422
Perforated plates, excess strength,
 359
Permutation, 10
Perpetual motion, 492
Petroleum, 645
 as fuel, 645, 646
 -burning locomotive, 865
 distillates of, 645
 engines, 850
 products, specifications, 944
Phosphor-bronze, 327, 331
 wire, 225
Phosphorus, influence of on cast-iron,
 367
 influence of on steel, 389
Piezometer, the, 582
Pig-iron, analysis of, 371
 chemistry of, 370
 grading of, 365
 influence of silicon, etc. on, 363
 tests of, 369
Pillars, strength of, 246
Pitot tube gauge, 583
Pipe,
 fittings, cast-iron, 187
 lead, 200, 201
 riveted, 197
 sheet-iron hydraulic, 191
 spiral riveted, 197
Pipes, air-bound, 579
 and cylinders, contents of, 130,
 cast-iron, thickness of, 183, 190
 cast-iron, weight of, 185, 186
 coiled, 199
 effect of bends in, 488, 578, 679
 flow of air in, 485
 flow of gas in, 657

- Pumps, air, 841
 - air-lift, 614
 - boiler-feed, 605, 736
 - capacity of, 601
 - centrifugal, 606, 609
 - circulating, 842
 - efficiency of, 603, 608
 - horse-power of, 601
 - piston speed of, 606
 - sizes of, 603
 - speed of water through, 603
 - steam-cylinders of, 602
 - suction of, 602
 - vacuum, 612
 - valves of, 605, 606
- Punched plates, strength of, 854
- Punches and dies, 972
- Punching and drilling steel, 395
 - steel, effect of, 394
- Purifying feed-water, 554
- Pyramid, 60
- Pyrometers, 451-453
- Pyrometry, 448-454
- Quadratic equations, 85
- Quadrature of a plane figure, 74
 - of surfaces of revolution, 75
- Quadruple-expansion engines, 772
- Quantitative measurement of heat, 465
- Quarter-twist belts, 933
- Queen-post truss, 442
- Radiating surface, rules for, 536
- Radiation of heat, 467
- Radiators, transmission of heat by, 475-477, 545
- Radius of gyration, 247, 420, 421
- Railroad trains, resistance of, 851
- Rail-steel, specifications, 401
- Rails, maximum safe load on, 865
 - steel, strength of, 398
- Railways, narrow-gauge, 865
- Railway trains, speed of, 859
- Ram, hydraulic, 614
- Ratio and proportion, 5
- Reamers, taper, 972
- Recalcitrance of steel, 402
- Receiver-space in engines, 766
- Reciprocals of numbers, 80
 - use of, 85
- Red lead as a preservative, 389
- Reduction, descending and ascending, 5
- Reflection of heat, 468
- Refrigerating-machines, 981-1001
- Registers and air-driets, 599
- Regnault's experiments on steam, 601
- Resilience, 238
 - elastic, 270
- Resistance, electrical, 1038
 - electric, of copper wire, 1039
 - electric, of steel, 403
 - of ships, 1002
 - of trains, 851
 - to repeated stresses, 238
- Resolution of forces, 415
- Rhombus and rhomboid, 232, 262
- Riveted joints, 222

- Riveting-machines, hydraulic, 618
 of steam-boilers, 700
 of steel plates, 394
 pressures, 392
 Rivets, diameter of, 360
 size, etc., 211
 Rivet steel, 401
 Roads, resistance of carriages on, 435
 Rock-drills, air required by, 506
 Roof-coverings, weight of, 184
 trusses, 446
 Roofing materials, 161, 164
 Rope driving, 922-927
 wire, 229-231
 Ropes, 301, 328, 306
 splitting, 341, 345
 Rotary blowers, 526
 steam-engines, 701
 Rotation, accelerated, 430
 Rubber belting, 687
 Rule of three, 6
 Rustless coatings for iron, 386

 Safety, factors of, 314
 Safety valves, 731
 Salinometer, strength of brines, 464
 Salt, manufacture of, 403
 solubility of, 464
 weight of, 170
 Sand-blast, 968
 moulding, 962
 Sawdust as fuel, 643
 Sawing metal, 966
 Scale and incrustation, 651
 in steam-boilers, 716
 Scheele's anti-friction curve, 60
 pivot-bearing, 939
 Screw-bolts, efficiency of, 974
 differential, 430
 endless, 440
 the, 437
 thread, Powell's, 973
 threads, 304, 308
 threads, metric, 956
 propeller, 1010
 Screws and screw-threads, 974
 holding power of, 290
 machine, 298, 306
 Secant of an angle, 65
 Sectors and segments, 59
 Sediment in steam-boilers, 717
 Seger's fire-clay pyrometer, 453
 Segments of a circle, table, 116
 Segregation in steel ingots, 404
 Separators, steam, 738
 Set screws, holding power of, 977
 Sewers, grade of, 566
 Shaft-bearings, 810
 governor, 838
 Shafting, 867-873
 table for laying out, 872
 Shafts, engine, 800-815
 fly-wheel, 869
 propeller, strength of, 815
 Shapes of test-specimens, 243
 Shearing, effect of on steel, 394
 strength of iron, 306
 strength of woods, 312
 resistance of rivets, 363

 Shearing, unit strains, 380
 Shear-poles, stresses in, 442
 Sheet-iron and steel, weight of, 4
 Shells, spherical strength of, 226
 Shingles, sizes and weight, 183
 Shipping measure, 19, 1001
 Ships, resistance of, 1002
 Shocks, resistance to, 240, 241
 Shot, lead, 394
 Shrinkage of castings, 951
 Shrinking-fits, 973
 Signs of trigonometrical functions
 arithmetical, 1
 Silicon-bronze wires, 225, 228
 Silicon, influence of on cast-iron
 influence of on steel, 389
 Silver, 168
 Simpson's rule, 56
 Sine of an angle, 65
 Sines, cosines, etc., table of, 169
 etc., logarithmic, 162
 Sinking-funds, 17
 Siphon, the, 681
 Slate, sizes and weights, 183
 Slide-valve, 824-835
 Smoke-prevention, 712
 Snow and ice, 550
 Soapstone as a lubricant, 945
 Softeners, use of in foundry, 966
 Softening hard water, 555
 Solders, 339
 Solid bodies, mensuration of, 6
 of revolution, 62
 measure, 18
 Specific gravity, 163
 gravity of alloys, 220, 223
 gravity of cast-iron, 374
 gravity of gases, 164
 gravity of steel, 468, 471
 gravity of stones, brick, etc.,
 heat, 457
 heat of air, 484
 Specifications for axles, steel,
 for car-axes, 401
 for cast-iron, 374
 for crank-pin steel, 400
 for oils, 914
 for plate-steel, 360, 400
 for rail-steel, 401
 for rivets, 401
 for spring-steel, 400
 for steel, 367
 for steel castings, 406
 for steel rods, 400
 for wrought iron, 378
 Speed of cutting tools, 953, 954
 of vessels, 1006
 Sphere, measures of, 61
 Spheres, table of, 118
 weights of, 169
 Spherical polygon, area of, 61
 segment, 62
 shells, strength of, 226
 steam-engine, 732
 triangle, area of, 61
 zone, 62
 Spheroid, 69
 Spikes, sizes and weights, 212
 Spindle, surface and volume

- Steam engines, economy of various sizes, 785, 786
 engines, economy with varying loads, 781
 engines, efficiency of, 740
 engines, efficiency of non-condensing compound, 781
 engines, feed-water, consumption of, 763, 760, 775
 engines, friction of, 941
 engines in electric stations, 785
 engines, marine, 1016
 engines, measures of duty, 748
 engines, most economical point of cut-off, 777
 engines, performance of, 775-789
 engines, piston speeds of, 787
 engines, putting on centre, 834
 engines, relative economy of, 780
 engines, rotary, 791
 engines, triple-expansion, 769
 expansive working of, 747
 flow of, 668
 flow of in pipes, 600
 heating, 636-640
 jacket, influence of, 787
 jet blowers, 527
 loop, 676
 loss of pressure in pipes, 671
 mean pressures, 743
 moisture in, 728
 pipe coverings, 460
 pipes, copper, 654
 pipes, loss from uncovered, 676
 pipes, marine, 1016
 pipes, overhead, 737
 pipes, size of for engines, 673
 pipes, valves in, 675
 pipes, wire-wound, 675
 superheated, 661
 supply mains, 539
 table of properties of, 659
 temperature, pressure, etc., 660-662
 turbines, 791
 vessels, dimensions, horse-power, etc., 1009
 vessels, trials of, 1007
 water in, effect of on economy of engines, 781
 work of in a single cylinder, 746, 740
 Steel, 380-414
 aluminum, 409
 analyses and properties of, 389
 annealing, 413
 Bessemer, 390-392
 bloomers, weight of, 176
 castings, 405
 chrome, 409
 compressed, 410
 crucible, 410
 effect of hammering, 413
 effect of heat on, 412
 effect of nicking, 402
 electric conductivity of, 403
 failures of, 403
 hardening of, 393
 manganese, 407
 Musher, 409
 open hearth, 391, 392



CLASSIFIED INDEX TO ADVERTISEMENTS.

AIR-COMPRESSORS AND ROCK-DRILLS.	PAGE
Ingersoll-Sergeant Drill Co.....	6
Norwalk Iron Works Co., The.....	2
Rand Drill Co.....	4
ALUMINUM METAL.	
Epping-Carpenter Co. (Limited).	17
ANTI-FRICTIONAL.	
Holmes Fibre-Graphite Mfg. Co.....	12
PIPE AND HOSE.	
Boston Belting Co.....	8
STEAM FEED-PUMPS.	
Epping-Carpenter Co. (Limited).....	17
STEAM INSPECTION AND INSURANCE.	
Hartford Steam Boiler Inspection and Insurance Co.....	9
STEAM ENGINES.	
Abendroth & Root Mfg. Co.....	4
STEAM TUBES AND PLATES.	
Lukens Iron & Steel Co.....	9
Morris, Tasker & Co. (Incorporated).....	10
IRON.	
Wiley & Sons, John.....	19
BRIDGE BUILDERS.	
Berlin Iron Bridge Co., The.....	18
STEEL FORGING.	
Rhode Island Tool Co.....	5
Weyman & Gordon.....	17
STEAM ENGINES.	
Watts-Campbell Co., The.....	2
STEAM WATER HEATERS.	
Goubert Mfg. Co., The.....	3
Taunton Locomotive Mfg. Co., The.....	13
STEAM-FIRE HYDRANTS.	
Chapman Valve Mfg. Co.....	7
STEAM ECONOMIZERS.	
Fuel-Economizer Co., The.....	8
STEAM ENGINES.	
Jawley Down-Draft Furnace Co., The.....	14
STEAM MACHINERY—ELEVATORS, CONVEYORS, ETC.	
Hunt Co., The C. W.....	1
STEAM ROLLING PRESSES.	
Dusen & Co., Tinius.....	10
STEAM ENGINES AND INSPIRATORS.	
Hancock Inspirator Co., The.....	1

- Wire rope tramways, 914
 strength of, 801, 803
 telegraph, 217, 221, 224
 wound fly-wheels, 824
Wiring formula for incandescent lighting, 1043
Wires, current required to fuse, 1037
Wire table for 100 and 500 volts, 1044
 table, hot and cold wires, 1034, 1035
Wohler's experiments, 236
Wood as fuel, 639
 composition of, 540
 expansion of, 311
 heating value of, 639
 strength of, 302, 306, 310, 313
 weight of, 105, 332
Wooden fly-wheels, 823
Woodstone or xylolith, 316
Woolf type of compound engine, 763
Wooten's locomotive, 855
Work, energy, power, 429
 Work of acceleration, 430
 of men and animals, 433
 unit of, 423
Worm-gear, 440
 gearing, 897
Wrist-pin, 804
Wrought-iron, 357-379
 chemistry of, 377
 specifications, 378
Xylolith or woodstone, 316
Yield point, 327
Z-bars, properties of, 276
 sizes and weights, 175
Zinc, 163
 tubing, 300
 use of in steam-boilers, 730
Zeuner valve-diagram, 827
Zero absolute, 461

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	PAGE
.....	6
.....	2
.....	6
Al.	17
Co.	12
.....	5
sted.	17
RE. ection and Insurance Co.	9
Do.	4
.....	9
ncorporated.	10
.....	19
The.	15
.....	5
.....	17
he.	2
.....	3
fg. Co., The.	13
o.	7
The.	6
rnace Co., The.	14
ATORS, CONVEYORS, ETC.	1
.....	10
, The.	14

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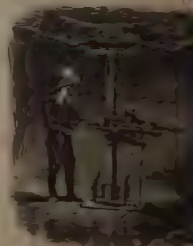
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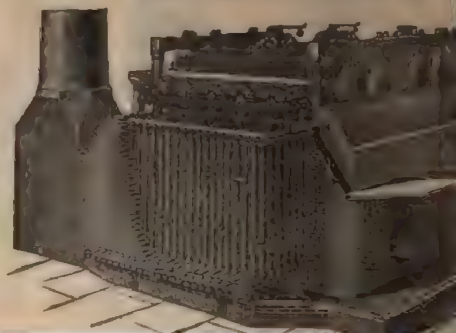
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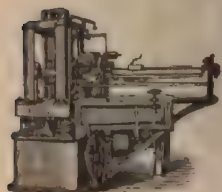
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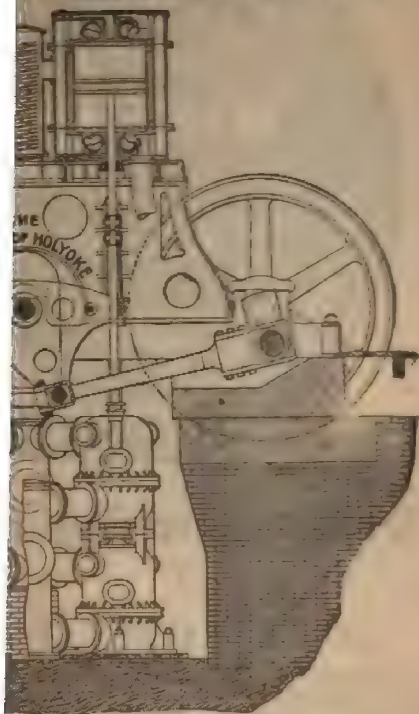
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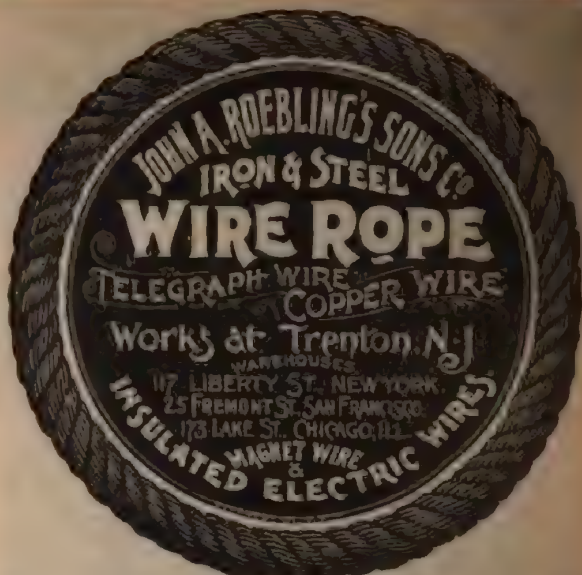
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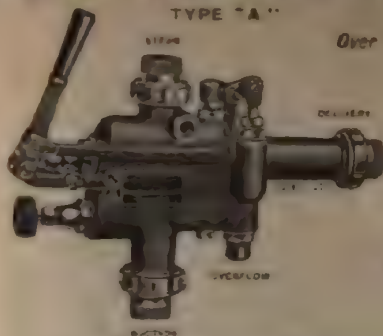
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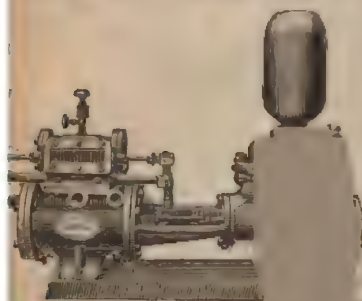
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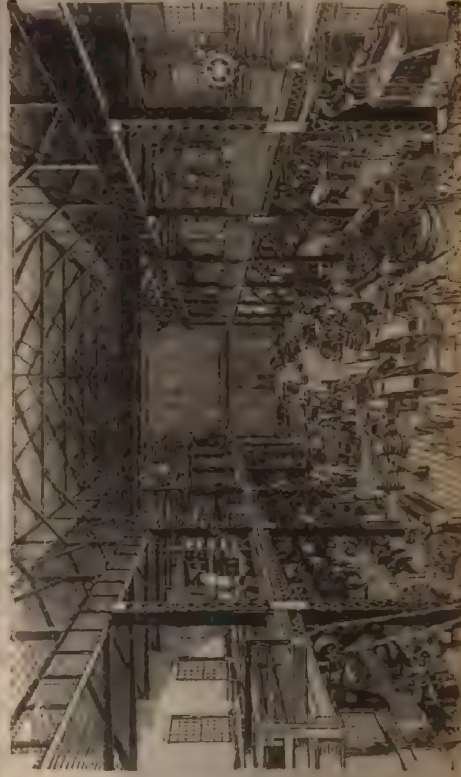
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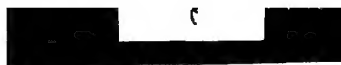
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